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TWENTIETH CENTURY IMPRESSIONS

OF

EGYPT.



Twentieth Century Impressions

of

Egypt.

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES,
AND RESOURCES.

EDITOR IN CHIEF: ARNOLD WRIGHT (LONDON).
ASSISTANT EDITOR: H. A. CARTWRIGHT (CAIRO).

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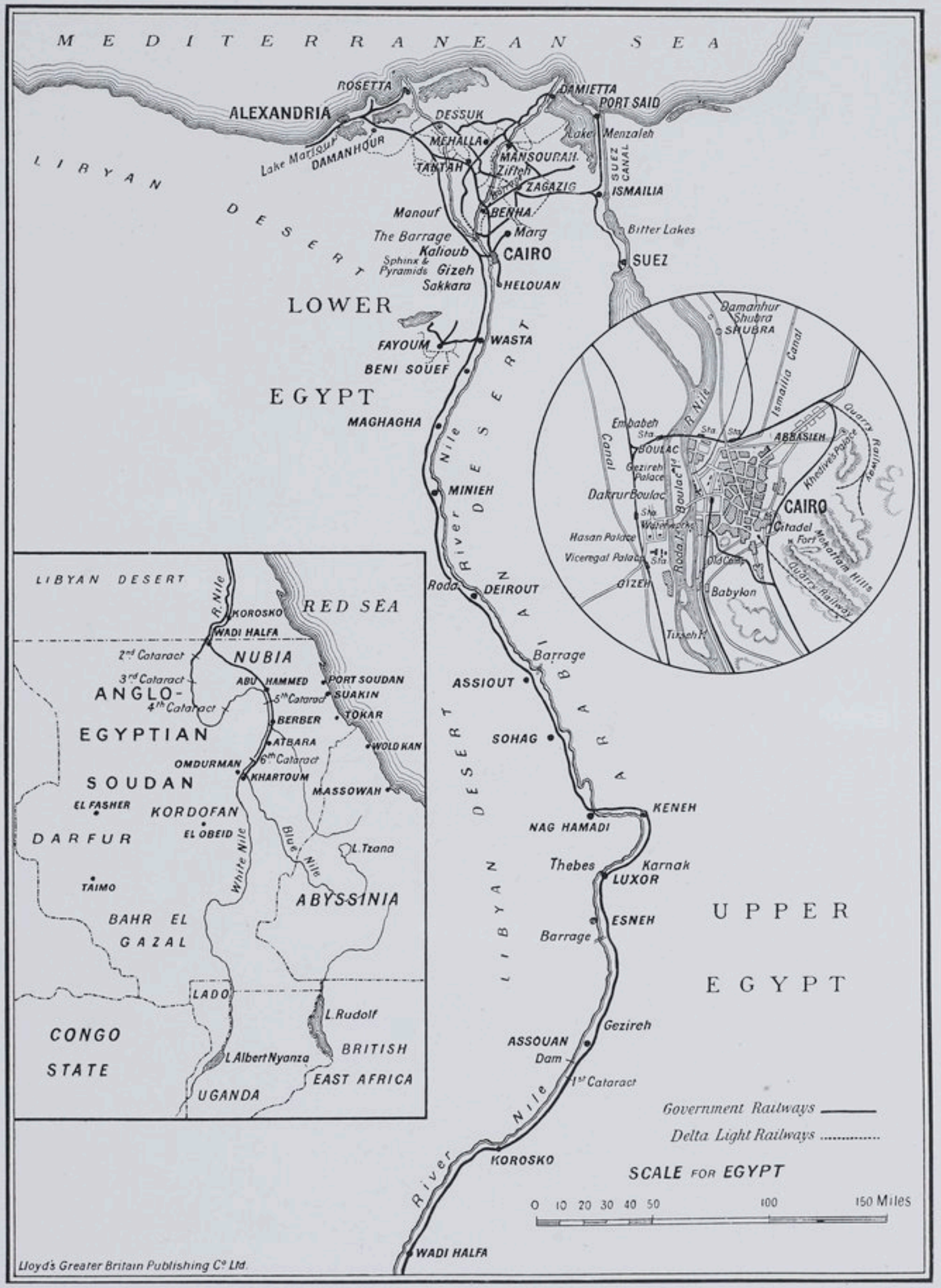
London, E.C.





HIS HIGHNESS ABBAS HILMY II.

KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.


MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ROSETTA
ALEXANDRIA
DAMIETTA
PORT SAID
DESSUK
MEHALLA
Lake Menzaleh
Lake Mariout
DAMANHOUR
TANTAH
MANSOURAH
Ziftch
SUEZ CANAL
ZAGAZIG
ISMAILIA
LIBYAN DESERT
Monouf
BENHA
Bitter Lakes
The Barrage
Marg
Kalioub
CAIRO
SUEZ
Sphinx & Pyramids
Gizeh
Sakkara
HELOUAN
LOWER
FAYOUM
WASTA
BENI SOUEF
EGYPT
MAGHAGHA
MINIEH
Nile River
DESERT
Roda
DEIROUT
ASSIOUT
Barrage
SOHAG
KENEH
NAG HAMADI
Thebes
Karnak
LUXOR
ESNEH
Barrage
UPPER
EGYPT
ASSOUAN
Dam
Gezireh
1st Cataract
Government Railways
Delta Light Railways
KOROSKO
SCALE FOR EGYPT
0 10 20 30 40 50 100 150 Miles
WADI HALFA
Damanhur
Shubra
SHUBRA
Ismailia Canal
Quarry Railway
Embabeh
Sta
R. Nile
ABBASIEH
BOULAC
Gezireh Palace
Canal
Dakrur Boulac
Khedives Palace
CAIRO
Citadel
Fort
Hasan Palace
Viceregal Palace
Old Cairo
Mokattam Hills
GIZEH
Babylon
Tukeh K.
LIBYAN DESERT
R. Nile
KOROSKO
RED SEA
WADI HALFA
2nd Cataract
NUBIA
3rd Cataract
ABU HAMMED
PORT SOUDAN
ANGLO-
4th Cataract
5th Cataract
SUAKIN
EGYPTIAN
BERBER
TOKAR
ATBARA
WOLDKAN
OMDURMAN
6th Cataract
SOUDAN
KHARTOUM
MASSOWAH
EL FASHER
KORDOFAN
EL OBEID
DARFUR
White Nile
Blue Nile
L. Tzana
TAIMO
ABYSSINIA
BAHR EL
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Lloyd's Greater Britain Publishing Co Ltd.



VIEW OF OLD CAIRO.

PREFACE.

ORIGINALLY *designed to give in an attractive form full and reliable information with reference to the outlying parts of the British Empire, the scope of this series of works has been extended to cover the whole field of British commercial and political influence. In some instances, governments seeking to place accurate knowledge of their countries before settlers, traders, and investors have published books and pamphlets from time to time; but there are other centres in which official enterprise in this direction has not been possible, or, at all events, in which action has not been taken, and it is in this field that the publishers are now working. So far, they have found ample justification for their labours in the widespread public interest taken in their operations in the countries and colonies which have been the sphere of their work, and in the extremely cordial reception given by the Press, British, foreign, and colonial, to the completed results.*

Briefly, the aim which the publishers keep steadily before them is to give a perfect microcosm of the country, colony, or dependency treated by them. As old Stow, with patient application and scrupulous regard for accuracy set himself to survey the London of his day, so the workers employed in the production of this series endeavour to give a picture, complete in every particular, of the country under review. But topography is only one of the features treated. Responding to modern needs and tastes, the literary investigators devote their attention to every important phase of life, bringing to the elucidation of the subjects dealt with the powerful aid of the latest and best methods of pictorial illustration. Thus a work is compiled which is not only of solid and enduring value for purposes of reference and for practical business objects, but is of special interest to all who are interested in the development of the country.

In most respects, the present volume follows closely upon the lines of the earlier works of the series on Western Australia, Natal, Orange River Colony, Ceylon, British Malaya, Siam, and Hongkong, Shanghai and the Treaty Ports of China, dealing as it does exhaustively with the history, peoples, commerce, industries, and resources. A feature of this work is the connotation of information likely to prove of service, as well as of interest, to the tourists who flock in thousands to Egypt during the winter months. Neither trouble nor expense has been spared in the attempt to secure full and reliable information in every direction, and wherever possible the services of recognised experts have been enlisted. The general historical matter has been written after an exhaustive study of the leading authorities on Egypt and many original records at the India Office. For the facilities rendered in the prosecution of his researches, and also for the sanction freely given to him to reproduce a large number of scarce

PREFACE.

prints in the splendid collection of the India Office Library, Whitehall, the Editor has to offer his thanks to the India Council. The exceptional position occupied by British officials in high administrative posts in Egypt made it difficult at times to obtain access on the spot to data usually placed voluntarily at the disposition of the compilers; but, on the whole, the Editor has to acknowledge the courteous co-operation of British and native officials alike, many of whom have contributed valuable articles bearing upon the special departments with which they are connected. His Highness the Khedive, Abbas Hilmy II., has shown his interest in the work by bestowing his patronage, and a similar attitude was adopted by Sir Eldon Gorst, K.C.B., H.B.M.'s Minister-Plenipotentiary, Agent, and Consul-General at Cairo.

Each country presents its own peculiar difficulties in the work of compilation. In Egypt, in addition to Arabic, it was found that the French language, though rapidly being superseded by English since the British Occupation in 1882, and especially since the Anglo-French Agreement of 1905, still retains an important place in the social and commercial life of the country; and a reflex of this peculiarity will be found in the present edition. Many of the special articles are translations of French originals. Difficulty was experienced in dealing with the spelling of place names. An authoritative ruling could not be obtained on the point, since the various Government departments adopted different renderings of well-known place names, and even in a particular department no definite rule was followed. To avoid confusion to the reader, the Editor has endeavoured to attain uniformity without claiming special authority for any particular rendering, and it is only fair to contributors to state that in some cases their spelling, where it appeared to make identification of a place difficult—such as Aswan for "Assouan," and Luqqsor for "Luxor,"—the more familiar, though perhaps philologically the less defensible, spelling has been adopted.

It is obvious that a work of this magnitude cannot be produced except at a very considerable cost. As the publishers do not ask for any Government subsidy, because of the restrictions it might impose upon them, this cost has to be met in part by receipts from the sale of copies, and in part by revenue from the insertion of commercial photographs. The publishers venture to think that this fact furnishes no ground for adverse criticism. The principle is that adopted by the highest class of newspapers and magazines all over the world. Moreover, it is claimed that these photographs add to, rather than detract from, the value of the book. They serve to show the manifold interests of the country, and with the accompanying descriptive letterpress, which is written independently by members of the staff from personal observation, they constitute a picturesque and useful feature that is not without interest to the general reader and student of economics, while it is of undoubted value to business men throughout the world.

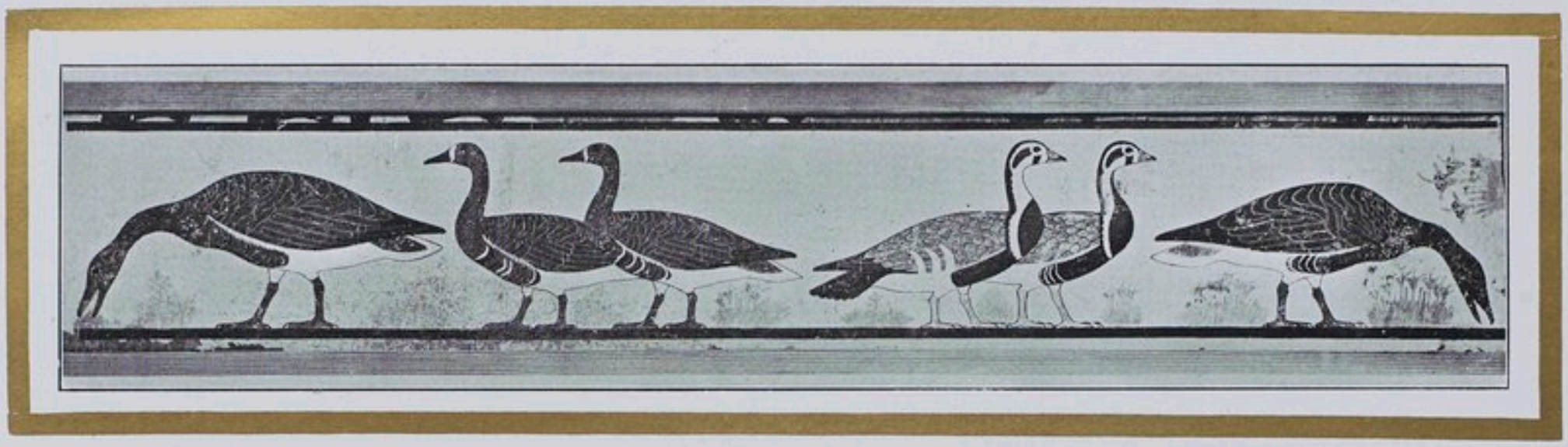
April, 1909.

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PAINTING IN PLASTER REPRESENTING GEESE IN THE ACT OF FEEDING (IIIRD DYNASTY).

Twentieth Century Impressions of Egypt.

ITS HISTORY, PEOPLE, COMMERCE, INDUSTRIES, AND RESOURCES.

HISTORY.

BY ARNOLD WRIGHT.

CHAPTER I.

Ancient Egyptians—An Ethiopian People—Other Theories of their Origin—Their Characteristics—The Limits of Ancient Egypt—The Egyptian Dynasties—The Early Pharaohs—The Building of the Pyramids—The Hyksos Dynasty.



"CONCERNING Egypt," said Herodotus, "I shall extend my remarks to a great length, because there is no country that possesses so many wonders, nor any that has such a number of works which defy description." These words, written more than two thousand years ago, have an immensely added force to-day. The wonders of Herodotus's time still exist, many of them very much in the form in which the historian made their acquaintance; the works also, though they have suffered from the vicissitudes of time, continue to attract the traveller's attention. But they no longer fill the Egyptian horizon as they did. With the lapse of centuries new wonders and works have been created, which, if they do not possess the mysterious fascination of the ancient monuments of the Pharaohs, have an impressiveness which is scarcely less remarkable. Moreover, now more than in past ages the country is the centre around which the world's commerce revolves. Through the Suez Canal pass in unending procession the mercantile navies of the world, vessels which prosecute a trade of a volume and richness surpassing the wildest flights of the imagination of the ancients. Egypt, in fact, is not only pre-eminent amongst the countries of the world for the splendour of her past and the majestic continuity of her history, but for the living interest and glamour of her present life and government.

The origins of Egyptian history are to be sought far back in the dim traditions of the world's earliest recorded life. Through the ages has come down to us in shadowy outline a story of a great tribe or people which, migrating from some distant land, established itself in the Valley of the Nile, and there founded the mighty empire which for many centuries ruled a considerable part of the Eastern world. Ethnologists have disputed over the question of the source from whence this remarkable branch of the human family sprang. The Greek view was that the Egyptians were an Ethiopian people who, emerging from the remote recesses of Africa, descended the Nile and established themselves at Thebes; and this theory has found a good deal of modern support. It is, for example, adopted by Dr. E. A. Wallis Budge, the head of the Department of Egyptian and Assyrian Antiquities at the British Museum, in the admirable handbook which was recently issued for the information of visitors to the Egyptian collections at the great building in Bloomsbury. In this work, which from its exhaustiveness deserves to rank as a history rather than a guide, Dr. Budge assigns an African origin to the ancient Egyptians on the basis of the evidence of their monuments and literature, as well as of Scripture. In the latter connection he recalls that in the "Table of Nations," preserved in the tenth chapter of Genesis, it is stated that Cush and Mizraim were the sons of Ham. "Now," he proceeds, "this Cush or Ethiopia is not the country that we call Abyssinia, but the Northern Soudan or Nubia; therefore, the Nubians (Cush) and the Egyptians (Mizraim) were brethren, and they were Hamites or Africans. The relationship between the Nubians and the Egyptians is also asserted by Diodorus, who declared that the Egyptians were descended from a colony of Ethiopians, *i.e.*, Nubians, who had settled in Egypt. And there is no doubt that from the earliest to the latest times a very close bond existed between the northern Nubians and the Egyptians, which manifested itself in the religion and religious ceremonies of both peoples. The Cushites were dark in colour, sometimes actually black, but there is no evidence which proves they were negroes; and the Egyptians were red, or brown-red, or reddish-yellow in colour. On the west of the Nile Valley lived the fair-skinned

Libyans; on the east the remote ancestors of the Blemmyes and the modern Bishari tribes, who were of a light brownish colour, and on the south, near the Equator, were negro tribes, which formed part of the great belt of black people that extended right across Africa, from sea to sea. The dynastic Egyptian appears to have regarded a country or district called Punt as their original home, and they certainly preserve down to the latest times some of the peculiarities in dress of the primitive inhabitants of that region." As against this theory of African origin we have the view supported by philological research that the Egyptians came from a Caucasian stock. "The primitive roots of essential elements of the Egyptian grammar point," it is claimed by this school, "to such an intimate connection with the Indo-Germanic and Semitic languages, that it is almost impossible to mistake the close relations which formerly prevailed between them."* The Egyptians themselves held to the opinion that they were an indigenous people, free from any foreign taint. "Were they not the peculiar people specially beloved by the gods? Did not the great gods first manifest themselves in Egypt—where the sun-god ruled and fought as a king, and where the descendants still sat on the throne? Therefore the Egyptians alone were termed 'men' (romet); other nations were negroes, Africans, or Libyans, but not *men*. According to this myth these nations were descended from the enemies of the gods, for when the sun-god Re overthrew his opponents at Edfu, a few succeeded in making their escape; those who fled to the south became the Ethiopians, those to the north Asiatics; from the fugitives of the west sprang the Libyans, and from those of the east the Bedouins."†

Whatever their origin the Egyptians were unquestionably a great people—great in science, great in arts, great in the science of government. Their literature has been condemned as being shallow and lacking in evidence of intellectual vigour, but the vast monumental remains of the Valley of the Nile attest with more eloquent force than the written word that the higher mental qualities were not wanting in the ancient Egyptians.

Their popular attributes are brightly sketched by Brugsch Bey: "No people," says this eminent authority, "could be gayer, more lively, of more childlike simplicity, than those old Egyptians who loved life with all their hearts, and found the deepest joy in their very existence. Far from longing for death, they addressed to the host of the holy gods the prayer to preserve and lengthen life, if possible, to the most perfect old age of 110 years. The song and dance and flowing cup, cheerful excursions to the meadows and papyrus marshes—to hunt with bow and arrow, or throw stick, or to fish with spear and hook were the recreation of the nobler classes after work was done." But there is another side to this picture: "Ambition and arrogant pride formed a remarkable feature in the spirit of the old dwellers on the Nile; yet in the schools the poor scribe's child sat on the same bench as the offspring of the rich, and the masters knew how by timely words to goad on the laggards, by holding out to them the rewards which awaited rich and poor alike. Many a monument consecrated to the memory of some nobleman gone to his long home, who, during life had held high rank at the Court of Pharaoh is decorated with the simple, but laudatory inscription, 'His ancestors were unknown people.' Above all things they esteemed justice, and virtue had the highest value in their eyes. The law which ordered them 'to pray to the gods, to honour the dead, to give bread to the hungry, water to the thirsty, clothing to the naked,' reveals to us one of the finest qualities of the old Egyptian character—pity towards the unfortunate. The forty-two commandments of their religion, which are contained in the 'Book of the Dead' are not inferior to the precepts of Christianity; and in reading the old inscriptions concerning morality we are tempted to believe that Moses modelled his teachings on the patterns given by those old sages.

"They were not free, however, from vices and failings. Hatred, envy, cunning intrigue, combined with an overweening sentiment of pride, contradiction and perversity, added to avarice and cruelty—such is the long series of those hereditary faults which history reveals to us among the Egyptians by innumerable examples."

"Nor did the rule of the Pharaohs open to the inhabitants of the land the gates of a terrestrial paradise. The people suffered and endured under the blows of their oppressors, and the stick quickened the despatch of business between the peasant and the tax gatherer. We need but glance at the gigantic masses of the pyramids; they tell more emphatically than living speech or written words of the miseries of a whole population which was condemned to erect these everlasting monuments of Pharaonic vanity, and when thirty centuries later Herodotus visited the Pyramids of Gizeh, the Egyptians told him of the imprecations wrung from their unhappy forefathers during the erection of those monuments."

It is curious how much of ancient Egypt has survived to this day. In the modern fellah of the Delta we have a living presentment of the Egyptian of four thousand years ago. So striking is the continuity of the racial type that, says Erman, "figures meet one that might have walked out of the pictures of an ancient Egyptian tomb." The geographical division of the country into two great regions which marks the arrangements of the present day, existed also in the time of the Pharaohs. Ancient Egypt, as Brugsch points out, was commonly called the double land because of these two great divisions. The first region corresponded to what is now known as Upper Egypt, and what Arabs to this day call Sahid. It commenced on the south, at the ivory island city of Elephantiné, which lay opposite to Syene, the modern trading town of Assouan. "Its northern boundary reached to the neighbourhood of Memphis. Lower Egypt comprehended the remainder: the Bahari of the Arabs, the Delta of the Greeks. The chief division of which, according to sacred tradition was referred back to the time of the god kings, explains the name of 'double country,' especially in the title of the kings, and enables us to see clearly the grounds of the opposition by which the sovereignty of the south was committed to the god Set, and that of the north to Horus the son of Osiris. Following tradition, every king on the day of his solemn coronation—which was distinct from the day of his receiving the kingdom in his father's lifetime, or on the death of his predecessor—received as his chief insignia two crowns, of which the white upper one symbolised his sovereignty over the south, the red lower one his dominion over the north." This double land, as a single entity is designated in the old inscriptions and by the later Egyptians by a word signifying "the Black Land," in contradistinction to the neighbouring desert territory which bore the name of Tesherit, or "Red Land." In countless instances we find, says the eminent authority we are quoting, that the king is mentioned as "the lord of the black country and the red country," in order to show that his rule extended over cultivated and uncultivated Egypt in the wider sense of the word.

When we approach the history of Egypt as revealed in its records, monumental and otherwise, we are confronted with a remarkable mass of facts illustrative of the life of the nation. "In no other country," observes H. M. Tirard, in his introduction to Adolph Erman's "Life in ancient Egypt," "are there so few gaps in the historic sequence of events. From the time of King Snofru to the conquest of Alexander the Great, and from the Greek time to the Arab invasion, we have an almost unbroken chain of monuments and writings. In this country alone we can observe the same people for five thousand years, the language changed once, the religion twice, the nationality of the ruling class many times, but the natural conditions of life remained steadfast."

Historical experts are in general agreement in assigning the direction of Egyptian history in ancient days to 126 kings grouped under thirty dynasties, but they differ widely as to the period of time over which the rule of these monarchs extended.

The following are the dates given by various historians.

	B.C.		B.C.
Boeckh	5702	Lauth	4157
Unger	5613	Lepsius	3892
Brugsch	4455	Bunsen	3623

Thus there is a difference of no less a period than 2,097 years between one great historian and another. It is, as one eminent commentator remarks, "as if one should hestitate whether to fix the date of the accession of Augustus at B.C. 207 or A.D. 1872."

The real basis of Egyptian history apart from the monuments is a famous work by Manetho, an Egyptian priest. This writer, whose book is now lost, gave a general review of the life of the Egyptian kings with much information relative to the condition of the country and its mode of government. Though for a time the writings of this historian were discredited mainly owing to the liberties taken with his text by classical authors, modern research has vindicated the reliability of his statements and in its main essentials his version of the life of the Egyptian race is accepted. It is a story which is characterised by a certain monotony owing to the repetition of facts and incidents relating to the life of the long list of kings who at different periods ruled over the land. Mena, the earliest of these sovereigns, comes down to us through the mists of ages, endowed with the attributes of a great lawgiver and administrator. He is considered to have been the founder of Memphis, and if so it must have been in his reign that was carried through the great engineering feat of diverting the course of the Nile by means of the construction of an enormous dyke running along the foot of the Libyan hills. He and his immediate successors bore the title of Pharaoh which is historically associated with the ancient sovereignty of Egypt. The word is the Hebrew version of the Egyptian word Peroa; "the great house." These early Pharaohs, as the ancient monuments at Memphis reveal to us, were held in high veneration by the people. At the simple sight of them all persons prostrated themselves, and touched the ground with their noses. It was a special favour with even the highest of them to be permitted to kiss the monarch's knee. Their courts were organised with scientific precision. Rules, carefully framed, governed every phase of royal life from the position of nobles at great state functions down to the management of the

* "Egypt under the Pharaohs," by Heinrich Brugsch Bey. New Edition. p. 3.

† Erman's "Life in Ancient Egypt."

royal kitchen. A governor or bailiff acting under the direct orders of the sovereign superintended the administration of the country, which was in the hands of a host of officials carefully graded, and each with clearly assigned duties. A high position in the Egyptian social scale was assigned to those whose duty it was to attend to the construction of buildings and monuments. Under them were tens of thousands of slaves who quarried at their behest the stone required for the structures, and assisted to float it down the Nile by means of rafts. Necessarily an important element of the population was the hosts of young soldiers who guarded the country. They were armed with clubs, axes, spears, and bows and arrows, and were commanded by experienced generals with a supreme commander-in-chief upon whom devolved the duty of framing the plan of campaign. In sharp contrast to these warlike hosts were the hersehta or "teachers of mysteries." They were divided into various classes. There were, for example, "mystery teachers of heaven," who interpreted the stars, "mystery teachers of all lands," who explained mundane problems, "mystery teachers of the secret word" who expounded philosophy, and "mystery teachers of Pharaoh" who were personally attached to the sovereign, probably to draft his decrees and expound his laws. The community was one highly self centred, and, judged from the ancient standpoint, civilised.

It was in this period of the old empire that those colossal monuments of human vanity and power—the pyramids—were erected. All the kings of the period shared in the work of pyramid building, but it is to three kings—Khufu (Cheops), Khaf-Ra (Chephren), and Menkau-Ra (Mykerinos), that the world owes the three famous pyramids of Gizeh. The IVth and Vth dynasties lasted, according to scientific reckoning, about three hundred years, that period covering the reigns of fifteen kings. It was regarded by later Egyptians as a sort of golden period of Egyptian history. "They delighted," says M. Erman, "to imitate the customs of that time even in undesirable ways, such as the difficult orthography." To the modern world, the old empire "appears to have been a period of youthful power and undisturbed development; for not only do the tomb pictures show no dislike of this world, but also art itself is fresher than in any subsequent period."

After this period we meet with no very striking personality amongst the Egyptian rulers until we come to Pepi, the third king of the VIth dynasty. From the many important memorials which exist of this monarch in all parts of Egypt, it is inferred that he was a great ruler. He seems to have carried on a vigorous campaign against the Syrian Bedouins who had overrun the country. How far he was successful is not clear, but that the country was left at his death in a bad state is to be inferred from the fact that the central government fell to pieces and that a period of confusion ensued until the beginning of the reign of Amenemha't, the first king of the XIIth dynasty. This monarch, profiting by the action of a predecessor, the last of a line of Theban kings, who had reunited the various principalities into which the country was divided under one kingship, marched through the Delta and reorganised the government, fixing the boundaries of towns and making an equitable land settlement. According to an inscription at Beni Hasan he acted in this matter not according to his own will but from information he drew from books "as to the irrigated district belonging to each town, and this was drawn up according to the old writings," because he loved truth so much. We also learn from the records that in his prosperous reign "no man went hungry or thirsty." Amenemha't was not only a great king himself, but he was the progenitor of a line of great kings. As the previous epoch had been distinguished by pyramid builders, this middle empire period was famous for its works of utility. The great reservoir in the Fayoum, generally known as Lake Mœris, was planned by the third king of the dynasty. This was an enterprise of remarkable utility. By its agency a great tract of land, 66 square miles in extent, was effectually irrigated and the productivity of the country was immeasurably increased. Great things have been done in Egypt in the domain of water engineering, but this beneficent project of Amenemha't still remains an object of admiring wonder on account of the skill displayed in the conception and the thoroughness of the execution. An interesting evidence of the extreme care bestowed in this king's reign upon irrigation is to be found in the following inscription upon a rock at Semneh, then the southernmost point of the Egyptian Empire: "Height of the Nile in the year 14, under the reign of His Majesty King Amenemha't, the ever living." No doubt it was from this point that the periodical rises of the Nile were signalled to the low lying districts. Amenemha't was responsible for another work of antiquity, which, though on a different plane as regards serviceability, was not less wonderful. This was the famous Labyrinth, that vast structure of three thousand halls and chambers—half above, half below ground—which was the subject of so much fascination to classical writers. The stone for this and other monuments of the Middle Empire came to a large extent from the Sinai Peninsula as is attested by inscriptions on the rocks in that locality, dating from the second to the forty-fourth year of the King's reign.

With the disappearance of the Amenemha'ts of the XIIth dynasty, we reach a blank in Egyptian history. Speculation has filled this in various ways, but it is idle to follow these vain gropings after a practically non-attainable light. We may in the absence of evidence accept the tradition which generally receives credence amongst Egyptologists, that during this period of darkness the Egyptians were engaged in a life and death struggle with a race of foreign origin, and that eventually this race established itself in a predominant position. Josephus gives a sketch of this dynastic and racial upheaval in these words:

"There was a king called TIMÆUS (Timaius: var. lect. Timaos, Timios). In his reign, I know not for what reason, God was unfavourable and a people of inglorious origin from the regions of the East suddenly attacked the land, of which they took possession easily and without a struggle. They overthrew those who ruled in it, burnt down the cities, and laid waste the sanctuaries of the gods. They ill-treated all the inhabitants, for they put some to the sword and carried others into captivity with their wives and children.



THE ISLAND OF PHILÆ AT SUNSET.
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

"Then they made one of themselves king, whose name was SALATIS (var. lect. Saltis, Silitis; in the list Saites). He fixed his residence at Memphis, collected the taxes from the upper and lower country, and placed garrisons in the most suitable places. But he especially fortified the Eastern frontiers, for he foresaw that the Assyrians, who were then the most powerful people, would endeavour to make an attack on his kingdom.

"When he had found in the Sethroite nome a city very conveniently situated to the east of the Bubastite arm of the Nile—on account of an old religious legend, it was called Avaris—he extended it, fortified it with very strong walls, and placed in it a garrison of 240,000 heavily armed troops. Thither he betook himself in summer, partly to watch over the distribution of provisions and the counting out of the pay to his army, and partly to inspire the foreigners with fear by making his army perform military exercises.

He died after he had reigned 19 years.

His successor, by name BNON (or Banon, Beon), reigned 44 years.

After him another, APACHNAN (or Apachnas), 36 years 7 months.
After him APHOBIS (or Aphosis, Apophis, Aphosis), 61 years.
And ANNAS (or Janias, Jannas, Anan), 50 years 1 month.
Last of all ASSETA (or Aseth, Ases, Assis), 49 years 2 months.

"These six were the first kings. They carried on uninterrupted war, with a view to destroy the land of Egypt, even to extermination.

"The whole people bore the name of HYKSOS, that is 'king shepherds' (commonly called 'shepherd kings.') For *hyk* in the holy language signifies a 'king,' and *sos* in the dialect of the people a 'shepherd' or 'shepherds.' Thus combined they form *Hyksos*. Some think they are Arabs."

Josephus's view that the Hyksos are to be identified with the Arabs is supported by a legend of the Middle Ages which was concerned with a mighty man of valour of Arab extraction who conducted a victorious campaign of conquest which made him ruler of a territory stretching as far as the Straits of Gibraltar on the west. This conqueror and his descendants, the founders of the Amalekite dynasties, are said to have maintained themselves for more than two hundred years in Lower Egypt, where they made the town of Avaris their capital. In opposition to this theory we have the statement made by Julius Africanus that the Hyksos kings were Phœnicians who took possession of Memphis and made Avaris their chief fortress. This tradition Brugsch considers to be not without a certain appearance of truth. "The ancient seats of the Shasu Arabs and the Phœnicians extend westwards to the city of Zor Tanis, consequently, the two races must have come into the closest contact. That amidst such a mixture of nations the cultivated Khar would obtain the foremost place scarcely needs a proof, but whether they or the Shasu were the originators of the movement against the native kings is a question which scientific research has hitherto been unable to answer. The inscriptions on the monuments designate that foreign people who once ruled in Egypt by the name of *Men* or *Menti*. On the walls of the Temple of Edfû it is stated that the inhabitants of the land of Asher are called Menti. By the help of the demotic translation of the trilingual inscription on the great stone of Tanis known as the 'Decree of Canopus' (Ptolemaic times) we can establish that such was the common name of Syria in the popular language of the Egyptians, while the older name of the same country, cited in the hieroglyphic part of the stone was Rutennu, with the addition of 'the east.' In the different languages, therefore, and in the different periods of history, the following names are synonymous: Syria, Rutennu of the East, Asher, and Menti."

Summarising the results of historical research on this subject, Brugsch Bey points out that a certain number of non-Egyptian kings of foreign origin belonging to the nation of the Menti ruled for a long time in the eastern portion of the Delta. They adopted not only the manners and customs of the Egyptians but also their official language and writing, and the order of their court was arranged on Egyptian models. "They were patrons of art, and Egyptian artists erected after the ancient models, monuments in honour of these usurpers, in whose statues they were obliged to reproduce the Hyksos physiognomy, the peculiar arrangement of the beard and head-dress as well as other variations of their costume. . . . In all probability one of them was the founder of a new era, which most likely began with the first year of the reign. Down to the time of the second Rameses, four hundred years had elapsed of this reckoning, which was acknowledged even by the Egyptians. The Egyptians were indebted to their contact with them for much useful knowledge. In particular their artistic views were expanded and new forms and shapes, notably that of the winged sphinx, were introduced, the Semitic origin of which is obvious at a glance. The number of monuments which contain memorials of the time of the Hyksos is very limited, and names of these kings, on their own memorial stones, as well as those of earlier Egyptian kings of the times before them, have in many cases been carefully chiselled out, so that in deciphering the joint traces which remain we have to contend with great difficulties. This gap in the sequence of the monuments may be explained by the fact that when the native rulers were re-established they carefully obliterated every record of the hated usurpers."

CHAPTER II.

The Period of the Jewish Bondage—An Egyptian Story resembling that of Joseph and Potiphar's Wife—Overthrow of the Hyksos Dynasty—Erection of Vast Monuments at Memphis and Thebes—The Great Reign of Thothmes III.—Introduction of Sun Worship by Amenhetep IV.—Rameses II., the King who "knew not Joseph"—The Later Pharaohs.

THE Hyksos period derives a special interest from the fact that to it belongs, in the opinion of most experts, the record of Jewish bondage in the land of the Pharaohs. By a careful computation of dates, Brugsch assigns the beginning of the era of captivity to the year 1750 B.C., and he concludes that the exodus occurred approximately in the year 1300 B.C. in the reign of Merenptah, the son of Rameses II. There is no direct reference to the captivity of the Jews in any discovered inscriptions or writings, but there are allusions to the presence of "foreigners" in the land which conceivably may refer to the tribes of Israel. Further, some of the historical remains of ancient Egypt harmonise in a very striking way with episodes in the Biblical narrative. Notably is this the case with the story of Joseph's life. First, we have on an inscription which appears on a tomb at El-Kab attributed to the Hyksos period this direct reference to the seven years' famine which is a leading feature of the account: "I collected corn, as a friend of the harvest god. I was watchful at the time of sowing. And when a famine arose, lasting many years, I distributed corn to the city each year of famine." Another and perhaps more remarkable parallelism is a relation in an ancient papyrus of an incident similar to that of the temptation of Joseph by Potiphar's wife in the Old Testament. The papyrus tells how a certain married man named Anpu despatched his younger brother to his house with an injunction to him to fetch some seed corn. "The young brother found the wife of his elder brother occupied in braiding her hair, and he said to her, 'Rise up, give me seed corn that I may return to the field, for thus has my elder brother enjoined me, to return without delay.' The woman said to him, 'Go in, open the chest, that thou mayest take what thine heart desires, otherwise my locks will fall by the way.' And the youth entered into the stable and took thereout a large vessel, for it was his wish to carry away much seed corn. And he loaded himself with wheat and grains of durra and went out with it. Then she said to him, 'How great is the burthen on thine arm?' He said to her, 'Two measures of durra and three measures of wheat, making together five measures, which rest on my arms.' Thus he spake to her. But she spake to the youth and said, 'How great is thy strength! Well have I remarked thy vigour every time.' And her heart knew him! . . . And she stood up and laid hold of him, and she said to him, 'Come, let us enjoy an hour's rest. The most beautiful things shall be thy portion, for I will prepare for thee festal garments.' Then the youth became like to the panther of the south for rage, on account of the evil word which she had spoken to him; but she was afraid beyond all measure. And he spoke to her and said, 'Thou, O woman, hast been to me like a mother, and thy husband like a father, for he is older than I, so that he might have been my parent. *Why this so great sin, that thou hast spoken to me?* Say it not to me another time, then will I not tell it this time, and no word of it shall come out of my mouth about it to any man whatsoever.' And he loaded himself with his burthen, and went out into the field. And he went to his elder brother, and they completed their day's work.

"When it was now evening, the elder brother returned home to his dwelling. And his younger brother followed behind his oxen, which he had laden with all the good things of the field, driving them before him to prepare for them their resting place in the stable in the village. And behold the wife of his elder brother was afraid because of the word which she had spoken, and she took a jar of fat, and she was like one to whom an evildoer had offered violence. She wished thereby to say to her husband, 'Thy young brother has offered me violence.' And her husband returned home at evening according to his daily custom, and entered into his house, and found his wife stretched out and suffering from injury. She gave him no water for his hands according to her custom. And the lamp was not lighted, so that the house was in darkness. But she lay there and vomited. And her husband spoke to her thus: 'Who has had to do with thee? Lift

thyself up!' She said to him, 'No one has had to do with me except thy young brother. for when he came to take seed corn for thee he found me sitting alone, and said to me, "Come, let us make merry an hour and rest! Let down thy hair!" Thus he spake to me, but I did not listen to him (but said), "See! am I not thy mother, and is not thy elder brother like a father to thee?" Thus I spoke to him, but he did not hearken to my speech, and used force with me, that I might not make a report to thee. Now if thou allowest him to live, I will kill myself.'"

This account, which is taken from the translation appearing in M. Le Page Ronouf's "Records of the Past," reproduces so closely the features of the Joseph and Potiphar's wife story that it is impossible to dissociate the two.

The domination of the Hyksos kings ended with the XVIIth dynasty. The story of its overthrow is told in dramatic language in an inscription on the tomb dedicated to one Aahmes, the son of Abana-Baba, who was the leader of the national movement against the usurpers. The concluding passages of this remarkable chronicle are these :—

"His Majesty was furious against them like a panther, and his Majesty shot his first arrow, which remained sticking in the body of his enemy. He fell down fainting before the asp (on the royal diadem). A (great defeat) took place there in a short time, and their people were carried away as living captives, and his Majesty travelled downwards. All nations were in his power, and this miserable king of the Nubian people (Anti) was bound on the fore part of the ship of his Majesty, and he was placed on the ground in the city of Thebes.

"After this his Majesty betook himself to the land of Rutennu, to slake his anger among the inhabitants of the land. His Majesty reached the land of Naharain. His Majesty—life, strength, and wealth to him!—found these enemies. He set the battle in array. His Majesty made a great slaughter among them. Innumerable was the crowd of living prisoners which his Majesty carried away after his victory. And behold, I was at the head of our warriors. His Majesty admired my valour. I carried off a chariot of war and its horses, and those who were upon it as living prisoners, and brought them to his Majesty. Then was I presented with gold once more.

"Now I have lived many days and have reached a grey old age. My lot will be that of all men upon the earth. (I shall go down to the nether world, and be placed in the) coffin, which I have had made for myself."

Aahmes inaugurated a new and glorious era in Egyptian history. On his initiative the abandoned quarries in the mountainous region were re-opened and limestone in great quantities was quarried for the construction of temples in Memphis, Thebes, and other great centres. This was the beginning of a vast movement for the erection of monuments which engaged the Egyptians for many centuries, and resulted in the creation of the immense imperial temple of the god Amen at Thebes, in the neighbourhood of Karnak, the great temple of the Sun at Edfu, and other colossal monuments. Egypt's strength at this period showed itself not only in gigantic buildings, as in the early days of her glory, but in foreign conquest. After subduing the tribes on their northern border, the kings of the XVIIIth dynasty entered upon the conquest of Nubia and succeeded in bringing the land into subjection as far as the third cataract. Thothmes I., the monarch chiefly responsible for this feat of arms, also undertook a great campaign in another direction. His forces overran Palestine and Syria and penetrated into Mesopotamia. A monument left on the banks of the Euphrates attested for ages the greatness of the military achievements of this king. But little else was handed down to posterity, for the overlordship over these remote regions was abandoned by the king's successor—his sister-consort, Queen Hat'shepset. This was a remarkable woman. As soon as her husband, who was also her brother, died, she donned male attire and caused herself to be crowned as king. She ordered all references to her predecessor to be obliterated from monuments and replaced the inscriptions with allusions to herself or to her father. She was the builder of the beautiful temple of Der-el-Bahari, one of the finest specimens of the work of the golden period of Egyptian art. Another of her achievements was an imposing expedition to Punt. Under her direction ships were made ready and necessary guards were told off for each, while arrangements were also made for a number of Egyptian ladies and officials to accompany them. The expedition was well received by the inhabitants of Punt. The authorities loaded Hat'shepset's emissaries with rich presents of gold, ivory, spices, and precious stones and sent them back with cordial messages. Hat'shepset accepted the gifts with joy and dedicated the greater part of them as an offering to her father. After a reign of twenty years Hat'shepset was succeeded by her nephew, who is known to history as Thothmes III. He was one of the greatest of Egyptian kings. During his long reign of fifty-three years he conducted a successful warfare against various warlike races on the confines of his empire. Soon after his accession, assembling a great army, he marched into Syria, passing through the desert of Sinai. He encountered the enemy sixteen days after leaving Gaza, and inflicted upon them a heavy defeat. The routed troops fled to Megiddo, throwing away their arms as they went. Following them up, Thothmes III. drove them from the town and subsequently occupied it. An immense number of the enemy had by this time been slain and the country soon gave evidence that it was tired of fighting. From many parts of Mesopotamia came governors to offer Thothmes their submission and with it rich gifts of gold and precious stones. After this there was full recognition for a good many years of the Egyptian authority, and in order to make the relations between conqueror and conquered still more intimate Thothmes married a princess of Babylon. But the peace was ultimately broken, and the remainder of the king's reign was occupied in conducting campaigns that were more or less successful. He left the Egyptian Empire with enormously extended boundaries. It stretched on the south as far as the southern confines of Nubia, on the north-east it reached to Lake Van, on the east to the Tigris, and on the west to the great desert on the left bank of the Nile. Thothmes III., besides being a great warrior, was a monument builder of more than common fame. Amongst his varied achievements in this direction were the four obelisks which in the present age are objects of curious interest to visitors to London, Rome, Constantinople, and New York. Thothmes III. was succeeded, after a brief interval during which two unimportant kings reigned, by a monarch who is known to history as Amenhetep IV. This king developed into a religious reformer of a pronounced type. Discarding the ancient rites, he established the worship of the sun as the one true god, and called the god Re Harmachis, or more commonly Eten, the "Sun disc." His methods of proselytising for the new faith were marked by extreme violence. He caused the name of Amon, the great god of his ancestors, to be obliterated from all monuments, and changed the name of the god to Chu-en-eten—"the splendour of the disc." Nor was this all. Finding residence amongst the memorials of the old religion to be oppressive he left Thebes and established a fresh capital at a spot near the modern Tel-el-Amarna, calling the newly created city the "Horizon of the sun's disc."



SIOUT.

(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

Here the new faith was practised with great solemnity. Some prayers still extant give us an insight into this new cult. The following invocation by the king's treasurer breathes a spirit of pure theism :—

"Beautiful is thy setting, thou Sun's disc of life, thou lord of lords, and king of the worlds. When thou unitest thyself with the heaven at thy setting, mortals rejoice before thy countenance, and give honour to him who has created them, and pray before him who has formed them, before the glance of thy son, who loves thee, the King Khu-n-aten. The whole land of Egypt and all peoples repeat all thy names at thy rising, to magnify thy rising in like manner as thy setting. Thou, O God, who art in truth the living one, standest before the two eyes. Thou art he who createst what never was, who formest everything that is in the universe. We also have come into being through the word of thy mouth.

"Give me favour before the king every day; let there not be wanting to me a good burial after attaining old age in the territory of Khu-n-aten, when I shall have finished my course of life peaceably.

"I am a servant of the divine benefactor (the king); I accompany him to all places where he loves to stay. I am a companion at his feet. For he raised me to greatness when I was yet a child, till (the day of my) honours in good fortune. The servant of the prince rejoices and is in a festive disposition every day."

The queen's prayer to the sun god may also be quoted as a beautiful example of reverent adoration.

"Thou disc of the sun, thou living God! there is none other beside thee! Thou givest health to the eye through thy beams, Creator of all beings. Thou goest up on the Eastern horizon of heaven to dispense life to all which thou hast created; to man, four-footed beasts, birds and all manner of creeping things on the earth where they live. Thus they behold thee, and they go to sleep when thou settest.

"Grant to thy son who loves thee, life in truth, to the Lord of the land, Khu-n-aten (Amenhetep), that he may live united with thee in eternity.

"As for her, his wife, the Queen Nefer-it-Thi, may she live for evermore and eternally by his side, well pleasing to thee; she admires what thou hast created day by day.

"He (the king) rejoices at the sight of thy benefits. Grant him a long existence as king of the land."

Amenhetep IV. was succeeded, after an interval covered by the brief reigns of several monarchs of minor importance, by Horemheb, a man of comparatively obscure lineage, who early in his life had attracted the notice of Amenhetep III., and through his favour (with that of the lad's tutelary dignitary, Horus, as an ancient inscription informs us) was raised to the throne soon after the death of his patron. Horemheb's accession was marked by a splendid ceremony at Thebes, and he soon showed that he possessed vigorous qualities as a ruler. One of his first enterprises was a campaign against the Soudan. At Silsilis are some bas reliefs which describe the course of these operations. "The Pharaoh," says Champollion in his account of the monuments, "is represented standing, as, with his battle-axe on his shoulder he receives from Amen-Ra the emblem of divine life, and power to subdue the North and to conquer the South. Beneath lie Ethiopians, some prostrate on the ground, others stretching forth their hands in prayer to an Egyptian leader, who, according to the inscription, upbraids them with having shut their hearts to wisdom, and with refusing to hear when it was said to them 'Behold the lion who has fallen upon the land of Cush.'" There is a representation of the King being carried on his throne by his generals, and in his train are shown lines of captives. An inscription tells the story of this triumphant march in these words :—

"The divine benefactor returns home after he has subdued the princes of all countries. His bow is in his hand as if he were the Lord of Thebes. The powerful glorious King comes back from Ethiopia with the booty which he has taken by force, as his father, Amen, had commanded him."

Apart from this Soudan campaign little is known of Horemheb's reign, but it is clear from an inscription preserved at the British Museum that he reigned at least twenty-one years. With his death the XVIIIth dynasty came to a close. The new king was Rameses I., who is supposed to have been a connection of Horemheb. He has left only a faint mark on the course of ancient Egyptian history. His successor, Seti I., distinguished himself by a series of victorious campaigns against the Bedawi, the Kheta, and other outlying tribes, but his feats, great as they were, were overshadowed by the achievements of Rameses II., the next king of the dynasty.

Rameses II., perhaps better known by his great name Sesostris, was the Pharaoh of the period of Jewish bondage—the one who "knew not Joseph." But he has other and more creditable pretentions to posthumous fame. He was a great king, perhaps the greatest that ever ruled over Egypt. "He was," says Mr. E. A. Wallis Budge, in his erudite work, "The Mummy," "a man of commanding stature, of great physical strength and personal bravery, a great builder, and a liberal patron of the science and art of his days. Around his name has gathered a multitude of legends and the exploits of other warriors and heroes who reigned hundreds of years after him have been attributed to him." He conducted many successful expeditions, one notable one against the Cheta, a confederation of nomad people living on the confines of the empire. Notwithstanding his activity in war he was famous as one of the greatest builders that ever sat on the throne of Egypt, and his name is found on stelæ, obelisks, temples, &c., from Beyrut in Syria to remote Napata. He built a temple of granite at Tanis, a town which seems to have been founded four hundred years before his time by Nubti, one of the so-called Hyksos kings. At Heliopolis he set up obelisks, none of which have come down to our time; at Memphis he added largely to the temple of Ptah; and at Abydos he completed a temple begun by his father, Seti I. At Thebes he finished the buildings begun by his father and grandfather; he repaired the temples of Thothmes III. and of Amenhetep III., adding walls and doors, and occasionally usurping monuments of the kings who went before him; he set up statues of himself and two splendid obelisks before a building, made adjoining the temple of Amenhetep III.

The tribute brought in by conquered nations enriched the country, the hosts of foreign workmen employed by the king produced articles of luxury and beauty, art and literature flourished unfettered, and the tombs and sepulchres of the dead were scarcely less splendid than the palaces of the king or the houses of his nobles.

After the death of Rameses Egypt declined rapidly. It was not until the reign of Rameses III., the second king of the XXth dynasty, that the country revived. This monarch, who aspired to emulate the achievements of his great predecessor of the same name, conducted a series of brilliant campaigns against the hereditary enemies of Egypt on the confines of the empire. He also devoted his attention to trade, and amongst other things opened up the old road between Kosseir on the Red Sea and Coptos on the Nile. Further, he superintended the development of turquoise mines in the Sinaitic Peninsula and copper mines in the land of Ataka. In fine he was a monarch of much energy and force of character. After the death of Rameses III. nine kings of the same name reigned in succession, and with the reign of the last of them — Rameses XII. — the XXth dynasty came to a close. The successor to the throne was Hrihor, the high priest of Amon of Thebes. He inaugurated a priestly dynasty which lasted for about a century. It gave place in its turn to a line of foreign kings (the XXIInd dynasty), by some thought to be of either Assyrian or Babylonian origin. The first of these was Shashanq I., who, as Mr. Budge reminds us in his work, was the Shishak of the Bible, the protector of Jeroboam, who lifted up his head against Solomon (1 Kings xi. 26), led an expedition against Rehoboam, King of Judah, and took away from Jerusalem "the treasures of the house of the Lord, and the treasures of the king's house; he even took away all; and he took away all the shields of gold which Solomon had made" (1 Kings xiv. 25, 26). When this energetic king passed away the government of Egypt once more fell into weak hands. Emboldened by the decaying power of the predominant race, the Ethiopians boldly pressed northwards intent on conquest. They first established an independent capital at Napata, situated in the 19th degree of latitude. Having consolidated their power from that centre in the country round about, they continued their advance down the Nile and eventually brought the entire country under their influence. The period of this conquest was about B.C. 700. It coincided with the establishment of the XXVth dynasty. The Ethiopian domination did not long remain unchallenged. Advancing from the direction of Syria, the Assyrian hosts under Asarhaddon marched into Egypt and conquered the country as far as Thebes. They were twice driven out by the Ethiopians, but in B.C. 662 they renewed the struggle with completely successful results. Afterwards the country appears to have been dominated by a series of petty princes, and finally we find one of them figuring as the first king of the XXVIth dynasty, with the title of Psemthek. This monarch established his capital at Sais, and soon, according to Herodotus, the city became one of the most flourishing in the kingdom. The king's reign was marked by a great revival of art, but nothing he could do could serve to stem the tide of Egyptian decay. Old Egypt, the Egypt of the Pharaohs, was by this time rapidly passing away. "The beautiful old capitals, Memphis and Thebes," says Brugsch, "were at this time in ruins, or at all events depopulated and deserted, and the strong bulwarks of the 'white citadel' of Memphis alone served as a refuge for the persecuted native kings and their warriors in times of need. The Persian satraps dwelt in the old Royal halls of the city, and they, after a short interval, took up the part played by the Assyrians, and gave Egypt her final death blow. Although Psemthek I. succeeded in gaining the throne as sole king, for himself and his descendants, and though the monuments from the ruins of Sais to the weather-worn rocks of Elephantiné show traces of the rule of the Pharaohs of the XXVIth dynasty, the old splendour was gone."

On the death of Psemthek I. his son, Nekau II., reigned (B.C. 612–596). He was a

ruler of great enterprise who considerably widened the boundaries of Egyptian influence. Fleets were maintained both in the Red Sea and in the Mediterranean, and Phœnician sailors in his employ successfully circumnavigated Africa. Under his direction an attempt was made to carry out the project of cutting a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea, which was initiated by Seti I. and further prosecuted by Rameses II. Vast numbers of labourers were employed, and no fewer than 120,000 lives were lost before the work was completed. Nekau signalised the latter part of his reign by conducting an important campaign against the Assyrians. On his march to Mesopotamia he was opposed by Josiah, King of Judah. Nekau, according to the scriptural narrative (2 Chron. xxxv. 21—24), "sent ambassadors to him saying, What have I to do with thee, thou King of Judah? I come not against thee this day, but against the house wherewith I have war: for God commanded me to make haste: forbear thee from meddling with God, who is with me, that he destroy thee not. Nevertheless Josiah would not turn his face from him, and hearkened not unto the words of Necho from the mouth of God, and came to fight in the Valley of Megiddo. And the archers shot at King Josiah; and the king said to his servants, 'Have me away, for I am dire wounded.' His servants, therefore, took him out of that chariot and put him in the second chariot that he had, and they brought him to Jerusalem, and he died and was buried in one of the sepulchres of his fathers." Nekau, after the fight, marched to Carchemish, and after a sojourn there returned home, visiting Jerusalem on the way to inflict punishment for the opposition manifested to him. Having deposed Jehohaz, son of Josiah, and set up Eliakim (Jehoiakim), another son of Josiah in his stead, he continued his march homewards. Soon he was called upon again to take the field by the news that Nebuchadnezzar II. with a great Babylonian army was advancing against him. He encountered the enemy at Carchemish, but though he fought gallantly was utterly defeated.

The death blow to the XXVIth dynasty was given by Cambyses, King of Persia, who invaded Egypt about B.C. 525, took prisoner Psemthek III., the last of the Sais kings, and established himself in his place. Cambyses at the outset promised a conciliatory policy. He tolerated, if he did not actually adopt the Egyptian religious rites, he encouraged Egyptian arts, and even contributed handsomely to the maintenance of the temples and national institutions. But he never really gained a place in the hearts of the people, and during his temporary absence in Persia troubles arose in different parts of Egypt, and in the attempts made to suppress them the royal troops suffered serious reverses. At length Cambyses himself took the field, but he too was defeated by the enemy, near Napata. Mortified at his lack of success Cambyses gave orders for the destruction of the Egyptian temples and monuments, and retired to Syria, where he died, according to tradition, of self-inflicted injuries. Darius, the successor of Cambyses (B.C. 521–486), endeavoured to remove the evil effects of his predecessor's vindictive policy by a conciliatory and tolerant method of government, and by encouraging commerce. But the national spirit, though for a long time kept under by this line of action, at length, when Darius had been thirty-five years on the throne burst forth afresh, and sweeping through the land with irresistible effect, drove the Persians out of the country. A native ruler, Khabbash, was set up, but he was unable to withstand for long the onslaughts of the Persians who, returning in great strength re-asserted their authority during the reign of Xerxes (B.C. 485–65). Another interval of feverish repose ensued, but was terminated in the fifth year of the reign of Xerxes' successor Artaxerxes I. (B.C. 465–25), by a formidable rising of the Egyptians. Backed by the support of the King of Libya and an Athenian fleet of two hundred ships, the native forces joined issue with the Persian army at Papremis and totally defeated them, notwithstanding the support they received from a powerful Phœnician fleet. Following up their success the victors advanced to Memphis, and took possession of the old capital. They were, however, unable to drive the Persians from a portion of the fortification, and on reinforcements arriving for the latter, the tables were completely turned, the Egyptians and their allies being driven into the island of Prosopotis and there besieged. For eighteen months the struggle went on, and then Megabyzus, the Persian general, caused the river to be diverted from its course, and in that manner stranded the enemy's ships and brought the siege to an end. The Egyptian leader managed to escape to the marshes, and from that point he maintained the flame of patriotism. During the next two reigns—those of Xerxes II. (B.C. 425–24) and Darius II. (B.C. 424–405) fitful efforts were made to cast off the hated foreign yoke, and on the death of the last named king a successful revolt was headed by Amyrtæus, a popular leader, who assuming the royal dignity figures in history as Amenrut (B.C. 405–399), the sole king of the XXVIIIth dynasty. On his death the succession passed to some petty princes, who ruled over Mendes. Four kings of this line reigned in succession, viz. Naifaarut I. (B.C. 399–93), Haker (B.C. 393–80), Psa-mut (B.C. 380), and Naifaarut II. (B.C. 379).

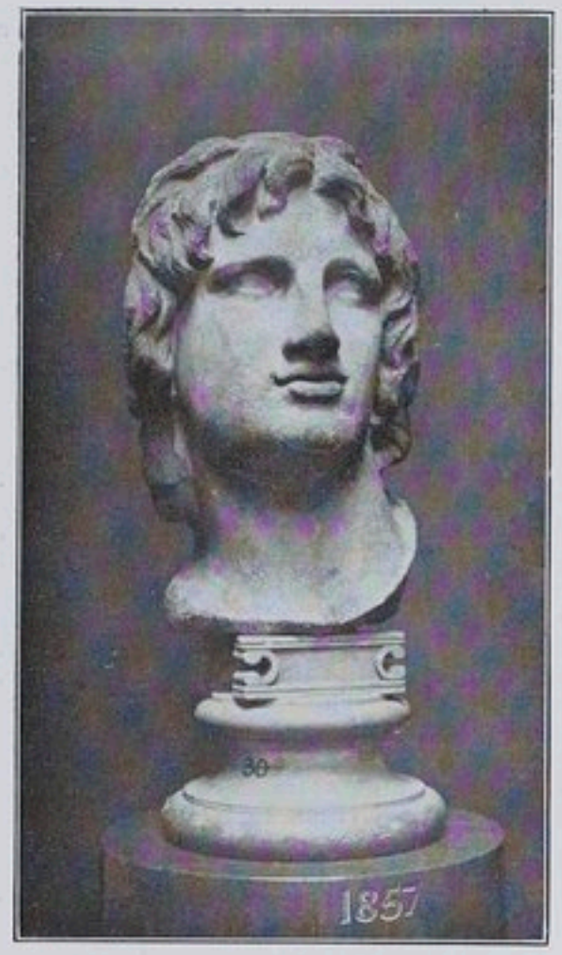
The XXXth and last of the ancient Egyptian dynasties reign consisted of three kings, whose united reigns extended from B.C. 378 to B.C. 340. The first of these monarchs, Nectanebo, was engaged during the greater part of his reign in maintaining the struggle against the Persians. This indefatigable enemy, which had been ravaging the Mediterranean, attacked Egypt with an enormous force, which included three hundred ships of war. Nectanebo had made careful preparations for the defence. He had fortified each of the seven mouths of the Nile, and to make the position additionally secure had flooded the country all round. Finding what had been done the Persian generals decided to deliver their attack by the Mendesian mouth of the river. They were successful in carrying the position, but owing to disputes with their great allies and the inundation of the Delta by the rise of the Nile they were compelled eventually to retreat. Though frustrated in this attempt the Persians were not to be balked of their prey. Some years afterwards, in the reign of Nectanebo II., the last of his line, the Persian legions, advancing from the north-east, invaded Egypt, and after fighting a series of engagements, occupied Memphis. Nectanebo, on hearing of the success of the Persian forces, collected together all his valuables and fled the country, according to one classic authority, making his home at Macedon, where he became the father of Alexander the Great. Thus flickered out the great Egyptian Empire, which for a period approaching four thousand years, had enjoyed a continuous existence in the Valley of the Nile. "More than two thousand years have since passed, and though Egypt has from time to time been independent, not one native prince," says a well-known writer, "has sat on the throne of the Pharaohs." In this strange failure of the regal principle we may find a realisation of the Scriptural prophesy. "There shall be no more a prince of the land of Egypt." (Ezek. xxx., 13.)

CHAPTER III.

Alexander conquers Egypt and establishes his Capital at Alexandria—The Ptolemaic Dynasty established—Improvement of Alexandria—The City becomes a Famous Centre of Arts and Literature—The Second Ptolemy.

AFTER an interval, during which the inhabitants of the country were ruthlessly treated by the Persian conquerors under Darius III., Alexander appeared on the scene, fresh from his Persian conquests, and nowhere encountered any resistance. Establishing his capital at Alexandria, he made arrangements for a permanent occupation of the land. Two governors—one a Greek and the other an Egyptian—were appointed to direct the administration. He conciliated native sentiment by paying his devotions to the native gods and by leaving as far as possible the management of the temples in the hands of the priests. In all possible ways he endeavoured to make the Egyptians forget that they were under a foreign yoke. "This," says Sharpe in his "History of Egypt," "is perhaps the earliest instance that history has recorded of a conqueror governing a province according to its own laws, and allowing the religion of the conquered to remain as the established religion of the State; and the length of time that the Græco-Egyptian monarchy lasted, and the splendour with which it shone, proved the wisdom and humanity of the founder." Alexander, besides peacefully ruling the country, did much to increase the wealth of the inhabitants by improving old trade routes and opening new ones, constructing works of public utility, and generally adding to the prosperity of the land by well-considered measures. Under his mild rule towns sprang up in every direction, and Alexandria became a famous mart into which all the riches of the then known

world were poured. On Alexander's death and the division of his dominions, Egypt fell to Ptolemy, son of Lagos and Arsinoe, one of the ablest of the great conqueror's generals.



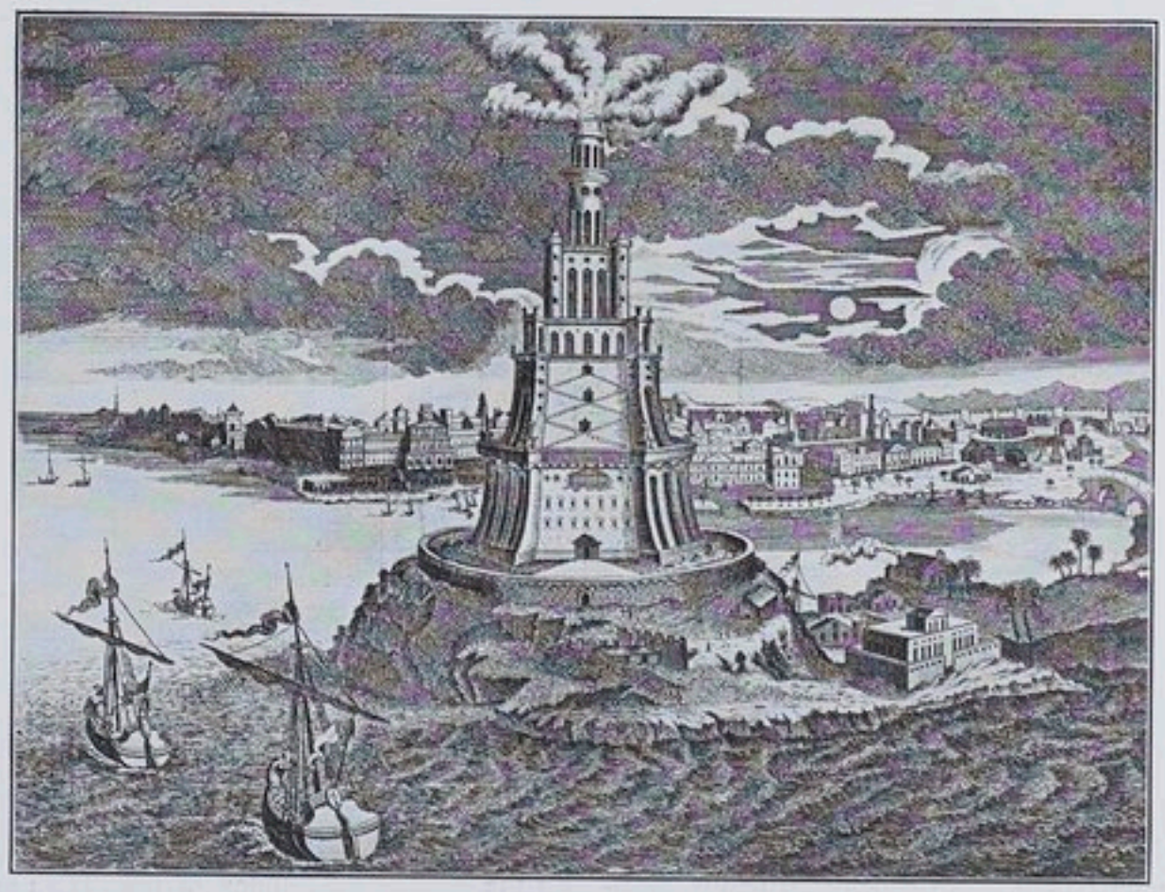
ALEXANDER THE GREAT.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

He was the first of a new alien dynasty which ruled Egypt for several hundred years.

Ptolemy's first act after mounting the throne of the Pharaohs was to cause to be put to death Cleomenes, who had been appointed Receiver-General of Taxes by Alexander. Whether this was an act of justice against a dishonest official or a measure of expediency it is not easy to say, but the circumstance is an indication of the strength of the character of the man who had taken to himself the Egyptian portion of the estate of the great Alexander. Even more significant of his forcefulness is the fact that Ptolemy so arranged it that the conqueror's embalmed body was brought to Egypt and buried there instead of at Ægæ in Macedonia, which place Perdiccas, the regent, had assigned for the sepulture. These acts, so characteristic of a determination of centring the chief power of the Greek Empire in Egypt, drew down upon Ptolemy the resentment of Perdiccas, and that aspiring general, collecting the Macedonian army, led it against Egypt. Ptolemy made every preparation that was possible to meet the attack and headed an army in person to Pelusium, where he got into touch with the enemy. Eluding the Ptolemaic force, Perdiccas by a night march proceeded to Memphis. His army was in the act of crossing the river when Ptolemy came upon the scene with a portion of his force. A battle ensued in which the invading host sustained a complete defeat. Perdiccas was killed during the fray, it was said by the hands of one of his own men. With the death of their leader the Macedonians lost all interest in the struggle, and Ptolemy had no difficulty in winning them over to his side. In their camp were the princes Philip and the young Alexander, who were nominally the heirs to the conqueror's heritage, and if he had been so disposed Ptolemy might easily have made himself the acknowledged head of the empire. But he astutely put aside the temptation and recommended for appointment to the position of guardians two generals who had been instrumental in consolidating his power. Having settled these vital questions Ptolemy turned his attention to the affairs of his new kingdom. "The wise and mild plans which were laid down by Alexander for the government of Egypt when a province were easily followed by Ptolemy when it became his own kingdom. The Greek soldiers lived in their garrisons or in Alexandria under the Macedonian laws; while the Egyptian laws were administered by their own priests, who were upheld in all the rights of their order and in their freedom from land tax. The temples of Pthah, of Amun-Ra, and the other gods of the country were not only kept open but were repaired and even built at the cost of the king; the religion of the people and not that of their rulers was made the established religion of the State. On the death of the god Apis, the sacred bull of Memphis, the chief of the animals which were kept and fed at the cost of the several cities, and who had died of old age soon after Ptolemy came to Egypt, he spent the sum of fifty talents, or eight thousand five hundred pounds, on its burial; and the priests, who had not forgotten that Cambyses, their former conqueror, had wounded the Apis of his day with his own sword, must have been highly pleased with this mark of his care for them. . . . The priests of Thebes were now at liberty to cut out from their monuments the names of Mandro-Ra or other usurping gods, and to restore that of Amun-Ra, which had been before cut out. They also rebuilt the inner room, or the holy of holies, in the great temple of Karnak. It had been overthrown by the Persians in wantonness, or in hatred of the Egyptian religion; and the priests now put upon it the name of Philip Arridæus, for whom Ptolemy was governing Egypt."

"Ptolemy's government was in form nearly the same in Alexandria as in the rest of Egypt, but in reality it was wholly different. His sway over the Egyptians was supported by Greek force, but over the Greeks it rested on the broad base of public opinion. Every Greek had the privilege of bearing arms and of meeting in the gymnasium in public assembly to explain a grievance and petition for its redress. The citizens and the soldiers were the same body of men; they at the same time held the force and had the spirit to use it. But they had no senate, no body of nobles, no political constitution which might save their freedom in other generations from the ambitious grasp of the sovereign or from their own degeneracy. While claiming to be equal among themselves they were making themselves slaves; and though at present the government so entirely bore the stamp of their own will that they might fancy that they enjoyed a democracy, yet history teaches us that the simple paternal form of government never fails to become sooner or later a cruel tyranny."

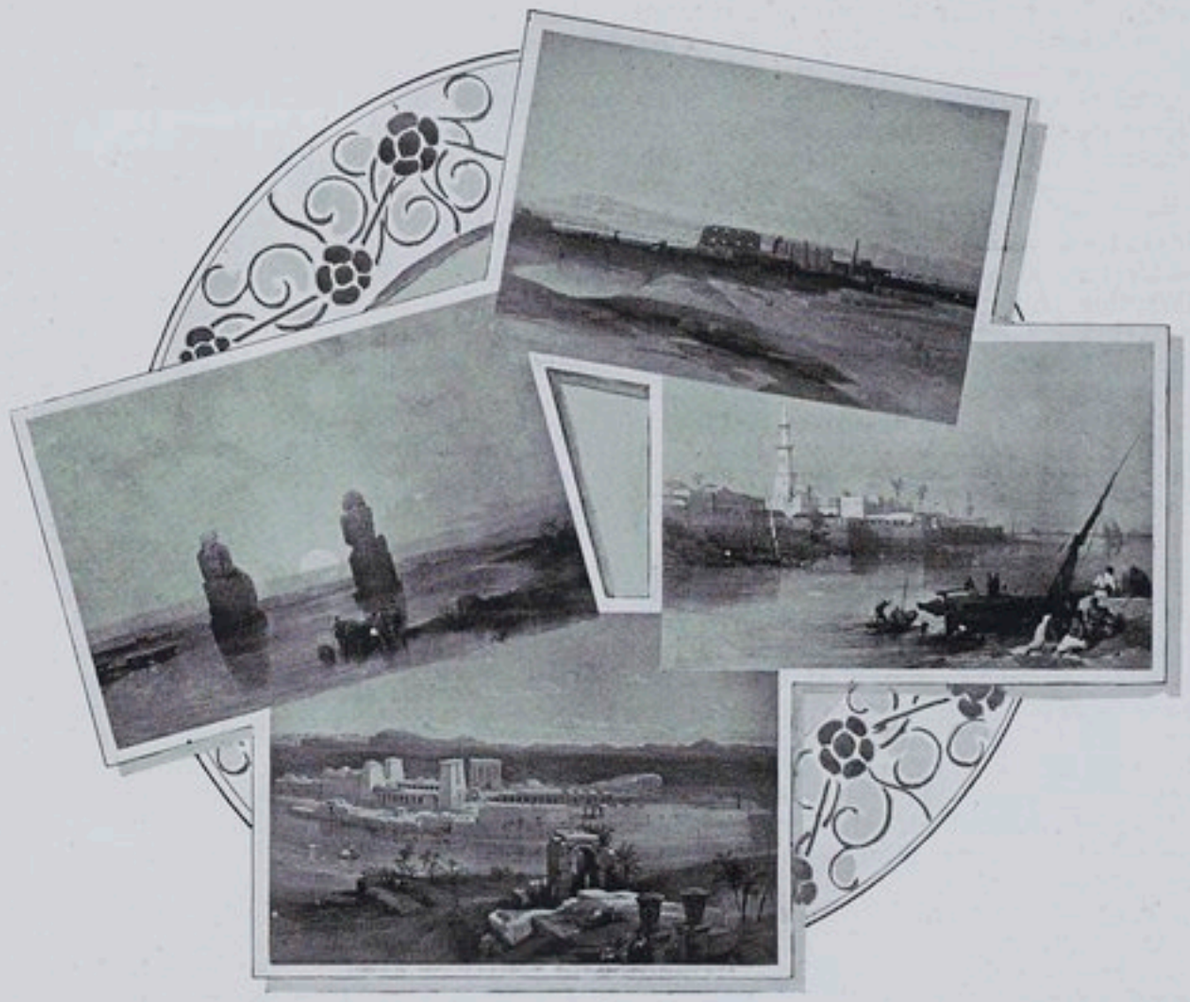
Ptolemy seated himself in Alexandria, and early interested himself in adding to and improving that city. Indeed, he, rather than Alexander, may be said to have been its founder, for it was on his initiative that the famous centre of the Mediterranean was given the characteristic aspect which it bore during the many centuries of its existence. "The citizens pleased themselves with remembering that its ground plan was in the form of a soldier's cloak. The two main streets crossed one another at right angles in the middle of the city, which was thirty stadia, or three miles long, and seven stadia broad, and the whole of the streets were wide enough for carriages. In front of the city was a long narrow island named Pharos, which in the piercing mind of Alexander only needed a little help from art to become the breakwater of a large harbour. Accordingly one end of the island of Pharos was joined to the mainland by a stone mole seven stadia, or nearly three quarters of a mile long, which from its length was called the Heptastadium. There were two breaks in the mole to let the water pass, without which perhaps the harbour might have become blocked up with sand, and bridges



THE PHAROS OF PTOLEMY.

were thrown over these two passages, while the mouth of the harbour was between the mainland and the other end of the island. Most of the public buildings of the city fronted the harbour. Among these were the royal docks for building the ships of war, the Emporium or exchange, which had by the favour of its founder gained the privileges which before belonged to the City of Canopus, and the Posideron or temple of Neptune, which naturally had a place in a seaport town, where the Greek sailors might offer up their vows on setting sail, or perform them on their safe return from a long voyage. There also stood the burial place for the Greek kings of Egypt, which was named the Soma, because it held '*the* body,' as that of Alexander was from its importance called. The city was supplied with water from the Nile, which was led into large public cisterns built under the houses, with two or three stories of arches. On the other side of the Heptastadium, and on the outside of the city, were also more docks, and a ship canal into the Lake Mareotis; on that side also was the Necropolis, or public burial place for the city, with large underground catacombs regularly formed with a main passage and numerous side passages branching off from it, and countless cells on each side of the passages. There were also for the amusement of the citizens a theatre, an amphitheatre, a gymnasium with a large stoa or portico, a stadium in which games were celebrated every fifth year, public groves or gardens, and a hippodrome for chariot races. Towering above all these buildings was the temple of Serapis, the god whose worship became so popular in the later ages of the Roman Empire. . . . But among the public buildings which were planned in the enlarged mind of Ptolemy, the one which chiefly calls for our notice, the one indeed to which the city owes its fairest fame, is the Museum or College of Philosophy. Its chief room was a great hall, which was used as a lecture room and common dining room, it had a covered walk or portico all round the outside, and there was an *exhedra* or seat on which the philosophers sometimes sat in the open air. The professors or fellows of the college were supported by a public income. Its library soon became the largest in the world. It was open equally to those who read for the sake of knowledge and those who copied for the sake of gain; and it thus helped to make science, wisdom, lofty thoughts, and poetic beauties, those rare fruits of genius and industry, the common property of all that valued them. Ptolemy was himself an author, his history of Alexander's wars was greatly praised by Arrim in whose pages we now read much of it; his love of art was shown in the building of Alexandria, and those agreeable manners and the habit of rewarding skill and knowledge wherever he could find them, which had already brought to his army many of the bravest of Alexander's soldiers, were now equally successful in bringing to his court such painters and sculptors, such poets, historians and mathematicians, as soon made the Museum one of the brightest spots in the known world."

Ptolemy was not allowed to prosecute the arts of peace uninterruptedly. When he had been eight years on the throne he was called upon to repel a formidable attack on his newly acquired possessions by Antigonus, who had made himself master of Asia Minor. Advancing by easy stages, Antigonus with a great force passed almost without opposition through Syria. On arrival at the coast he found that all the available vessels had been withdrawn to Egyptian ports out of his reach. He therefore commissioned the Phœnicians to furnish him with eight thousand ship builders and carpenters to build him a fleet, and requisitioned the Syrian towns for three millions of bushels of wheat within the year. In due course he got together by these means a fleet of two hundred and forty-three long ships of war, and immense supplies. Meanwhile, Ptolemy on his part had not been idle. After making all possible preparations in Egypt he crossed over to Cyprus, partly to settle some differences between the petty kings who divided authority on the island, but more we may suppose to devise means for the defeat of his formidable enemy. Cyprus then, even more than to-day, was a strategical position of great value. Alexander gave it as his opinion that the command of the sea went with the possession of the island. At the time he was in the occupation of Asia Minor he described it as the key of Egypt. Ptolemy made his hold on the island good, and established a new government with Nicocreon as governor. Having settled this important matter he conducted a successful expedition into Syria. This raid had the effect of distracting the attention of the enemy, and Demetrius, who commanded the forces of his father Antigonus, marched in the direction of Cilicia to meet him. Before he could reach that place Ptolemy had re-embarked his forces and returned to Alexandria. The next move on the part of Ptolemy was an attack on Phœnicia. Collecting a force of eighteen thousand foot and four thousand horse, he marched rapidly towards Pelusium on his way to Palestine. He was met at Gaza by Demetrius with an army of eleven thousand foot and two thousand three hundred horse. The fight was short and sharp. It resulted in the total defeat of Demetrius and the destruction of his force. Antigonus on learning of the defeat of his son in Phrygia marched from thence with all his forces to give battle to Ptolemy. He could not safely march through the desert, so endeavoured to win over to his side the tribesmen who held Petra, a city placed in a narrow valley with overhanging rocks, which may be said to be the key to the eastern frontier of Egypt. Finding that he could not obtain his ends by guile he sent a picked force to attack the stronghold. In the result the force was practically annihilated, only a few hundred of several thousand men returning to tell the story of the failure of the attack. Antigonus, dismayed at this crushing reverse, retreated to his own dominions. Soon afterwards he completed a compact with Ptolemy and his brother generals that the possessions each held should be recognised as their own possessions. This treaty left Ptolemy undisputed master of Egypt.



VIEWS ON THE NILE.

General View of the Island of Philæ.

Karnak.

Ferry to Gizeh.

Statues of Memnon at Thebes during the Inundation.

(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

Ptolemy, having made his hold on the country good sought to establish his line by a marriage with Cleopatra, the sister of Alexander. His offer was accepted, but the union never took place, as the princess was murdered on her way to Egypt, by the orders of Antigonus. This incident showed the sleepless hostility of Ptolemy's great rival, and he was soon to have an even more serious proof of the existence of that feeling. From Cyprus came news of an attack by Demetrius, which had reduced the Ptolemaic garrison to the direst straights. In haste Ptolemy collected a great fleet of one hundred and forty long galleys and two hundred transports, manned by ten thousand men, and sailed for the scene of action. Demetrius with Antigonus's entire fleet, consisting of one

hundred and twelve long galleys, and a number of transports went out to meet him. A great naval battle ensued near Salamis, a port in Cyprus. In the result the Egyptian fleet was utterly defeated. Eighty long galleys and one hundred transports were sunk, and eight thousand men were taken prisoners. The blow was a decisive one as far as the sovereignty of Cyprus, and the command of the sea was concerned. Ptolemy retired to Egypt leaving Demetrius to take possession of the island, and hold it for Antigonus. With rare generosity Demetrius sent back to Egypt unasked for and unransomed the higher officers amongst the prisoners who wished to return to Egypt, and amongst them Leontiscus, the son, and Menelaus, the brother, of Ptolemy. The feud between Antigonus and Ptolemy, however, was not lessened by the victory of Salamis. A year after the event, in B.C. 305, the great leader, who had just previously assumed the royal style, prepared to deliver a second attack on Egypt. His land force numbered eighty thousand foot, eight thousand horse, and eighty-three elephants, and he had the co-operation of a fleet of one hundred and fifty long galleys and one hundred transports which Demetrius brought from Cyprus. Marching through the desert to Pelusium, Antigonus counted on an easy victory, but his confidence was soon rudely shaken. The fleet was dispersed in a storm and the land force was everywhere beaten back by Ptolemy's troops, who were most skilfully disposed to meet the attack. At length, accepting the inevitable, Antigonus retreated with his army to Syria. His energies were now directed to securing the allegiance of the little island of Rhodes, which had hitherto maintained a close friendship with Ptolemy. Demetrius was entrusted with the task of bringing the Rhodians to submission, and at the head of a great fleet, manned by forty thousand men, he appeared off the island. A siege followed which was to become famous in the annals of war to all time. For more than a year the islanders, with their slender resources, withstood the fierce attacks of the great force pitted against them. At length, despairing of success, Demetrius drew off his warships, and left the Rhodians to the continued enjoyment of their position of semi-independence. Ptolemy, who had rendered great assistance to the besieged by occasionally sending galleys with supplies to run the blockade, became more popular than ever on the island, and he was invested by the grateful Rhodians with the title of Soter or saviour. Not long after this memorable siege of Rhodes, Antigonus met his death at a great battle in Phrygia, in which he was opposed by the allied forces of Ptolemy, Seleucus, King of Babylon, Lysimachus, King of Thrace, and Cassander, King of Macedonia. Demetrius, recognising the decisive character of the defeat, fled to Cyprus, and from that island sent his friend Pyrrhus to Alexandria to tender his submission to Ptolemy. The envoy was well received, and eventually contracted an alliance with Ptolemy's step-daughter. The great ruler had now reached the summit of his power. He exercised undisputed sway over a dominion which embraced the whole coast of the eastern end of the Mediterranean, and extended from the island of Cos on the north to Cyrene on the south.

Ptolemy, though famous in war, was perhaps even more famous in the arts of peace. Attracted by his discriminating patronage of learning and letters, all that was great in the intellect of Greece flocked to Alexandria. Eminent painters, sculptors, philosophers were received by him on terms of easy familiarity, and their intercourse became a part of the literary history of the most literary of ancient nations. Amongst other great names associated with the Alexandria of Ptolemy's day is that of Euclid. Here was given to Ptolemy the famous answer of the great philosopher, when asked to show a shorter and easier way to the higher truths of mathematics than that by which he led his pupils, that there was no royal road to geometry. A substantial benefit which Ptolemy's patronage of the arts bestowed on Egypt was the provision of a coinage. After he had assumed the title of king, which he did immediately after Antigonus had taken upon himself the royal style, he caused coins of gold, silver and bronze to be struck. Those of gold and silver have on one side a fine portrait of Ptolemy, showing him without his beard and with his head bound by the royal circlet, a plain ribbon tied with a bow behind. On the reverse side appears an eagle with the name of Ptolemy and his title inscribed in letters which are arranged on each side of the bird. The bronze coins have the head of Serapis or Jupiter in place of that of the king. The coins are all in the best style of Greek workmanship.

After reigning for thirty-eight years Ptolemy relinquished his throne in favour of his son, Philadelphus, by his queen Berenice. There was an older son, Cerannus, by an earlier queen, but he had revolted against his father and so put himself out of the succession.

The second Ptolemy ascended the throne in these circumstances in the year B.C. 284 at the age of twenty-three years. He reigned for thirty-eight years. Though he lacked the genius of his father, he was no unworthy successor of him. He continued his tolerant policy towards the religion of the Egyptians and he extended the same generous patronage to the arts. For the first two years of his reign he had the advantage of the guidance and counsel of his father, and for some years afterwards Queen Berenice lived and gave his rule the strength which was to be derived from the support of one endowed with such high moral qualities as she undoubtedly possessed. When Ptolemy II. had been ten years on the throne there was formed the first link of the chain which eventually was to bind Egypt to Rome in the closest ties. The connection came about after Pyrrhus, the King of Epirus, had been beaten by the Romans and driven out of Italy. To mark his sense of satisfaction at the event Ptolemy sent a special ambassador to Rome to offer congratulations to the Senate and to conclude a treaty of peace. The Romans received the mission with open arms and sent three high functionaries to Alexandria to settle the terms of the compact. The treaty thus concluded was loyally observed on both sides. Philadelphus lent great encouragement to trade. Alexandria in his reign became the greatest city of the then known world, and to its markets was sent produce from the remotest corners of Asia as well as of Egypt. The Red Sea route under the inspiriting influences of the growing commerce of the Ptolemaic dominions was more and more resorted to, and it was during Ptolemy II.'s reign that on the site of the modern town Suez, at the head of the gulf of that name, that the town of Arsinoe, afterwards to be known by the name of Cleopatra, was planted. Furthermore, the enterprising king sent a mission overland to India by the route by which Alexander's army had travelled, to gain a knowledge of the country and of its trade. The encouragement of learning went hand in hand with the improvement of trade conditions. In this reign the museum at Alexandria attained to the highest rank amongst Greek schools, whether for poetry, mathematics, astronomy, or medicine, the four branches into which it was divided. The famous library also developed into a most important institution, its literary collection amounting to two hundred thousand rolls of papyrus. At the head of the mathematical school was Euclid, while he had as contemporaries the poets Theocritus, Callimachus, Philætas, and Timon, the astronomer Timocharis, and Helena, the woman painter, whose *chef d'œuvre*, the Battle of Issus, was three centuries later hung by Vespasian in the Temple of Peace at Rome. Not the least memorable of Ptolemy II.'s acts was the issuing of orders for a Greek translation of the Jewish Scriptures. To what extent the Septuagint is entitled to be regarded as the work of the Alexandrian translators of the second century B.C. is a question which has excited keen controversy, and it is not necessary to discuss the issue here. It is enough to say that there is a general agreement that Ptolemy II. did cause the Jewish Scriptures to be translated and so give an impetus to their study in Europe which was afterwards to bear fruit.

During the reign of this king Egypt enjoyed a prosperity which she had been unaccustomed to for many centuries. Her population numbered, according to Greek estimates, seven millions, and she maintained an army of 200,000 foot and 20,000 horse, besides 2,000 chariots, 400 Ethiopian elephants, 1,500 ships of war, and 1,000 transports. The revenue of the State amounted to a sum equal to about two and a quarter millions sterling, in addition to a tax on corn which brought in about five million bushels. Ptolemy II., dying in the sixty-first year of his age, left a splendid heritage to his son Euergetes.

CHAPTER IV.

The Later Ptolemys—Foundation of the Famous Alexandrian Library—Cleopatra commences her Reign—Her connection with Cæsar—Cæsar quits Egypt—Antony summons Cleopatra to meet him at Tarsus—Her splendid Pageant—Antony falls a Victim to Cleopatra's Wiles—He proceeds with her to Alexandria, and the two reign there jointly—They are defeated at Sea by Octavian—Cæsar lands at Alexandria—Death of Antony, and later of Cleopatra—Cleopatra's Qualities.

AFTER the death of Philadelphus followed the reigns of three Ptolemys—Euergetes, already mentioned, Philopator, and Epiphanes—who between them ruled Egypt for sixty-six years. Euergetes was a worthy successor of the two earliest Ptolemys. It was his good fortune to have as his counsellor and helper on all difficult occasions his beautiful Queen Berenice, whose high praises have been sung in classic verse, and who must have been a woman of uncommon attainments as well as personal charm. At the outset of his reign Euergetes was engaged in a campaign in Syria brought about by the murder of the Queen Consort Berenice, the new Emperor's mother. Euergetes' queen enthusiastically espoused her husband's cause. Proceeding to one of the temples she sacrificed a bull to the gods and vowed that she would cut off her lovely tresses as a further sacrifice if Euergetes returned safe home. The Emperor's campaign was a brilliant one, and he returned in triumph to his capital to witness the fulfilment of the loving vow made by his wife. Euergetes, like his predecessors, lent every encouragement to learning. One of the conspicuous figures of his reign was Aristophanes, who held the office of the head of the Alexandrian Museum for some time. His introduction to Euergetes' notice was under peculiar circumstances. "At one of the public sittings at which the king was to hear the poems and other writings of the pupils read, and by the help of seven men of letters who sat with him as judges, was to give away honours and rewards to the best authors, one of the classes was empty, one of the judges happened not to be there. The king asked who should be called up to fill the place; and after thinking over the matter the six judges fixed upon Aristophanes, who had made himself known to them by being seen daily reading in the public library. When the reading was over the king, the public, and the six other judges were agreed upon which were the best pieces of writing; but Aristophanes was bold enough to think otherwise, and he was able, by means of his great reading, to find the book in the library from which the pupil had copied the greater part of his work. The king was much struck with this proof of his learning, and soon afterwards made him keeper of the library which he had already so well used."* Another genius of the period was Eratosthenes of Cyrene, who was the first to fix the situation of a city upon the world by means of astronomy or by means of its latitude, which he learned from the length of the sun's shadow at noon on the equinoctial days. This observation he called the Theory of Shadows. Nor was this all. By his theory of shadows he learned that the earth is round, and his next aim was to determine its size. He knew that at noon on the longest day the sun throws no shadow at Syene. He had learned by measurement that Syene was due south of Alexandria, and at a distance of 5,000 *stadia*. He therefore measured the sun's shadow at noon on the longest day in his own study at Alexandria, and thus found that if a circle were drawn round the world these two cities were distant by a fiftieth part of the circle. This gave him the measure of the earth's circumference.

Philopator, the son and successor of Euergetes by the beautiful Berenice, had none of the great qualities of his predecessors. His character is well illustrated by the circumstance that the first state duty of his reign was the calling together of a council to deliberate as to whether his mother and his brother Magas should be put to death, because of their too great popularity with the army. The council, with one notable exception, supported the king in his proposed action, and the reign was stained at its commencement with one of the foulest crimes in history. Philopator gained a certain immunity for himself by this detestable act, and in the absence of serious rivals or external troubles he gave himself up to a life of debauchery. Affairs of State were neglected, the army was allowed to go to ruin, and the elaborate structure of government which three earlier Ptolemys had built up was undermined. The inevitable result followed, though the full fruits were not reaped in Philopator's time. The storm which had been gathering in the later years of the king's reign burst almost immediately after his death in B.C. 204. His successor was his son, Epiphanes, a mere child of five years. The real power devolved upon Agathocles, an unscrupulous and ambitious man who had exercised unbounded power in Philopator's reign, and who was both hated and feared by the populace. No sooner had the news of the death of the late king leaked out than there were mutterings amongst the people, and ominous crowds began to gather in the Alexandrian streets. At length an attack was made on the palace, and the members of the guard having either gone over to the rioters or been killed, the mob broke open the gates and swarming into the building made Agathocles prisoner. The minister pleaded for his life, but the leaders of the rioters sternly declined to make any terms. Hoping still to conciliate the demonstrators Agathocles gave up the little king, who was forthwith set on a horse and taken in triumph through the streets to the stadium amid the plaudits of the crowds who everywhere thronged the line of route. There he was seated on a throne and acclaimed ruler. Afterwards terrible vengeance was wreaked on the fallen minister. He himself was stabbed to death, while Agathoclea, a mistress of the late king and Agathocles' sister, was tortured and then literally torn to pieces by the infuriated mob. Eventually peace was restored in the city, the guardianship of the king falling into the hands of Sosibus, the son of a previous minister, and Aristomenes, a man of ripe judgment and considerable popularity. The arrangement was one which offered no guarantee of permanency, and feeling their insecurity the leading Alexandrians sought to strengthen their position by calling in outside help. With strange unwisdom they sent a mission to Rome to implore the Senate to take the young king under its guardianship and defend the kingdom from outside assaults during his childhood. Nothing loth to extend their influence in this promising direction the Romans returned a favourable answer to the appeal by the hands of Marcus Lepidus, who was directed to undertake the supervision of the foreign affairs of the Greek Egyptian kingdom in the modest guise of royal tutor. Lepidus always treasured this experience of his, and when he became consul eighteen years later he caused a coin to be struck, showing on one side the city of Alexandria, and on the other the words "Tutor to the King," with the figure of Lepidus in his toga putting the diadem on the head of Epiphanes. The reign thus inaugurated extended from B.C. 204 to B.C. 180. The young king grew up in an atmosphere unsuited to the development of high moral qualities, and even before he attained his majority he was sunk in debauchery. His brief and inglorious reign was marked by rebellion and discontent, and a general decay of the government. Dying at the age of twenty-nine he left two sons, Philometor and Euergetes, who, after a minority during which their mother Cleopatra directed the affairs of state, entered into rivalry for the succession. The question was ultimately referred to Rome, and the Senate decided in favour of Philometor, but assigned to Euergetes the government of Cyrene. Euergetes appealed against this apportionment as an unjust division of the heritage, and the Senate yielding to his representatives added the island of Cyprus to adjust the balance. Philometor liked the decision not at all, and lodged a vigorous protest against the retrocession of the island. As his representations were disregarded he went over to Cyprus with his army, and there encountering his brother, defeated him and took him prisoner. With a magnanimity worthy of the first Ptolemy he forgave his brother, and reinstalled him in his Cyrene kingdom. Philometor did not long enjoy his enlarged dominions. A few years after the capture of Cyprus he died from wounds received in battle. An attempt was thereupon made to place his son Eupator upon the throne, but it was defeated and Euergetes entered into his long-coveted kingdom, after characteristically aiding and abetting in the murder of his nephew. Euergetes was a despicable tyrant, and his cruelties soon attracted the attention of Rome. In order to ascertain the state of affairs the Senate despatched Scipio Africanus and two other ambassadors to Alexandria. The mission was received by Euergetes with every mark of cordiality, and Scipio and his associates were taken on a personally conducted tour through Egypt, proceeding as far up the Nile as Memphis. What Scipio saw during his travels enormously impressed him with the natural advantages of Egypt, and the report he made to the Senate on his return, we may pretty safely assume, strengthened the determination of the Senate to hold fast to their position in Egypt, and extend their influence there in every possible way.

For a considerable time longer the Ptolemaic dominion of Egypt lingered on. There was a succession of weak and grossly immoral rulers, under whom the country

* "History of Egypt," Vol. i., p. 352.

gradually sank lower and lower in the scale of nations. The legitimate male line came to an end with Alexander II., in the year B.C. 57, but a phantom of Ptolemaic royalty filled the throne for some years longer in the person of Auletes, an illegitimate son of an earlier king. This monarch, after reigning for some years under the shadow of Roman protection, was ultimately driven from Egypt

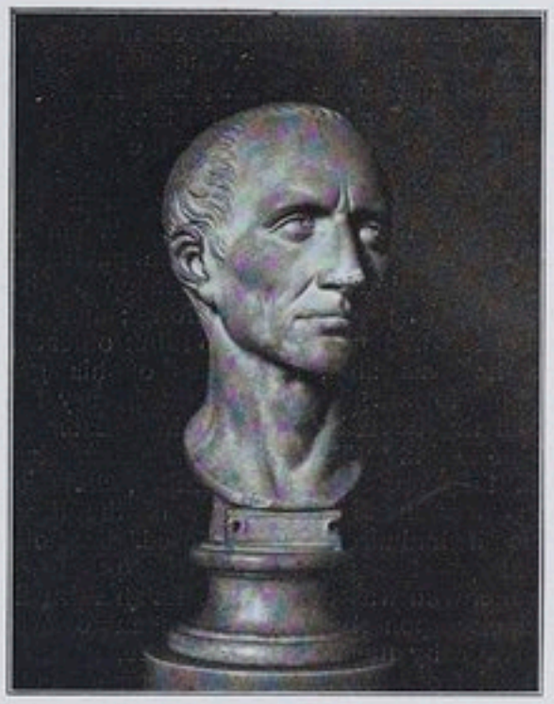


CLEOPATRA.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

by a formidable rebellion of his subjects. Proceeding to Rome he endeavoured to enlist the assistance of the senators in recovering his lost sway. But a deaf ear was turned to his entreaties, and Auletes, after a fruitless sojourn of three years, quitted Italy. He proceeded to Syria, and there, by means of bribery, induced Gabinius, the Roman pro-consul of Syria, to champion his cause. Marching out with his legions, Gabinius got into touch with the Egyptian army at Pelusium. Sending forward Mark Antony, the commander of his horse, to lead the attack, he easily routed the enemy, which was in a very disorganised state and utterly unfit to meet the disciplined Roman legions. This victory opened the way for Auletes to Alexandria, and he soon re-asserted his authority. As for Gabinius, he had now to reap an unpleasant reward for his daring move. He was summoned to Rome on a charge of quitting his post without orders and for other treasonable offences. What punishment was allotted to him is not clear, but there seems little reason to doubt that his fate was not different from that of some modern British pro-consuls who, daring to advance their country's interests by a bold stroke for which they had no authority, have been relegated to obscurity as a consequence.

We now approach the period of Roman domination, one which Shakespeare has immortalised in a deathless play. When Auletes, or as he is known in Greek history, Ptolemy Neus Dionysus, died in the year B.C. 51, he left by will his kingdom to Cleopatra and Ptolemy, his elder daughter and elder son, and called upon the Roman people to undertake their guardianship. The Senate made Pompey tutor or governor of Egypt, but ere three years had passed partisans of Ptolemy proclaimed him sole king in defiance of the will of Auletes. Cleopatra, a woman of great strength of mind as well as personal charm, fearing for her life fled into Syria. There she raised an army, and marching back to Egypt at the head of it, she sought to enforce her rights. The Egyptian forces advanced to meet her and had reached Pelusium when news arrived of Pompey's having landed on the shores of Egypt a fugitive from Cæsar, who had defeated him at Pharsalia. His coming greatly disconcerted the Egyptians. They had no quarrel against Pompey—the contrary in fact, but they must either espouse his cause or oppose it. After taking counsel together the leaders decided to solve the difficulty by removing Pompey. Two emissaries were sent to put into execution the plans of the council. Meeting him on the sea coast they handed him out of his galley on landing and then immediately put him to death. His head was cut off and taken to the Ptolemaic camp and shown to the young king, who for the first time gazed upon the countenance of his father's best friend. The deed of blood and treachery did not win for the king's party the reward they anticipated. When Cæsar in his pursuit of Pompey landed at Alexandria soon after the murder, he claimed his right as Roman consul to settle the dispute between Cleopatra and her brother, and acting on that prerogative he called upon both forces to lay down their arms as a preliminary to the discussion of the matter. The order was most distasteful to the king's supporters, and the chief of them, Pothinus, gave directions for the advance of the Egyptian army to the capital. Meanwhile Cleopatra, equally dissatisfied with the action of Cæsar, had taken a daring and original step to secure the rescission of the demand as far as her forces were concerned. Quitting her army at Pelusium, she sailed secretly for Alexandria, with the intent of interviewing the great Cæsar in person. She entered the harbour in a small boat, and in order that her identity might not be discovered, she caused herself to be rolled up in a carpet. The ends of this were tied, and as a bale of goods she was taken past the unsuspecting guards into the palace. Once inside she had no difficulty in finding her way to the great man's presence. There her beauty and elegance pleaded her cause with such effect that Cæsar henceforward was her devoted lover, eager to do her bidding. He had soon occasion to give evidence of his fidelity to his strangely acquired mistress. The forces of Ptolemy, under the leadership of his best general, Achillas, were soon in the streets of Alexandria thundering at the gates of the palace. Cæsar had only a small Roman force upon which he could rely, but his men were in the highest state of discipline and past masters in the arts of defence. Gallantly they fought against the thronging crowds of the enemy who, beaten back, again and again returned to the attack. The fiercest struggle raged about the harbour, where the Roman galleys, anchored in lines, constituted a prize worth the winning. Unable to protect the whole of their fleet the Romans set fire to many of the craft to prevent their falling into the hands of the Egyptians. The flames unfortunately caught some buildings on shore, and, spreading rapidly, soon involved the museum and its famous library in destruction. Though baffled for a time by the cool courage of the Romans, Achillas would not accept defeat. Calling up troops from all parts of Egypt and arming the citizens he prepared to renew the combat. Before he could strike, however, he himself was murdered by orders of Arsinoe, a young princess. This woman, though only eighteen years of age, then practically undertook the direction of the operations. She caused sea water to be pumped into the tanks of drinking water upon which the garrison in the palace depended. When the Romans discovered what had been done, great was their alarm, but Cæsar's cool judgment soon solved the difficulty in which they were placed. Calling off all available men from the defences, he set them to digging wells. Such was the energy they displayed that within twenty-four hours they came upon an ample supply of good water. Once more frustrated in their efforts to drive the Romans out, the Alexandrians decided to attack the palace from the harbour side. A fleet was fitted out and in due course put to sea. Cæsar, on the famous Nelsonian principle that vigorous attack is the best defence, put out boldly to meet them. His confidence in the bravery and resource of his men was shown to be not without justification. Though the Roman galleys were inferior in number and equipment they won a great victory. Several of the Egyptian ships were sunk, others were taken, while what was left of the fleet sought safety in flight. Not content with this success, Cæsar sought to carry the island of Pharos, upon which many of the refugees had landed, by assault. But he had overrated his strength for this enterprise and encountered a bad defeat. He lost altogether eight hundred men, and narrowly escaped death himself in the rout.

Both parties by this time were sick of the contest and a truce was patched up, but it lasted only a short time. By Ptolemy's orders attempts were made to cut off Cæsar's supplies from oversea, and to further this move an attack was made on the Roman fleet stationed near the outside of the harbour. It was only partially successful and left Cæsar in his land



JULIUS CÆSAR.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

position as strong as ever. By this time the straits to which Cæsar was put had become known outside Egypt, and reinforcements were marching rapidly to his assistance from Cilicia and Syria under the leadership of Mithridates of Pergamus. This enterprising general met Ptolemy's troops at the Nile and inflicted a heavy defeat upon them. Cæsar, hearing of the approach of the relieving force, sallied out

at the head of his garrison to meet it, and the two having united their legions forthwith commenced a vigorous campaign against Ptolemy. The Egyptians everywhere sustained defeat and finally retired to a fortified camp behind one of the deep canals. This position was, after careful preliminary preparation, attacked by Cæsar and carried with great loss to the enemy. Ptolemy himself was drowned by the



TETRADRACHM OF PTOLEMY I., AND STATEN OF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

sinking of one of the ships crowded with refugees which was sent down the river to a fancied place of security.

The victory won, Cæsar hastened to Alexandria to make it effective by securing the city. He was met outside by the submissive inhabitants, who were only too pleased to accept a settlement which would give them relief from the intolerable disorders from which they had suffered for a long time. Cæsar, on his part, lost no time in turning to account the compliant mood of the inhabitants. He gave effect to the will of Auletes by placing on the throne with Cleopatra a young son of the dead Ptolemy. Soon afterwards he quitted Egypt, leaving Cleopatra behind him, although she had only a short time before borne him a son to whom the name of Cæsarion was given. Cleopatra, however, was not the woman to be cast off like an old glove. Within a brief space we find her at Rome living with her son and her brother in Cæsar's house and sharing in his glory. On Cæsar's death Cleopatra sought to have her son recognised by the Roman Senate as her colleague on the throne of Egypt, and invoked Cicero's assistance to this end. But that worthy was not at all anxious to have the line of Cæsars prolonged, and he declined so emphatically that Cleopatra took fright and secretly made her way back to Egypt. Alexandria at this time was to all intents and purposes a Roman city. Roman soldiers garrisoned the place, nominally under the orders of Cleopatra, but in reality in furtherance of Roman interests. There were, besides, other marks of the determination of the Romans not to loose their hold on the Delta. It was in full keeping with this spirit that Antony sent his famous summons to Cleopatra to meet him at Tarsus to account for certain suspicious movements of her troops in the warfare which the general had been waging against the murderers of Cæsar. In what spirit Cleopatra responded to the summons Sharpe describes in some picturesque passages of his work. Dellius, the bearer of the message, had advised Cleopatra to go, like Juno in the Iliad, "tricked in her best attire," and had told her that she had nothing to fear from the kind and gallant Antony. "On this she sailed for Cilicia laden with money and treasures for presents, full of trust in her beauty and power of pleasing. She had won the heart of Cæsar when, though younger, she was less skilled in the arts of love; and she was still only twenty-five years old; and, carrying with her such gifts and treasures as sea nymphs and graces, handled the silken tackle and steered the vessel. As she approached the town of Tarsus the winds wafted the perfumes and the scent of the burning incense to the shores, which were lined with crowds who had come out to see her land; and Antony, who was seated on the tribunal waiting to receive her, found himself left alone. . . . On her landing she invited Antony and his generals to a dinner at which the whole of the dishes placed before them were of gold set with precious stones, and the room and the twelve couches were ornamented with purple and gold. On his



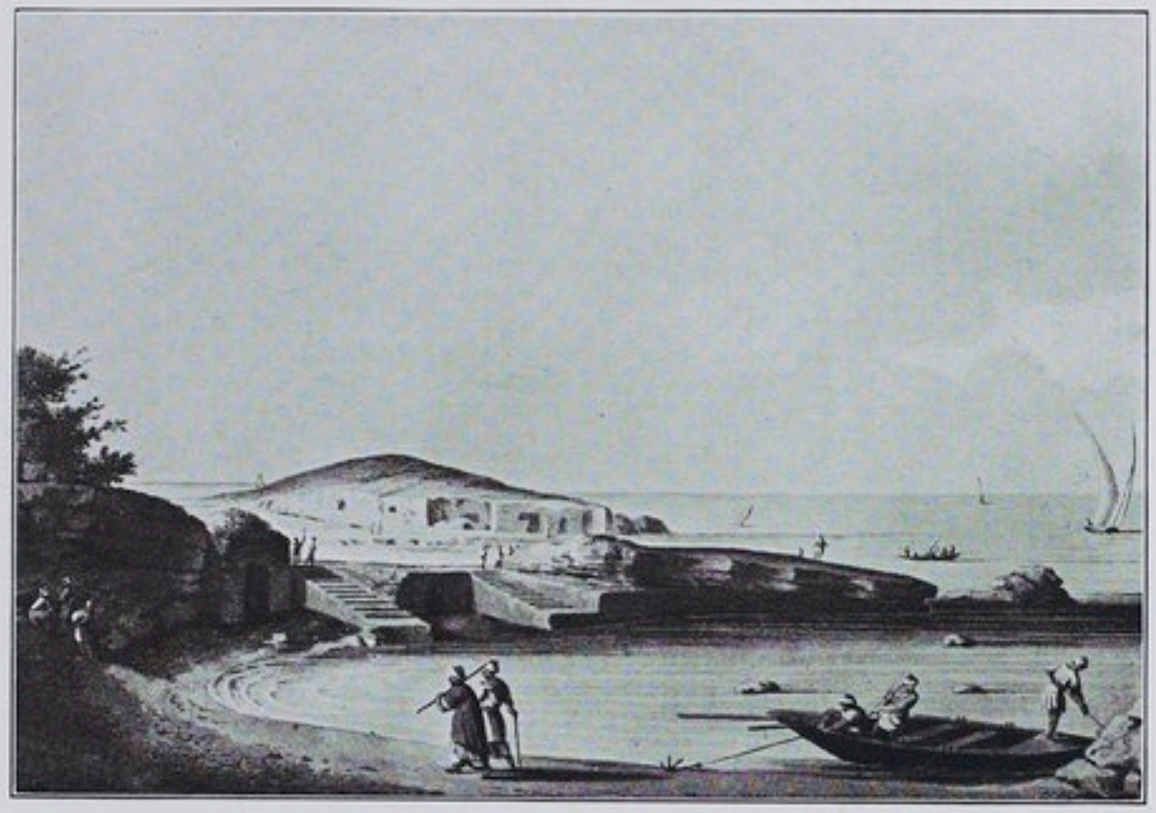
MARK ANTONY.
(From a Bust in the British Museum.)

praising the splendour of the sight as passing anything he had before seen, she said it was a trifle and begged that he would take the whole of it as a gift from her. The next day he again dined with her, and brought a larger number of his friends and generals, and was of course startled to see a costliness which made that of the day before seem nothing; and she again gave him the whole of the gold upon the table and gave to each of his friends the couch upon which he sat. These costly and delicate dinners were continued every day; and one evening when Antony playfully blamed her wastefulness and said that it was not possible to fare in a more costly manner, she told him that the dinner of the next day should cost ten thousand sestertia, or sixty thousand pounds sterling. This he would not believe and laid her a wager that she would fail in her promise. When the day came the dinner was as great and dainty as those of the former days; but when Antony called upon her to count up the cost of the meats and the wines, she said that she did not reckon them, but that she should soon herself eat and drink the ten thousand sestertia. She wore in her ears two pearls, the largest known in the world, which, like the diamonds of European kings, had come to her with her crown and kingdom, and were together valued at that large sum. On the servants removing the meats they set before her a glass of vinegar, and she took one of these ear-rings from her ear and dropped it into the glass, and when dissolved drank it off. Plancus, one of the guests who had been made judge of the wager, snatched the other from the queen's ear and saved it from being drunk up like the first, and then declared that Antony had lost his bet. The pearl which was saved was afterwards cut in two and made into a pair of ear-rings for the statue of Venus in the Pantheon at Rome; and the fame of the wager may be said to have made the two half pearls at least as valuable as the two whole ones."

Antony succumbed, as might be expected, to the wiles of the siren. He became her devoted slave, and could deny her nothing, not even the life of her sister Arsinoe, then a captive in Rome, which she demanded. Cleopatra having made good her conquest, took Antony with her to Alexandria, and with his co-operation ruled Egypt and the lands adjacent with something of Imperial grandeur. The union, which did so much for Cleopatra, was fatal for Antony. Gradually his power in Rome waned. At length when Asia-Minor had been over-run by a Parthian army and his adherents had been defeated in Italy itself, he determined to strike a blow for the maintenance of his power. Collecting his forces he prepared for a descent on Italy. A great war seemed imminent, but through the disinclination of the armies for a bloody internecine conflict such as an encounter between the two must have been, a composition was arranged in B.C. 40, and Antony, as a seal to the compact, received Octavia, his rival's sister's hand, in marriage. Antony remained with his new spouse at Rome for the next three years, but at the end of that period, yielding to the fascinations of his old love, he returned to Alexandria

and shared with Cleopatra the government of the East. After Antony's return Cleopatra used to dress as the goddess Isis, and was called the new Isis; she also made Antony dress in the character of Osiris and Dionysus, and acted in a most extravagant manner. Nevertheless, she had absolute power in Egypt and, as Dion Cassius says, "she bewitched everybody."

Probably because of the desertion of his sister, Octavian, in B.C. 32, declared war against Cleopatra. Antony and Cleopatra, collecting all the war vessels that they could command, went out from Alexandria together to do battle with Octavian on the sea. In the great battle that followed at Actium in B.C. 31 Antony had quite as good a chance of winning as his opponent. But when as yet the battle was undecided, the sixty ships which Cleopatra had sent to the fight were seen to be hoisting their sails and making ready to withdraw from the battle. As soon as Antony saw her ship sailing away, and "forgetting everything and deserting and skulking away from those who were fighting



BATHS OF CLEOPATRA AT ALEXANDRIA.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

and dying in his cause," says Plutarch, "he got into a five-oared galley with only Alexas, the Syrian, and Skelhos to attend him, and followed after her who had already ruined him, and was destined to complete his ruin." Cleopatra, observing Antony's galley approaching, caused her vessel to be stopped, and when he came alongside took him on board. Together they proceeded to the coast of Libya, and from thence Antony sent Cleopatra on to Egypt. Afterwards, in despair, Antony attempted to commit suicide, but was prevented by his friends. Cleopatra's spirit, on the other hand, had not been crushed by the heavy reverse which her cause and that of her lover had sustained. No sooner had she arrived in Egypt than she began to concert measures for a retreat by the Red Sea. She caused a number of her ships to to be dragged across the Isthmus of Suez, and would probably have put the scheme into execution had not the Arabs burnt the first detachment of boats and so disarranged her designs as to make a reconsideration of her plan of campaign necessary. In the end she decided to stay at Alexandria and attempt to hold her own by her favourite weapon—feminine strategem. Antony joined her after a time, and the couple entered upon a course of festivity and pleasure little in harmony with their desperate position. But Cleopatra, amidst all the rioting, was not insensible of the dangers of the situation. She despatched messengers with overtures of peace to Octavian, her proposal being that her children might have Egypt, and that Antony might be allowed to live as a private person at Athens. Cæsar replied that he would concede anything in reason provided Cleopatra killed Antony. Soon afterwards Cæsar appeared in Egypt at the head of an army, having marched by way of Syria. Cleopatra, on his approach, collected all her jewels and treasures and took refuge in a magnificent tomb she had built for herself near the temple of Isis. On arriving at Alexandria Cæsar surrounded the city intent on crushing his hated adversary. Antony made one last effort to escape from the toils which were closing around him. But his forces, through the treachery of Cleopatra, deserted him at the critical moment. "When Antony saw this he cried out that he had been betrayed, and Cleopatra, fearing his wrath, fled to her tomb, and having let down the doors she bolted them and set men to tell Antony that she was dead. Antony went into his chamber and called upon his faithful slave Eros to kill him; but he, having drawn his sword and pretended to be about to smite his master, suddenly turned away his face and killed himself; seeing this, Antony ran his sword through his own body and cast himself on the bed, but the wound was not fatal at once, and he called upon the bystanders to finish him because he was writhing in pain. This, however, no man would do, and almost immediately Diomedes, the secretary of Cleopatra, came with orders to take Antony to the tomb. When Antony knew that she was alive he ordered his servants to take him to her, and they did so; but she would not open the doors, and having let down cords from a window the servants fastened him to them, and she herself and two women drew him up. When she had brought him into the chamber and laid him down she tore her garments and beat her breasts and scratched them with her hands, and at the same time smearing her face with his blood, she called him master and husband and Imperator. Antony asked for wine, and when he had drunk it he gave her certain advice and died."* Cleopatra did not long survive her paramour. Cæsar wishing to take her to Rome alive to grace his triumph treated her with kindness; but she declined to accept the position assigned to her, and in spite of all precautions she committed suicide, it was popularly supposed at the time by causing herself to be bitten by an asp or serpent, which was taken into her room concealed in a basket of figs. Cæsar, with great magnanimity, caused Cleopatra and Antony to be buried in one tomb with splendid honours, but he put to death her son Cæsarion and also Antyllus, the eldest son of Antony by Fulvia.

Cleopatra was a great woman—one of the greatest perhaps in the history of the world, judged merely from the standpoint of intellectual force. Her influence over two of the most masterly of Roman rulers in succession could not have been due to ordinary feminine charm. Judging from her portraits, indeed, she was not, according to the ordinary standards even of that day, a beautiful woman. Her features, as they are revealed on the coins, were not regular, and though the expression of the face is pleasing it does not convey the impression of extraordinary attractiveness. The qualities which Cleopatra possessed there can be little doubt pertained largely to the mind. Her intuition was unerring, and there was an almost masculine strength and directness in her methods of dealing with difficult and complicated situations. She ruled her dominions with conspicuous judgment. Trade was encouraged, and while disorders were suppressed with a strong hand, she never interfered with the life of the people. During her reign something of the prosperity which characterised the reign of the earlier Ptolemys returned. Alexandria became once more a great port, the towns on the Nile recovered to some extent their old grandeur, and the commercial intercourse with the distant lands beyond the desert was maintained by a constant succession of caravans. In every way the heritage she passed on to the Romans was one which was calculated to add lustre to the name of that imperial race.

In summing up the qualities of the Ptolemys, Dr. Budge says that "Even the greater Ptolemies such as Philadelphus and Euergetes were regarded with some dislike by Greeks who were ignorant of Egyptian customs, and are nowadays often regarded as licentious monarchs because they contracted marriages with their own sisters and nieces. These marriages, however, seemed quite natural to an Egyptian, for they had constantly taken place under the ancient Pharaohs for the purpose of keeping the royal blood pure; such marriages were entirely confined to the kings. When we have disabused our minds of the prejudices against the Ptolemies caused by this peculiar custom, for which they were not responsible, we see that despite their many vices they were in reality, for the most part, great and powerful monarchs, who lose but little when compared with the Pharaohs of the XVIIIth and XIXth dynasties."

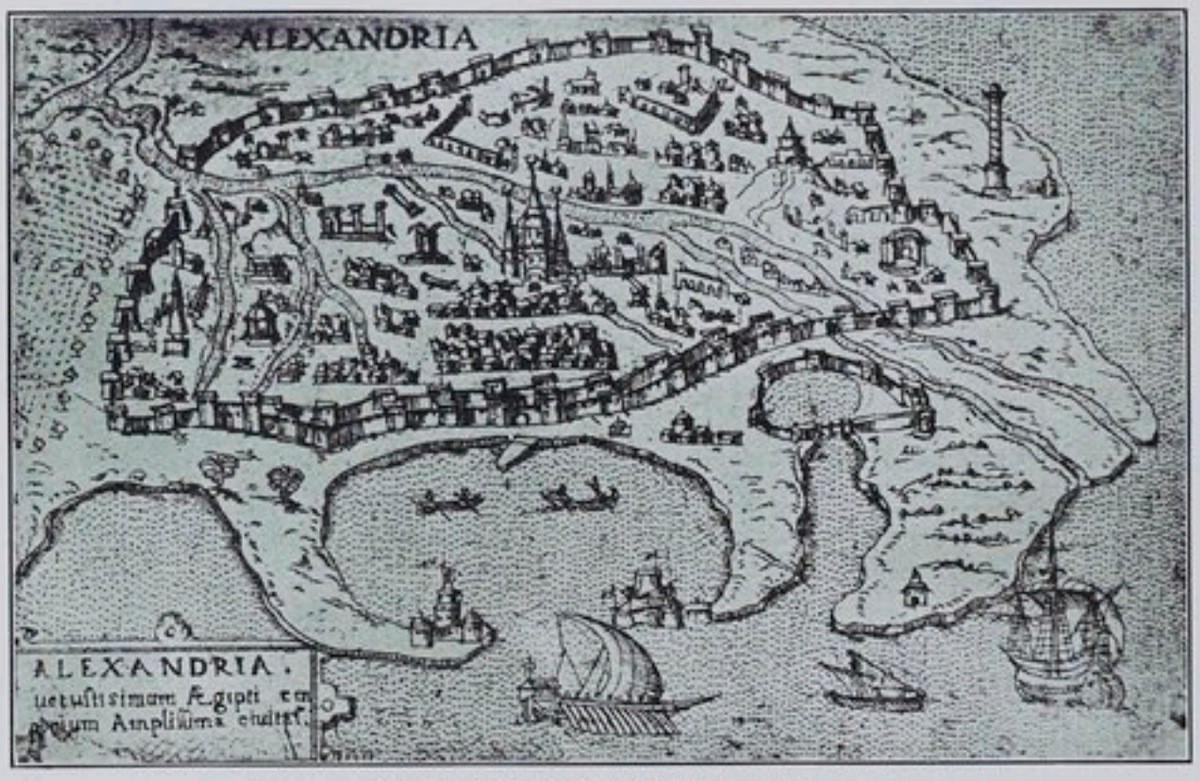
* Books on Egypt and Chaldea, Vol. xvi., p 106.

CHAPTER V.

Egypt a Roman Province—The Administration of the Earlier Prefects—Persecution of the Jews at Alexandria—Introduction of Christianity into Egypt by the Apostle Mark—Visits of the Emperor Hadrian to the Delta—Later Visits of Marcus Aurelius, Septimus Severus, and Caracalla—Massacre of Alexandrian Youth by the Orders of the Last Named.

WITH the disappearance of the Ptolemaic dynasty Egypt became a Roman province and was administered by a prefect in the way customary with a conquered country. The change in rulers was accepted with characteristic philosophy by the Egyptians. Their religious rites protected, as they were under the Romans, it was a matter almost of indifference to them who sat in the seats of the mighty. No doubt there was the less disposition to resist the new régime as Roman influence had long predominated in Alexandria and Roman arts at the period were widely diffused throughout Egypt. The people knew the power of Rome and how utterly hopeless resistance would be. So Cleopatra, the Empress, was succeeded by Gallus, the prefect, and Roman legions mounted guard under the shadow of the Pyramids.

In its earliest phases the Roman government of Egypt cannot be said to have redounded to the credit of the conquering race. Octavian, who had by this time assumed the name of Augustus, commenced his administration of the new province by decreeing the destruction of all statues of Antony, and fifty of these effigies, ornamenting various buildings in Alexandria, were broken up. In the judicial system that was set up the Egyptian officials were placed in a position of such inferiority as to amount to degradation. More marked still as evidence of the spirit that pervaded the new régime was the exclusion of Alexandria and other cities from those municipal privileges which were usually extended by the Romans to towns in conquered countries. Augustus's personal dislike of the Alexandrians was very pronounced. It came out in many ways, notably in a scheme actually entered upon for abandoning the city and transferring the government to a new city situated about four miles from the Canobic or Eastern Gate of Alexandria. Cornelius Gallus, the first prefect, was given very wide authority, and in the absence of any effective control from Rome appears to have abandoned himself to dreams of independent government. He set up statues of himself and caused his deeds to be inscribed as would have become a regular descendant of the Pharaohs upon the Pyramids. Eventually, however, he was sharply called to account by Augustus, and being recalled to Rome to answer for his extravagances, committed suicide on the way thither. The second prefect, Petronius, was a man of a different type. He took a real interest in the affairs of the province under his charge and carried forward a beneficent policy which largely increased the wealth of the country. His name is identified in particular with a project for the improvement of the Nile flow which added largely to the agricultural productiveness of the country. The chief event associated with the administration of Ælius Gallus, the third prefect, is a visit paid by Strabo to the Delta. This eminent Roman historian accompanied the prefect on one of his periodical tours through the country, and he has left behind a most valuable record of his impressions. Alexandria he described as a magnificent city, whose two harbours held more ships than any other port in Italy, while its export trade was larger than that of the whole of Italy. While up the Nile he visited the broken colossal statue of Amenhetep near Thebes, and speculated with the Roman generals who accompanied him as to the origin of the musical sounds which emanated from the statue as the rising sun shone on its face. He was also an amused spectator of the feats of the Egyptian boatmen who shot the cataracts in their wicker boats. Regarded from the tourist standpoint, Strabo's tour was very much what a trip up the Nile is to-day, and the sights he saw did not differ very widely from those which are presented to the modern traveller. An unsuccessful raid into Arabia Felix with the object of securing some of the fabulous wealth of the Arab fastnesses

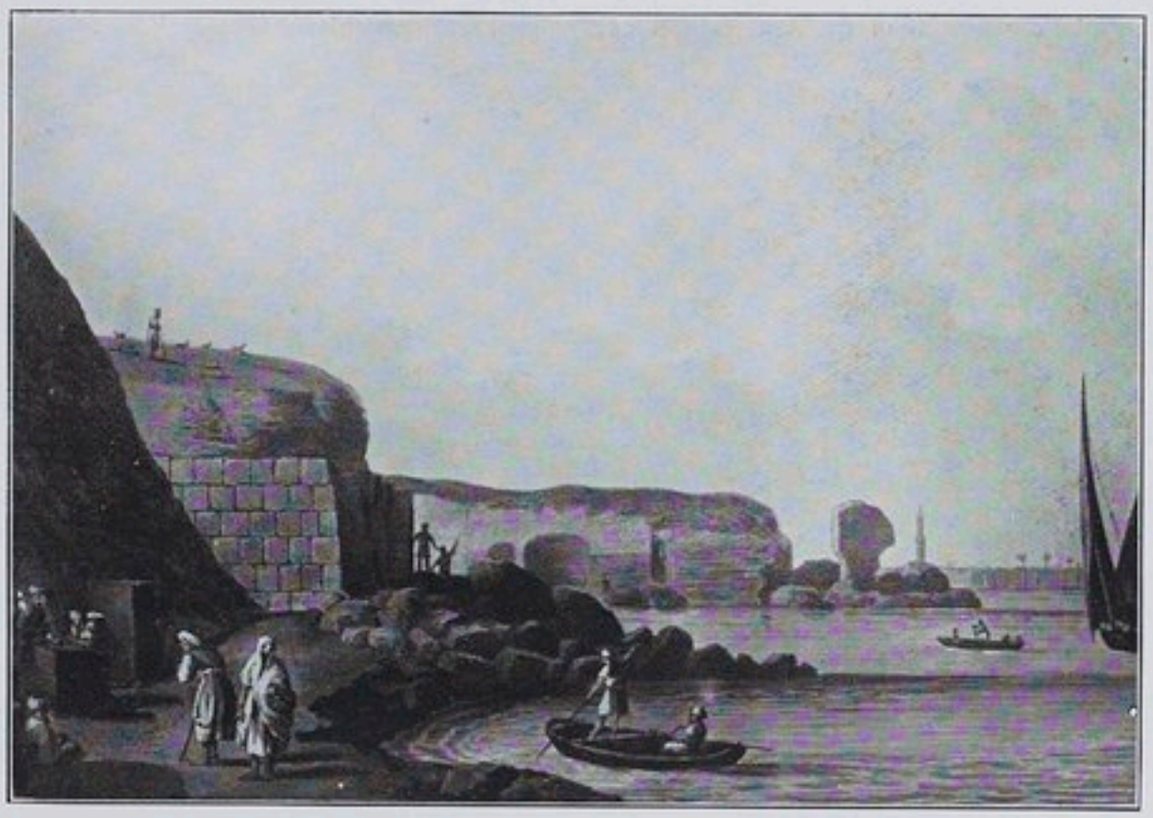


PLAN OF ALEXANDRIA, 1034.
(From a plan in the British Museum.)

occupied two years of the prefecture of Ælius Gallus. His failure in this venture was chiefly due to those familiar enemies of the invader of the Egyptian deserts—heat and thirst. Though the expedition was well equipped and ably led it was unable, in the face of the difficulties indicated, to make any effective headway, and on the news arriving of an Ethiopian revolt the project was abandoned. On hearing that the three Roman cohorts at Elephantine, Philæ, and Syene had been overwhelmed, Ælius Gallus marched with all his forces to meet the invaders, and coming up with them drove them southwards to Ethiopian Pselchis, which is probably to be identified with Abou-Simbel. Here the Ethiopians made a stand, but the Roman legions carried their position by storm and they were soon once more in hurried flight. Ælius marched into the Nubian desert as far as Premnis, and finally occupied Napata, the capital of the country. After pacifying the district and leaving a guard behind to check further inroads he returned to Egypt proper.

It was the custom to change the prefects in Egypt every few years, much after the system which marks the administration of the outlying portions of the British Empire to-day by which viceroys and governors are replaced every five years. The existence of this custom deprives the Egyptian history of the period of that continuity of interest which characterises the earlier Ptolemaic dispensation. As time goes on, however, we observe coming to the front certain great movements destined to powerfully influence the course not merely of Egyptian history but of universal history. One of these was the persecutions of the Jews which preluded the introduction of Christianity. For many years before the Roman occupation there had been a great migration of Jews to Egypt and particularly to Alexandria. It continued with increasing strength after Cæsar's defeat of Antony and Cleopatra, until in the time of Tiberius it is estimated that there were a million of the race in the country. They were despised and hated by most classes, but more especially by the Greeks, who found them keen rivals in trade and feared their increasing monopoly of it. The feud broke out with great fierceness in the reign of Caligula. The visit of Agrippa, the Jewish king, to Alexandria was made the pretext for an outbreak of what in these days would be termed Anti-Semitism. The king was lampooned and publicly insulted, and when these ebullitions passed without notice the Greek populace set upon the Jews whom they met in the streets and rooted up the groves of trees around their synagogues. Flaccus, the prefect, instead of suppressing the outbreaks with a strong hand, as he was in duty bound to do, added fuel to the flames by issuing an edict in which he styled the Jews "foreigners" and so deprived them by a stroke of the pen of the privileges of citizenship, which they had hitherto enjoyed. Taking the hint, the Greeks proceeded to still greater violence. They attacked the Jews in their quarter, plundered

their houses, and perpetrated upon them every form of outrage. Flaccus entering thoroughly into the spirit of the persecution, seized thirty-six leading Jewish councillors and ordered them to be scourged, assigning for the execution of the sentence Egyptians to make the degradation more complete. The Jews were prevented from sending any complaints directly to Rome, but Agrippa contrived on their behalf to forward an account of the persecutions. Upon receiving this Caligula was greatly incensed against Flaccus, and immediately despatched a trusted centurion with a cohort of soldiers to procure his recall. The downfall of Flaccus was dramatic in the extreme. Landing unobserved after nightfall the centurion made his way to the prefect's palace, and arrested him in the midst of a large company which he was entertaining to supper. Before he could hardly recover from his surprise at the appearance of this peculiarly unwelcome visitant, Flaccus was hurried on board a ship and the same day sail was set



RUINS OF THE PTOLEMEAN LIBRARY, ALEXANDRIA.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

for Rome. On the night of Flaccus's arrest the Jews were celebrating the Feast of the Tabernacle, and hearing the tramp of troops in the street, associated the movement with another outburst of the prefect's persecuting zeal. Great was their joy when they learned the true state of affairs, and they gave glory to God, not, says Pluto, their historian, that their enemy was going to be punished, but because their own sufferings were at an end. Caligula's active zeal in befriending the Jews was not proof against the energetic advocacy of the Greek claims. The turning point was an acknowledgment by the Jews of the accusation that they had declined to admit a statue of Caligula to their synagogues to be worshipped as it was worshipped in the temples of Egypt. On hearing this the Emperor emphatically declined to remove the ban from them, and under its shadow they remained during the remainder of Caligula's reign. When Claudius came to the throne, A.D. 41, he restored the privileges of the Jews and under his mild and just government they in common with other classes of the population entered upon a period of prosperity. The reign of Nero (A.D. 55-68), Claudius's successor, is chiefly notable for the introduction of Christianity into Egypt by the apostle Mark. His preaching had a great effect on the minds of the Alexandrians, who, amid the decay of their ancient faith, were prepared to listen to the gospel. Crowds flocked to the evangelist's standard and soon the Christian Church became a power in Egypt. Meanwhile the commercial fame of Alexandria with the revival of the use of the Red Sea route to India, which took place early in the Roman period, was well sustained. "The harbour," says Sharpe, "was crowded with masts and strange prows and uncouth sails and the quays were always busy with loading and unloading; while in the streets might be seen men of all languages and all dresses—copper coloured Egyptians, swarthy Jews, lively, bustling Greeks, and haughty Italians, with Asiatics from the neighbouring coasts of Spain and Cilicia, and even dark Ethiopians, painted Arabs, Bactrians, Scythians, Persians, and Indians, all gay with their national costumes." Alexandria was, in fact, a spot in which Europe met Asia, and in which each wondered at the strangeness of the other, much as Europe meets Asia to-day at Port Said, and on either side interest is excited by the novelty of the spectacle encountered.

Hadrian (A.D. 117–38) took great interest in the Egyptian section of his empire. On two occasions he visited the Delta. During the first visit, paid in the sixth year of his reign, he was accompanied by his favourite, Antinous, and while the Imperial ship was passing up the Nile to Thebes, the youth cast himself overboard and was drowned, much to the grief of the Emperor. In memory of him, Hadrian caused to be established a large city on the east bank of the Nile, opposite to Hermopolis and named it Antinoopolis. Divine honours were here regularly paid to Antinous and as a further token of his great affection the Emperor ordered coins to be struck in Alexandria, inscribed with the name of "the hero, Antinous." Hadrian's second visit to Egypt enabled him to prosecute more closely than heretofore his studies of Egyptian institutions. From a letter of his, addressed to the Consul Servianus which is still extant, it appears that he was not greatly impressed with the Egyptian character. He wrote, "As for Egypt, which you were praising to me, dearest Servianus, I have found its people wholly light, wavering and flying after every breath of a report. Those who worship Serapis are Christians, and those who call themselves bishops of Christ are devoted to Serapis. There is no ruler of a Jewish synagogue, no Samaritan, no Presbyter of the Christians, who is not a mathematician, an augur and a soothsayer. The very patriarch himself when he came into Egypt, was by some, said to worship Serapis, and by others, to worship Christ. As a race of men they are seditious, vain and spiteful; as a body, wealthy and prosperous, of whom nobody lives in idleness. Some blow glass, some make paper, and others linen. There is work for the lame and work for the blind; even those who have lost their hands do not live in idleness. Their one God is nothing: Christians, Jews, and all nations worship him. I wish this body of men was better behaved and worthy of their number; for as for that they ought to hold the chief place in Egypt, I have granted everything unto them; I have restored their old privileges; I have made them grateful by adding new ones." Serapis, the god which seems to have been so attractive to the Alexandrians according to this letter, was the god of the dead, who in the next world was to reward the good and punish the wicked. Its popularity is to be taken as an indication of the decaying force of the polytheism which had hitherto been in vogue. The age was one of religious ferment and men's minds were affected by many passing waves of feeling, which from time to time swept over the surface of Alexandrian thought. It is not within our province to trace the development of these religious controversies. The subject belongs rather to the region of ecclesiastical history. We may pass on to the general course of Egyptian affairs which concerned the domain of commerce rather than of theology. In the reign of Hadrian's successor, Antoninus Pius (A.D. 138–62) the Roman writer Arrian made a tour of the Red Sea ports, and he has left us a valuable account of the commercial intercourse of that period. "That trade of Egypt to India, Ethiopia and Arabia" says Sharpe, "was then most valuable, and carried on with great activity; but as the merchandise was in each case carried only for short distances from city to city, the travellers could gain but little knowledge of where it came from, or even sometimes where it was going. The Egyptians sent coarse linen, glass bottles, brazen vessels, brass for money, and iron for weapons of war and hunting; and they received back ivory rhinoceri's teeth, Indian steel, Indian ink, silks, slaves, tortoise shells, myrrh, and other scents, with many other articles of high price and little weight. The presents which the merchants made to the petty kings of Arabia were chiefly horses, mules, or gold and silver vases. Besides this, the ports on the Red Sea carried on a brisk trade among themselves in corn, expressed oil, wicker boats, and sugar. Of sugar, or honey from the cane, this is, perhaps, the earliest mention found in history; but Arrian does not speak of the sugar cane as then new; nor does he tell us where it was grown. Had sugar been then seen for the first time he would certainly have said so; it must have been an article well known in the Indian trade."

Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 162–81) and Septimus Severus (A.D. 196–211) were amongst the Roman Emperors who paid personal visits to Egypt. The latter went for a tour up the Nile, and inspected the wonders of the ancient Egyptian dynasties. At Alexandria he won the applause of the citizens by conferring upon

them a municipal constitution. But his services in this respect were afterwards forgotten in the bitterness engendered by a fierce persecution of the Christians, which was carried on in Egypt in common with other parts of the empire. Tertullian, the historian, in discoursing on the subject, complained that the Emperor allowed the Egyptians to worship cows, goats, or crocodiles, or, indeed, any animal they chose, while he punished those who bowed down before the Creator and Governor of the world. Alexandria had even stronger reason to remember the visit to their city of Severus's successor, Caracalla (A.D. 211–17). Caracalla, who was a man of mean stature and still meaner understanding, had in the earlier part of his reign, been made the object of the none too delicate satire of the Alexandrian wits, and the attacks appear to have rankled in the imperial brain. On his arrival in Alexandria, he gave out that he intended to form an Alexandrian phalanx, after the manner of the Macedonian and Spartan phalanxes already in existence, and he requested that all the youths of the city, of suitable age, should assemble on a plain outside the walls, in order that the necessary selection of recruits might be made. In answer to the summons thousands of young men appeared at the place of rendezvous and ranging themselves in lines awaited the the Emperor's orders. Caracalla went slowly through the ranks, receiving on all hands a good reception. As soon as he had finished his tour of inspection a signal was given to the army, which had by this time completely encircled the entire band, to advance. The order was obeyed with terrible results. The unhappy youths were either butchered where they stood, or driven into the Nile, there to be either drowned or massacred by their remorseless enemy. Such was the slaughter that the waters of the Nile, which at midsummer are always red with the mud brought down from the upper country, are said to have flowed to the sea coloured with the blood of the victims. Caracalla, to further mark his distrust of the Alexandrians, directed that all public games and the allowance of corn to the citizens should be stopped, and as a safeguard against revolt caused the palace quarter of the city to be isolated from the rest of the city, by the building of a heavily fortified wall. When the tyrant was murdered in A.D. 218, there was great rejoicing in Egypt, and it was given out that his miserable end had been foretold by signs from heaven.

CHAPTER VI.

Increasing Feebleness of the Roman Power—Invasion of Egypt by Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra—Reconquest of Egypt by Aurelian—Diocletian Suppresses a Rebellion at Alexandria—His Persecutions of the Christians—Later History of Roman Domination in Egypt.

THE decline of the Roman Empire, which at this period became very marked, had its effect on the welfare of Egypt. The frontier races, which had hitherto been kept in restraint by the prestige of the Roman name, now commenced to give trouble, and the Roman troops showed an increasing inability to cope with their attacks. Meanwhile, persecution of the Christians took a new and more menacing form at Alexandria, and commerce in the distracted state of the country fell off to a very serious extent. To add to the misery of the Egyptians a frightful outbreak of plague occurred in the reign of Gallus, which devastated Alexandria, and also caused great ravages in other parts of the Delta. Finally, Alexandria, in the reign of Gallienus (A.D. 253–68), was brought to the verge of ruin by a siege, in which the forces of the reigning emperor were pitted against those of an ambitious aspirant for power.

The crowning disaster of this time of Roman degeneracy was the successful invasion of Egypt by Zenobia, the Queen of Palmyra. This queen, who had some of the great qualities of Cleopatra, with her forces made good the hold upon the country secured by the arms of her troops by the force of her striking personality. She was a great linguist, and is said to have been able to converse with the Egyptians in their own language. In manners she was as regal as her earlier prototype, but when in camp she was noted for the simplicity of her life. Zenobia established her capitals at Antioch and Palmyra, and from those centres ruled Egypt as a province of her empire. The Roman dominion, however, was not yet destined to be entirely wiped out. When Aurelian came to the throne in Rome in A.D. 270 he first proposed a division of power with Zenobia. She was to be his "colleague" in the empire, and to share with him the title to government. This arrangement was probably merely a device on Aurelian's part to lull Zenobia's suspicions, and to gain time. We find him at all events not long afterwards proceeding at the head of a great force to Syria to contest with the Queen the right to supremacy. His campaign was successful from the first. Zenobia was defeated at all points, and eventually she was taken prisoner and carried off to Rome to grace the Emperor's triumph. When she had served this purpose she was allowed to retire into private life to end her days. Aurelian's victory brought Egypt once more under the Roman yoke, but the old strength of Roman rule had then departed, and within a short time we find the country once more in the throes of a crisis precipitated by rebellions within and attacks from without. Diocletian (A.D. 285–305) on attaining to power after several years of strife made a composition with the unruly Ethiopian tribes, the chief feature of which was an annual payment, which was to be conditional on the tribes ceasing their forays into lower Egypt. Barely had Diocletian returned to Rome after making this arrangement than news reached him of a rising of the Alexandrians in favour of his rival, Achilleus, he proceeded with all haste to Alexandria, but found the rebels in such strength as to defy his efforts to dislodge them. After a siege, protracted to eight months, the city was carried by storm, and Achilleus put to death. Immense damage was done to Alexandria by the siege operations. The inhabitants were spared by the direct intervention of the Emperor, and in gratitude to him they raised a statue to his memory with, below, the inscription: "To the most honoured Emperor, the Saviour of Alexandria, the unconquerable Diocletian." Diocletian's tenderness on this occasion contrasts very remarkably with the savagery of his policy of persecution which he prosecuted with such energy in the latter part of his reign. Eusebius gives a moving account of the manner in which the infamous imperial edicts were carried out in Egypt. "Many were put to death on the same day, some beheaded, and some burnt. The executioners were tired, and the hearts of the pagan judges melted by the unflinching firmness of the Christians. Many who were eminent for wealth, rank, and learning, chose to lay down their lives rather than throw a few grains of corn upon the altar, or comply with any ceremony that was required of them as a religious test. The judges begged them to think of their wives and children, and pointed out that they were the cause of their own death, but the Christians were usually firm, and were beheaded for the refusal to take the test." The persecutions continued during the succeeding reigns of the Roman Emperors until Constantine mounted the throne in A.D. 323. Constantine's acceptance of the new faith wrought a great change in the condition of the Christians all over the Roman Empire, and the Egyptian Christian Church shared in the immunity from persecution which was now enjoyed. This happy state of affairs continued throughout the long reign of Constantine, but on the accession of Julian, his pagan successor, in A.D. 361, hostility to the Christians once more became a feature of the administration. In vain the Christians appealed to Julian for redress. He received their complaints with unfeeling jokes, and the deputation sent to him eventually returned to Alexandria in despair. Jovian (A.D. 363–64), Julian's successor in the purple, restored the Christians to their rights, and the Church took to itself a new existence.

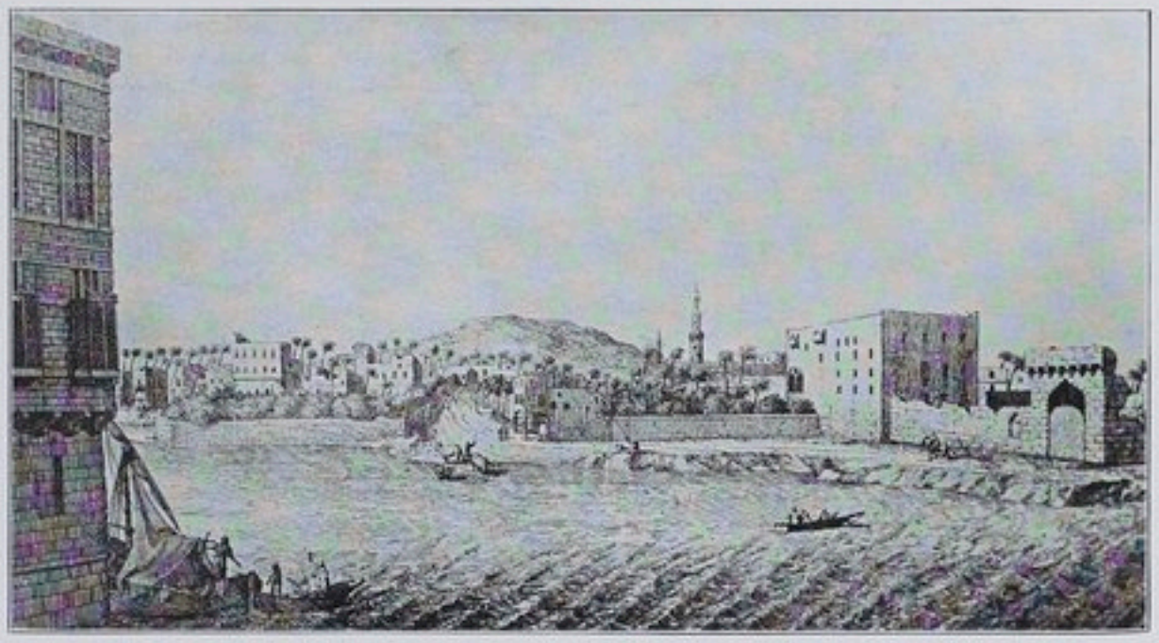
The later history of Egypt under the Romans is largely a record of ecclesiastical controversy and strife arising out of the forward march of Christianity. Those events are too remote from the purposes of this work to justify detailed examination here. It is sufficient to recall that Athanasius, the greatest of the figures in these early struggles of orthodox Christianity, was an Alexandrian, and that for a long period he was the head of the Egyptian Church as Archbishop of Alexandria. His death in the year A.D. 373 was followed seven years later by the issue of an imperial edict suppressing pagan practices. Before this the old rites had largely lost their hold upon the population, and in the place of the temples to the Egyptian gods, Coptic churches were springing up in which the pure faith of Christ was preached. A persecution of the Jews in the time of Cyril, the Patriarch of Alexandria, dimmed the lustre of the new dispensation, and this outbreak, which culminated in the murder of the beautiful philosopher Hypatia, leaves an indelibly black

mark on the records of early Christianity in Alexandria. But the decay of the Roman Empire had by this time extended far, and the era no doubt was one of wide degeneracy. Otherwise the easy conquest of Egypt by the Arabs, which took place in the seventh century, cannot be accounted for. Unquestionably by this time the Egyptians had sunk into a condition of such national apathy that they cared not from whence their rulers came so long as they were guaranteed in the practice of Christian rites—a concession which the early Arabs were perfectly ready to make.

CHAPTER VII.

Arab Conquest of Egypt—The Capture of Alexandria by Amer—The Arab Capital established at Footat or Old Cairo—The Later Caliphs—The Establishment of the Fatimite Power at Cairo—The Crusaders in Egypt—The Rule of Saladin—The Soldiers of the Fifth Crusade land at Damietta under Louis XIV. of France—They sustain a Disastrous Defeat.

From its earliest inception Mahomedanism was a conquering creed, and the death of the Prophet was followed almost immediately by extended operations, having for their object the planting of the banner of Islam in centres which, from their association with the traditions upon which the new religion was built, seemed especially marked out for the aggressive form of proselytism which was identified with Mahomed's teaching. The rich cities of Syria were the first to feel the power of the new force which was stirring the dry bones of Asia. In vain the Greeks endeavoured to bar the way to the invaders. Like a torrent they swept into Syria, carrying everything before them. Damascus fell A.D. 634, and somewhat later Jerusalem, after a four months' siege, was forced to capitulate. With the subsequent capture of Aleppo, Antioch, and Cæsarea the whole of Syria came under Mahomedan influence. While these operations were proceeding, Aboo Bekr, the lieutenant of the Prophet and the first of the Caliphs, died, and was succeeded by Omar ebn el Khuttáb. This ruler, fired with enthusiasm for the spread of the faith and incidentally no doubt glad of the opportunity of extending his temporal power, eagerly sanctioned an application made to him by his conquering general, Amer, that he should widen the area of his operations by invading Egypt. The victorious Mahomedan troops crossed the border in June, A.D. 638, and immediately laid siege to Pelusium. That important stronghold fell after a siege of thirty days. Its capture left the way open to the heart of Egypt to Mahomedan forces and they advanced confidently into the country. The invaders were brought up before the walls of the Roman fortress in the city of Babylon, which occupied the site of the modern Musr-el-Ateekeh (Old Cairo), whose solid walls interposed a formidable obstacle to their further progress. For seven months Amer was detained by this stronghold, and it was only on the receipt of a reinforcement of 400,000 men that he was finally able to subdue it. After this Amer's task was a comparatively easy one. The feud which had grown up between the Greeks and the Copts in connection with the religious controversies of the early Christian period was a great help to the Mahomedan conqueror at this juncture. The Copts, seeing in the advent of the Mahomedans an opportunity of wiping off old scores and freeing themselves from a hated thraldom, sought to make a composition with Amer. Nothing loth to win to his side such powerful aid, the victorious general agreed to accept the co-operation of the Copts and guarantee their religious freedom in return for the payment by them of tribute to the Caliph. The effect of the compact was to give the Mahomedans the control of the entire Delta with the exception of Alexandria. That city, however, made a stout and gallant resistance. Well provided with provisions and supplies and ably manned, it held out against the fiercest attacks of the invaders. Prodigies of valour were performed by both besiegers and besieged. "The Saracens," says Gibbon, "fought with the courage of lions; they repulsed the frequent and almost daily sallies of the besieged and soon assaulted in their turn the walls and tower of the city. In every attack the sword, the banner of Amron (Amer), glittered in the van of the Mahomedans. On a memorable day he was betrayed by an imprudent valour; his followers who had entered the citadel were driven back; and the general, with a friend and a slave, remained a prisoner in the hands of the Christians. When Amron was conducted before the prefect he remembered his dignity and forgot his situation; a lofty demeanour and resolute language revealed the lieutenant of the Caliph, and the battleaxe of a soldier was already raised to strike off the head of the audacious captive. His life was saved by the readiness of his slave, who instantly gave his master a blow on the face, and commanded him in an angry tone to be silent in the presence of his superiors. The credulous Greek was deceived; he listened to the offer of a treaty, and his prisoners were dismissed in the hope of a more respectable embassy, till the joyful acclamations of the camp announced the return of their general and insulted the folly of the infidels." The siege continued with unabated fury for fourteen months, and the garrison then capitulated. With becoming pride Amer reported his victory to the Caliph. "I have taken," said Amer, "the great city of the West. Its size is immense. It is impossible for me to enumerate the variety of its riches and beauty; and I shall content myself with observing that it contains 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 400 theatres or places of amusement, 12,000 shops for the sale of vegetables and food, and 40,000 tributary Jews. The town has been subdued by force of arms without treaty or capitulation; and the Mahomedans are impatient to seize the fruits of their victory." Omar's curiosity was aroused to a high pitch by the news of Amer's victory, and he directed the general to furnish him with a description of a country which boasted a capital so remarkable as Alexandria. Amer indited, in reply, the following communication:—"Egypt, O Commander of the Faithful, is a compound of black earth and green plants, between a pulverised mountain and a red sand. The distance from Syene to the sea is a month's journey for a horseman. Along the valley descends a river, on which the blessing of the Most High reposes both in the evening and morning, and which



VIEW OF OLD CAIRO.
(From Norden's "Travels in Egypt and Nubia, 1757.")

rises and falls with the revolutions of the sun and moon. When the annual dispensation of Providence unlocks the springs and fountains that nourish the earth the Nile rolls his swelling and sounding waters through the realm of Egypt; the fields are overspread by the salutary flood and the villagers communicate with each other in their painted barks. The retreat of the inundation deposits a fertilising mud for the reception of the various seeds; the crowds of husbandmen who blacken the land may be compared to a swarm of industrious ants, and their native indolence is quickened by the lash of the taskmaster and the promise of the flowers and fruit of a plentiful increase. Their hope is seldom deceived; but the riches which they extract from the wheat, the barley, the rice, the legumes, the fruit trees and the cattle, are unequally shared between those who labour and those who possess. According to the vicissitudes of the seasons the face of the country is adorned with a *silver* wave, a verdant *emerald*, or the deep yellow of a *golden* harvest." The description reveals Amer as a close and intelligent observer, and a man of generous instincts. The history of his government of Egypt lends support to the view. Establishing his capital at Footat, or old Cairo, and erecting a mosque there in commemoration of his victory, he set himself to consolidating his power in the remoter parts of the country. Success attended his efforts and soon Egypt was under the influence of Amer's powerful government. The assassination of the Caliph Omar in A.D. 644 brought Amer's government of Egypt to a premature close. Othman, the new Caliph, was jealous of the general's great power and influence and he took an early opportunity of recalling him and sending to Egypt as his successor Abdullah, once the faithless secretary of the prophet. The change in the administration was taken advantage of by the Greeks to attempt to recover their lost power. A fleet under Heraclius stormed and captured Alexandria, and plans were formed for re-establishing the Greek influence in the interior of the Delta. But the Arabs, when they had recovered from their first surprise, soon turned the tables. They regained possession of Alexandria in A.D. 646, and in a short period afterwards made their authority in the country once more supreme. The revolt was the last flickering effort of the dying Greek cause. Henceforward the Mahomedan rule of Egypt continued without serious challenge until from the West a mighty personality arrived to dispute their authority.

The history of Egypt under the earlier Caliphs possesses little of interest to the general reader, and it is unnecessary here to do more than to touch upon a few of the more conspicuous events which marked the period. During the reign of the Abbaside Caliph Mohtuddee Billah, Ahmed-ebn-e-Tooloon, then Governor of Egypt, threw off his allegiance and declared himself an independent ruler. His spell of power lasted from 868 to 906. In the latter year the Caliphs re-asserted their authority, but they were only able to hold the country for a short period. The new rulers were the Sultans of the Akshud dynasty of Turks, who in 942 overran the country and drove the Abbasides out. Again was history repeated and the Turks ousted by the Fatemites who had established themselves in Western Africa with their capital at Cairoan, near Tunis. The Fatemite invading forces were commanded by Goher, an able general who had helped materially in the establishment of the Mahomedan power in West Africa. Advancing into Egypt in the year 969 they made a comparatively easy conquest of the country. By 973 the operations were complete, and Goher proceed to take steps to establish a capital which would be a fitting home for the new dynasty. His selection fell upon a site about the citadel of Kuttaeea, and to the new settlement he gave the name of Musr-el-Kaheerah. Soon afterwards El Moez, the head of the Fatemites, arrived in Egypt with his court, and he took up his residence in the new city which his general had created. Such were the beginnings of the great city of Cairo which to-day is one of the most populous centres in the East.

El Moez has traditionally the reputation of a great ruler. Compared with his immediate predecessors he was unquestionably a very liberal-minded monarch. Many useful works were undertaken in his reign, the most notable of them being connected with the improvement of the Tanitic branch of the Nile, which was widened and deepened to the great advantage of navigation and also of agriculture. El Moez's immediate successor —Azeez Billah—was a mild dispositioned man who caused great umbrage to his co-religionists by wedding a Christian and admitting Christian Jews to high office about his person. The third of the line, El Hakem, was a ruler of a very different type. "Not only," says Williamson, "did he set at defiance the precepts of the Koran, but his excesses in private and his tyranny in public rendered him odious to mankind. His very administration of justice was tainted with crime; and his mode of punishing the salesmen of Cairo, when in the character of his own *muhtizzeb* he detected false weights, indicated the profligacy and cruelty of his disposition. Nor did his caprices stop here; he assumed the character of a prophet; the religion of his people was insulted by his pretensions; and like another Nero he amused himself by setting fire to his capital, while he encouraged his soldiers to plunder the inhabitants in the midst of their alarm." His precepts form the corner stone of the mysterious religion of the Druses sect, which to the present day is a conspicuous feature in the religious life of Syria. He was assassinated by order of his own sister, who was so disgusted with his blasphemies and his cruelty that she had no compunction in concerting measures to take his life. El Hakem's successor was Mostunseh Billah, a leader of great influence. He inaugurated his rule by a series of brilliant successes, culminating in the occupation of Bagdad. His triumph, however, was short-lived. The Abbaside Caliph, Kaiem, securing the support of a neighbouring chief, retook his capital, and the Egyptian forces were driven back to their own country. Their return was followed by a terrible famine due to a failure of the inundation of the Nile. Such was the scarcity that existed that beasts of burden were all killed for food, and in some cases it is said the wretched inhabitants resorted to human flesh to satisfy their cravings. After the famine came a plague which further decimated the land. To complete the tale of the country's misfortunes the Egyptians had to withstand an irruption of Turks and Kurds. By a liberal expenditure of treasure El Motunser contrived to buy off these unwelcome intruders, but not before they had wasted a good part of the country. In despair at the many calamities which had overtaken him, El Motunser at last abdicated in favour of e'Gemalee, originally a Mameluke of Gemal-e'-Dowleh, who united great military talents with justice and discretion. Associated with him in the Government was Mostalee, El Motunser's son. The new reign was entered upon in 1094, and it was on the whole a prosperous one. On the death of e'Gemalee, Mostalee assumed sole control of affairs. He showed that he had profited by his coadjutors' teachings by conducting a brilliant campaign against the Turks, ending in the capture from them of Jerusalem. This reign was notable from the circumstance that it witnessed the first of the Crusades. In 1098 the Christian forces entered Syria from the North, and having captured Antioch, advanced upon Jerusalem, which fell into their hands in 1099 after a siege of forty days. Reinforcements were hurried from Egypt upon the news of the invasion, and they reached the vicintiy of Jerusalem two days after the capitulation of the place. Though their forces numbered 20,000 they were unable to make headway against the fiery zeal of the



VIEW OF THE CITY OF GRAND CAIRO.
(From Walsh's "Journal in Egypt," 1803.)

Crusaders, and were ultimately compelled to retire. Following up their success the Crusaders besieged Ascalon in 1101, and about the same period defeated Egyptian forces between Jaffa and Rumleh. Great efforts were made by the El Amr be-Akham-Illah, who had succeeded to the Caliphate of Egypt to stem the tide of victorious Christianity, but fortune continued to smile on the invaders and the banner of the cross waved triumphantly over Tripoli, and fifteen years later—in 1124—was planted upon the battlements of Tyre. For some years the struggle went on intermittently with results on the whole to the advantage of the Christians. A fillip was given to the contest in 1148 by the arrival of the second Crusade under the Emperor Conrad of Germany and Louis VII. of France. At this period the fortunes of the Egyptian Caliphate were at a very low ebb. The power had fallen into the hands of a succession of weak and dissolute rulers who were utterly unfitted to meet such a crisis as that which had been created by the advent of the Crusaders. As the outcome of a desperate struggle for supremacy between two rival aspirants for authority—Shawer and Shirkooh—the Crusaders were invited to intervene on behalf of the former. They responded to the overtures by marching a force into the country under Amaury (or Amabric), king of Jerusalem, and laying siege to Belbays. Their attack was so vigorously conducted that Shirkooh, who was the lieutenant of Noar-ed-Deen, Sultan of Damascus, was glad to accept a composition under which he retired to Syria with his forces. But he was not content to acquiesce in a situation which left his enemy in undisputed possession. Obtaining reinforcements and accompanied by his young nephew Yusef, afterwards to be known to fame in European romance as Saladin (Salah-e'-deen), he, in January, 1167, advanced once more into Egypt. On learning of their approach Shawer again sought and obtained Christian aid, and a combined Egyptian and Christian force marched out to meet the invaders who had by this time penetrated as far as Gizeh. Shirkooh, intimidated by the imposing strength of the allied army, sought to obtain by artifice what he could hardly hope to secure by direct means. He sent a message to Shawer proposing that they should unite their forces to expel the Christian invaders from the land of the faithful. But the Caliph was too wary a fighter to be entrapped by any such device and replied to the advances by acquainting the Franks with the terms of the letter and putting the messenger who brought it to death. Afterwards an attack was delivered by the combined forces upon Shirkooh's camp, and with such vigour was the fight conducted that the invaders were soon in full flight. They were pursued and overtaken at Babayn, near Oshmoonayn. Pressing forward, the attacking army believed that an easy victory was within their grasp. But they had reckoned without the bravery and military aptitude of Saladin. The young leader feigned to give way before the allied army and then when they had broken their lines in eager pursuit he rallied his forces and fell upon them with such courage and vigour that the tables were soon completely turned. The campaign resulted in a truce by the terms of which it was agreed that the rival forces should return to their respective homes. This arrangement gave umbrage to the Crusaders, as it not only reflected upon their military prowess, but defeated the hopes they entertained of gaining a permanent foothold in Egypt. They acquiesced in it for the time being, but in the following year they deliberately picked a quarrel with the Caliph by submitting to him a number of unreasonable demands which they were certain he would not grant. When the anticipated refusal came they marched an army across the frontier, took Belbays, and advanced upon Cairo. Shawer, to gain time, beguiled the Franks with advantageous promises and actually paid to them a certain sum of money as part of a tribute or ransom—or blackmail or whatever it may be called—to induce them to leave the country. In the meantime at his invitation an army with Shirkooh at its head crossed the frontier and advanced in the direction of Cairo. On learning of the powerful aid that Shawer was expecting the Crusaders discreetly retired to Belbays, and finally returned to Syria in 1169. But Shawer had only rid himself of one enemy by introducing another. As soon as Shirkooh had fairly established himself in Cairo, he set himself to the task of undermining Shawer's position.



MAMELUKES AND A BEDOUIN ARAB.
(From Walsh's "Journal in Egypt," 1803.)

The intrigue was successful. Shawer was assassinated while visiting the tomb of the Imam e' Shaffall, and Shirkooh ruled in his place. The new reign was a brief one. At the end of two months Shirkooh died, and Saladin succeeded him. The young chief attained to a very troubled heritage. He was beset by enemies from within and without, and his early years of power were passed in continual warfare. His struggle against the Crusaders formed no inconsiderable part of this strife. He defeated them in their attack on Alexandria, and in 1174, invading Syria, he brilliantly crowned a successful campaign by wresting Jerusalem from the Franks. An incident of the prolonged struggle was a Christian raid into Arabia under Renaud de Chatillon. Some vessels were transported in pieces across the Isthmus of Suez and the raiders succeeded in penetrating as far as the very neighbourhood of Medina and Mecca, but without any supports they could not make good their advantages and ultimately the entire band was either killed or captured. The later period of Saladin's reign coincided with the third Crusade led by Frederic I. (Barbarossa), Philippe August, and Richard Cœur de Lion. Its various stirring and romantic episodes belong rather to the history of Syria than of Egypt, and they need not be described here. Enough to say that they gave an imperishable lustre to Saladin's name and brought a glory to his reign which makes it unique in the annals of the Mahomedan rulers of Egypt.

Dying in 1193, Saladin was succeeded by his second son, El Melek el Azeez, who may be considered the second Sultan of the Aisobite or Kurd dynasty. On this prince's death in 1200, Melek Adel, a brother of Saladin, usurped the authority. Melek Adel was conspicuous in the Crusading wars, and such were his qualities as a soldier that tradition says Richard Cœur de Lion, offered him the hand of his sister in marriage, though without obtaining the sanction of the Pope or even consulting the wishes of the lady herself. A great panic which occurred three years after Melek Adel ascended the throne terribly weakened the country and left it a prey to the Franks, who made several successful attacks, pillaging and destroying wherever they went. In the midst of the crisis Melek Adel died, and the duty of repelling the formidable invaders devolved upon his eldest son, Melek el Kamel, who was his successor. Damietta was the chief base of contention between the contending forces. After a protracted siege it fell into the hands of the Franks. The disaster created profound consternation when the news of it reached Cairo. A levy *en masse* was ordered of the inhabitants to resist the invasion, and in order to harass the Franks an attempt was made to divert the course of the Damietta branch of the Nile by constructing a dam across the waterway at Lifteh. These measures had no effect on the situation at Damietta. Soon the Franks, flushed with victory, were marching on Cairo, taking the line of the east bank of the river. On reaching the Menzaleh Canal they found the Sultan posted in a strong position on the other side on the spot now occupied by Mansourah. "Success," says Wilkinson, "had made them negligent of proper precautions, and they were dependent for provisions on the supplies they obtained from the neighbourhood of Damietta. The Sultan availed himself of the opportunity thus offered of cutting off their resources, and the rising Nile aided his designs. A canal ran through the island of Mahalleh and joined the river at some distance northward, between the modern Mansoora and Damietta. Having sent boats in pieces and launched them on this canal, the Sultan succeeded in intercepting the provisions of his enemy, and the rise of the Nile having filled all the canals, their army was left without resources in the midst of an inundated place. They were therefore compelled to retreat, but on reaching Boramoon they found the country entirely covered with water, and having no means of escape they were obliged to capitulate and give hostages for the fulfilment of their promise to abandon Damietta, A.D. 1221. It was to the fortunate termination of this campaign that the city of Mansoora, founded by Melek el Kamel, was indebted for its name, which signifies the 'victorious.'"

By a strange complication of events, the fifth crusade was invited by the same Sultan of Egypt, who had lately suffered so much from the invasion of the Christians. The head of this crusade, Frederic II., made common cause with El Kamel against the latter's brother, Melek Moezzem, Sultan of Damascus, and as a result of the alliance, Jerusalem was restored to the Franks in the year 1238. On El Kamel's death he was succeeded by Melek el Adel II., and this prince in turn, after a brief reign, gave place to Melek Saleh, who is famed in Arab history

as the master of those slaves who established the Baharite dynasty, and in whom originated Mameluke rule in Egypt. The Mamelukes (literally in Arabic, "slaves"), were originally young men who had been purchased by the Arab merchants from the Moguls, who were at that time overrunning the greater part of Asia. As time went on they were divided into two corps. One of these had the care of the river and lived on an island near Cairo, and the other and more numerous band was entrusted with the duty of garrisoning the strongholds. Intended primarily as a purely servile defensive force, they gradually developed into a powerful body which drew to itself all the authority in the country. It seems probable that Melek Saleh fashioned this extraordinary means of defence from fear of further Christian aggression. Certain it is that his reign coincided with a remarkable development of activity on the part of the Crusaders. Landing near Damietta, the Crusaders, composing the sixth crusade, under Louis IX., captured that place and advanced to Mansourah, which by this time had become an important and populous place. Meanwhile, the Sultan died, and was succeeded by his son, Tarrawan or Touran Shah. The change of rulers did not discompose the plan for the defeat of the invaders. Adopting the identical strategy which had been resorted to previously, the Egyptians cut off the supplies of the Frank force, and so reduced them to grave extremities. In the circumstances the Crusaders proposed a negotiation, but all terms were refused, and they were compelled to beat a hurried retreat. The Sultan's forces conducted an energetic pursuit, with the result that very few of the invading army escaped. Louis IX. himself was taken prisoner and carried in triumph to Mansourah. After remaining in captivity for several years the unfortunate king was ransomed for 400,000 pieces of gold and returned to France *viâ* Acre.

CHAPTER VIII.

Rise of the Mamelukes—The Turks invade Egypt—They establish their Power—The Rise of the Authority of the Beys—The Organisation of the Mamelukes—British develop Trade in Egypt—Cairo becomes an Important Trade Centre.

THE memorable successes achieved on this occasion by the Egyptian sultans do not appear to have added to their strength, for the period immediately following the victory over Louis IX. was one of marked decay in their dynasty. There were intrigues and conspiracies culminating ultimately in the assassination of Tarrawan Shah. The power of the dead sultan was usurped by the factious Mamelukes, and by them in the first instance vested in Sheger-el-Dur, the beautiful widow of E'Saleh. There was dissatisfaction in many quarters at the supreme power being allowed to remain in the hands of a woman, and at the end of four years Sheger-el-Dur abdicated. After this came a succession of rulers who have left little behind them but their names, and an evil reputation for violence. Only two deserve to be singled out from the common herd. The first is Baybers or Eu'Zaher Baybers el Bendukdaree, a Mameluke of E'Saleh who signalised his reign by a series of brilliant campaigns against the Christians in Syria, and who died in that country in 1277 on returning from one of his raids. The other member of this Mameluke dynasty who should be mentioned is El Munsoor Kalaoon. This prince followed up the triumphs of his predecessor in Syria, and added new laurels to the fame of the line by recovering Damascus from the Christians, and eventually in 1290, after a siege, wresting Acre from them also. El Kalaoon died soon after accomplishing the latter feat, and therefore did not live to see the full fruition of his and his predecessor's victories—the abandonment of Syria by the Christians. But his memory was preserved by his grateful co-religionists, and even to this day his name is honoured in Cairo.

When the Baharite Mameluke dynasty ended it gave place to another dynasty, which is known to history as the Circassian or Borgite Mameluke dynasty. It was founded on the same peculiar principles by which the supreme power was vested in the sons of slaves. "A more unjust and absurd constitution," remarks Gibbon, "cannot be devised than that which condemns the natives of a country to perpetual servitude under the arbitrary dominion of strangers and slaves! Yet such has been the state of Egypt about 500 years. The most illustrious sultans of the Baharite and Borgite dynasties were themselves promoted from the Tartar and Circassian bands, and the four and twenty beys or military chiefs have ever been succeeded, not by their sons, but by their servants."



MINARETTE OF THE MOSQUE "EL RHAMREE."
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

While the Mamelukes were building up their power in Egypt, the Osmanlis were carving out for themselves a great position in Asia Minor and the east of Europe. Their chiefs were for a time too much occupied with their aggressive wars in those directions to pay much heed to Egyptian affairs, but as the years went by the Ottoman sultans established at Constantinople cast jealous eyes in the direction of Cairo, where a powerful organisation existed which was inimical alike to the secular and the religious claims of the sultanate. The simmering feud broke out into open flame in the early part of the sixteenth century. El Ghoree, the ruler of that period, made an unsuccessful attack on Syria, and so afforded a pretext for intervention that had been long contemplated. Sultan Selim took the field and the two armies met near Aleppo. The battle resulted disastrously for the Egyptians. The Mameluke troops stampeded from the field, and in their wild flight unhorsed El Ghoree and trampled him to death. After this success Sultan Selim advanced rapidly towards Egypt. On hearing, in the course of his advance that El Ashraf Toman Bey had been elected sultan in El Ghoree's place, he sent him an insulting letter informing him that if he wished to merit the royal clemency he must come in person "to swear fidelity and do homage at our feet, cause our name to be admitted into the prayer of the mosque, and strike money in our name." Failing compliance with these demands, the new sultan was informed that Selim's arm would strike. Toman Bey made a gallant effort to defeat the invader, but the Turkish forces were too numerous and well organised to be overcome by the fiery zeal of the Mamelukes, and Toman's forces were scattered, and he himself was soon a prisoner in Selim's hands. The conqueror behaved with characteristic ferocity. He caused the unfortunate Toman to be hanged like a common malefactor, and he ordered a wholesale slaughter of his followers. It is said that no fewer than thirty thousand victims fell before the monster's appetite for blood was sated. Sultan Selim, after a campaign in upper Egypt returned to Constantinople. He abolished the Mameluke monarchy, but left their aristocratic organisation untouched on certain conditions, the chief of which were the payment of annual tribute, obedience in matters of faith to the decisions of the mufti of Constantinople, and the insertion of the name of the Sultan of the Osmanlis in the public prayers and on the coin. The government was vested in a viceroy with the title of pasha, who was to govern the country in the name of the Sultan, and whose appointment was to be subject to his pleasure. Acting with him was to be a divan, composed of twenty-four beys, each of whom governed one

of the *sanjaks* or provinces into which the whole of Egypt was divided, the principal bey having the post of Sheikh-el-Beled, or governor of Cairo. Soliman, the legislator, Selim's successor, who raised the Turkish Empire to its highest splendour, gave considerable attention to the position of Turkey in relation to Egypt. "He found it in the first place necessary to establish a counterpoise to the power and influence of the Mamelukes, to effect which he established the corps of odjacklis or militia, composed of natives of Egypt, and into which a Mameluke was on no account to be admitted. To those corps he gave great powers, to the Mamelukes he left nothing but honorary titles, a little military authority, and a few villages for their different officers. He established a pacha as his representative who was the head of the government, and who had the nomination of the different officers of state. The Pacha of Egypt was often the road to the great office of the vizirate, and was sometimes an honourable retreat for a disgraced vizier. He could be formally deposed by the corps of militia in the divan, and made to settle his accounts before he left the country. The reasons for his being so were transmitted to Constantinople, where he was always replaced, and, indeed, it rarely happened that a pacha died in his situation, as they were so frequently changed.

"The divan, which assembled twice a week to deliberate on all the affairs of state, was composed of twenty-four beys, the principal officers of the militia, and the great lawyers. The pacha was the president of this assembly. The tribute paid to the Porte was twelve hundred purses of piastres (about £50,000), besides a quantity of rice, corn, &c.

. . . . . .

"This wise constitution lasted until the middle of the present century, when a variety of causes conspired to overturn it. The beys were then beginning to take the lead in all affairs, and the pachas were merely ciphers, scarcely possessing the shadow of their ancient authority. About the year 1748 a pacha of a more determined cast was appointed, who, finding it impossible to assert his superiority without striking some great blow, took a resolution to destroy the beys at once by assassination. Accordingly as they were coming to take their places at the divan, seventeen of them were murdered; the rest escaped. Such a daring act of barbarity had not the desired effect, for the indignation of all classes against the pacha ran so high that he was obliged to quit his situation and save his life by escaping to Constantinople.

"At that time Ibrahim Caya, a determined and ambitious man of the Mameluke race, had got by intrigue into the corps of militia in which he held a very high situation. He aspired to be elected Sheik el Belled, or chief of the Mamelukes, and to restore them to their original ascendency, and played his cards so well that in a few years he had insinuated all the Mamelukes of his party into the militia, which gave him such an ascendency that he easily left the remainder quiet. Had he lived he would in all probability have succeeded in making himself Sultan of Egypt, independent of the Porte, but he was poisoned by an emissary of the Court of Constantinople, who hoped by destroying this aspiring chief to regain their authority which was so completely shaken.

"Ali Bey the great, a man of more talents, with equal ambition and intrepidity, succeeded Ibrahim. He was the first Mameluke who openly declared the bold design of freeing Egypt for ever from the nominal authority of the Court of Constantinople. Throwing off the mask entirely, he assumed perfect independence; but what he gained by force he lost by treachery. Ismael Bey and Mahomed Bey conspired against him and drove him into Syria, where he took refuge with the celebrated Daher, who had rendered himself master of Syria, and laughed at all the feeble efforts of the Porte to reduce him. Ali Bey having received some small assistance from the Russians and from Daher, crossed the desert to meet his opponents. A battle was fought near Salahieh, in which Ali was wounded by one of his own party supposed to be Mourad Bey, and was in consequence taken prisoner. He was treated with great respect and taken to Cairo, where he died a few days afterwards."*

Mourad Bey, as chief of the faction of Ali, adopted a vigorous initiative on the latter's death and succeeded in driving Ismael Bey and Mahomed Bey from Cairo. But his triumph was only of brief duration. The two rival Beys returned to the capital at the head of a large force, and effecting a lodgment there, re-established their authority, which they retained until they both died natural deaths. At the death of Ismael, Ibrahim agreed to share his power with Mourad, and the latter, stepping into the breach, quickly secured for himself all the real authority. Upon him fell the duty of dealing with the Napoleonic invasion, for as soon as the French army arrived in Egypt Ibrahim Bey fled to Syria with a few Mamelukes who had associated themselves with him.

Before dealing with the stirring events in Egypt which marked the close of the eighteenth century, it may be desirable to pause for a moment to survey the position of affairs which then existed. The tie of Turkish sovereignty still operated, but the bond was merely a nominal one. The pashas were little better than figure-heads. Such powers as they possessed were confined to recovering and transmitting the *miri* or tribute to the grand seignior whenever the beys thought proper to pay it. This was very seldom, for the lavish expenditure of those chiefs left small scope for the exercise of the luxury of a costly loyalty. It was useless for the pashas to protest when the tribute was withheld. The beys were a law unto themselves, and the Turkish representatives



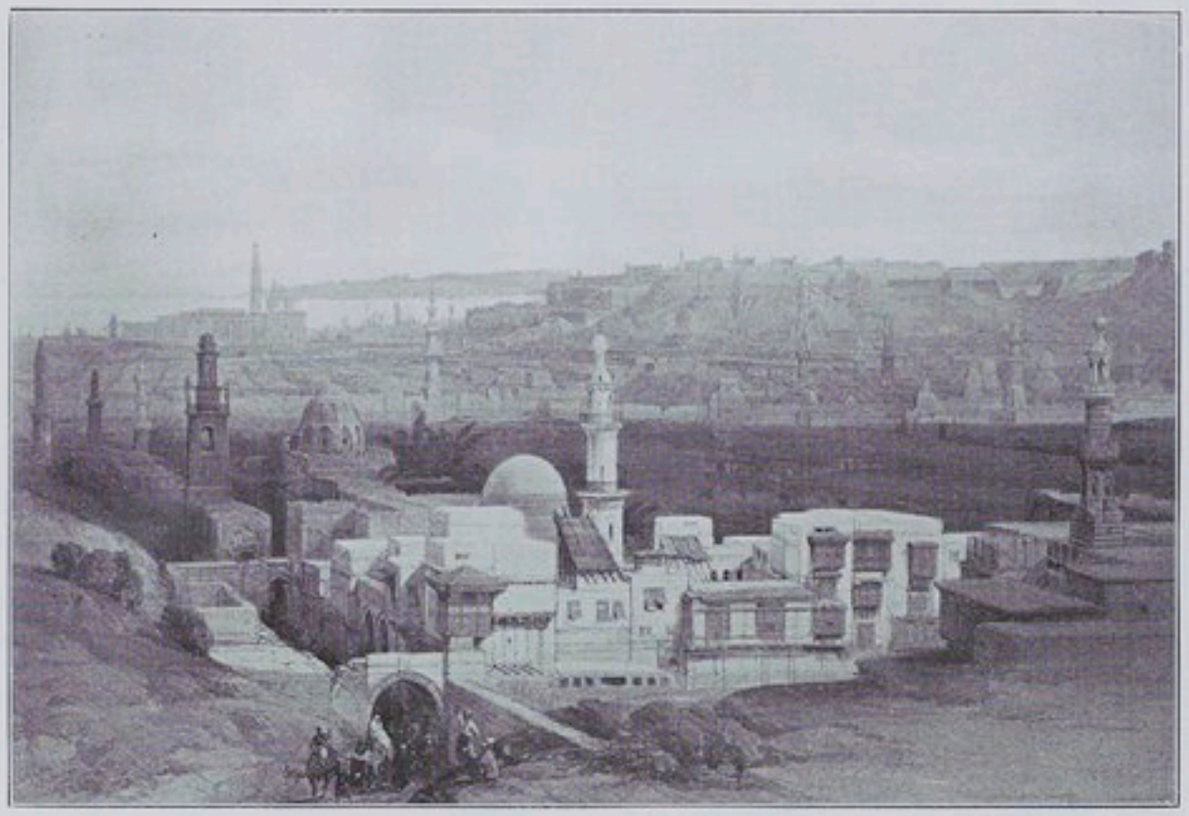
AN EFFENDI OF CAIRO.
(From "The Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants of Egypt," 1749.)

AN EGYPTIAN BEY.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

PASHA OF CAIRO.
(From "The Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants of Egypt," 1749.)

* Walsh's "Journal in Egypt."

knew that nothing short of a military occupation would ensure attention to their demands, and in the then state of the Turkish Empire there was litt'e prospect of raising an Ottoman force sufficiently powerful to overcome the compact Mameluke organisation, centred at Cairo. This strange system of military government had in the course of time become so firmly rooted in the life of the nation that it dominated the country. A bey's authority was measured by the number of Mamelukes he had under his control. The men were recruited on the same strange principle which governed their order in the earliest period. "To be a mameluke," says Walsh in his journal, "it was indispensably necessary to have been a slave, and even the child of a mameluke could not hold any appointment among them. The beys, kiachefs, and other officers among the mamelukes purchased these slaves from merchants who brought them to Egypt. They were of all nations and countries, some Germans and Russians, but chiefly Georgians, Circassians, and from the other parts of Mount Caucasus. After having served their masters with fidelity they were made free, and then had the right of buying slaves." In another place the same writer descants with a soldier's admiration upon the fine military qualities of the mamelukes. "Nothing," he says, "can equal the grand and splendid appearance of this cavalry. Their horses are well made, strong, sleek and plump, very sure footed and stately in their attitudes, and having altogether the most beautiful appearance. The magnificence of the trappings with which they are covered is amazing, and the saddles and housings glitter with gold and silver, almost dazzling the eyes of the astonished spectator. Indeed a mameluke may be said to carry all his wealth about him. . . . The mamelukes taken as light troops, or as individual horsemen are equal and perhaps superior to any in the world." In the latter days of the eighteenth century the interest of the situation at Cairo was by no means exclusively of a military character. The indefatigable efforts of the British to open up a trade with India by way of the Red Sea were, for a time, so successful that the Egyptian capital rapidly developed into a most important trade centre. The transactions carried through were enormously lucrative—so much so, indeed, that it became a common saying that "paras were unknown in Egypt," the suggestion being that these coins were too insignificant to be handled by the wealthy traders of the period. This wave of commercial prosperity, however, was short-lived. Before the century had expired Egypt lay crushed under the heel of a conqueror, her fields wasted and desolate, and her capital plundered.



CAIRO FROM THE GATE OF CITZENIB.
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

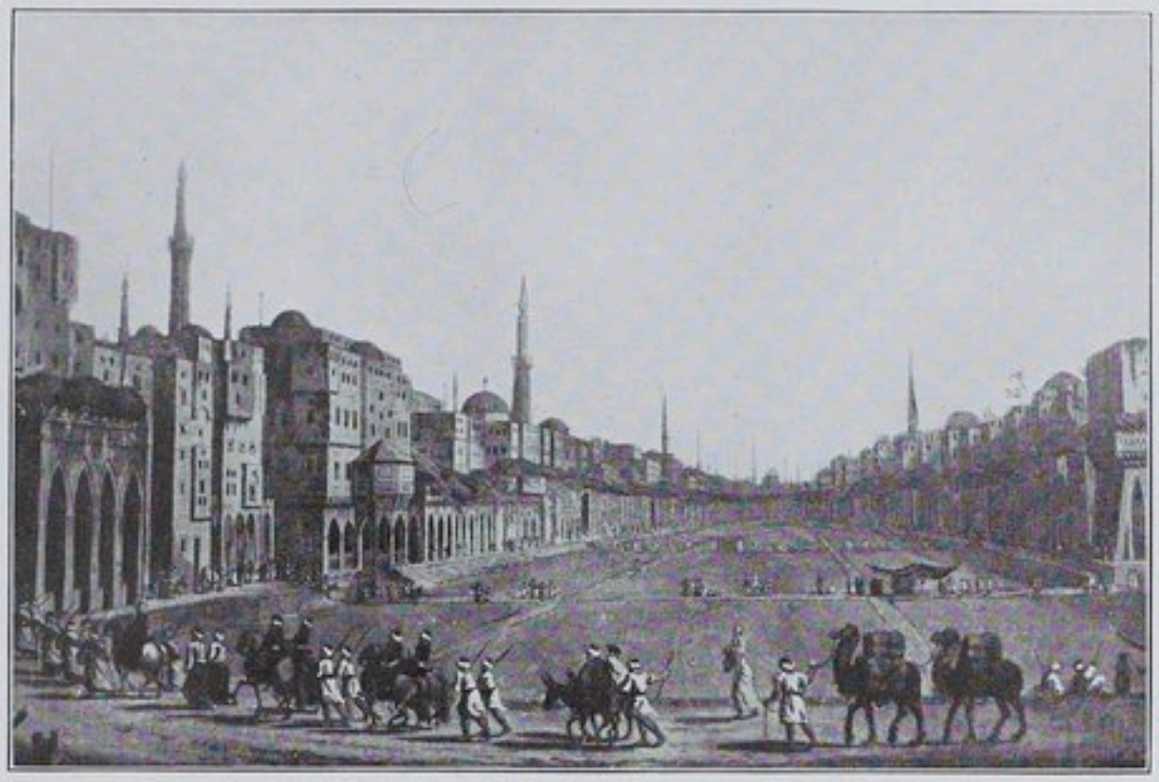
CHAPTER IX.

The French turn their Attention to Egypt—French Mission to the Beys—Buonaparte prepares to invade Egypt with a French Army—Composition of the Expedition—Capture of Malta—The Expeditionary Force lands at Marabout Beizes, Alexandria—Proclamation to the Egyptians—Buonaparte advances on Cairo—Battle of the Pyramids—Occupation of the City—Buonaparte isolated.

It was no doubt the struggle in India between the British and the French that first directed the attention of the revolutionary leaders in France to the strategic importance of Egypt. They had learned in the rough school of experience the dangers of the Cape route, and realised that if they could bring the delta under French authority they would possess a position of supreme value. On the British side in some quarters at least, the military importance of a control of Egypt was not less clearly recognised. We find, for example, Mr. George Baldwin, who was an Anglo-Indian merchant thoroughly acquainted with Arabia and Egypt, and who subsequently became the first British Consul in Egypt, thus writing on the subject in 1785: "France in possession of Egypt would possess the master key to all the trading nations of the earth. Enlightened as the times are, in the general arts of navigation and commerce, she might make it the emporium of the world; she might make it the *awe* of the Eastern world by the facility she would command of transporting her forces thither, by surprise, in any number and at any time, and England would hold her possessions in India at the mercy of France." Baldwin's remarks seem to have been occasioned by the despatch in 1785 of a French mission under Commandant de Truguet to the beys of Egypt. This was a striking new departure in French policy well calculated to excite the susceptibilities of so pugnacious a Britisher as Baldwin, who doubtless considered that the trade to India which he was engaged in developing was a preserve upon which there should be no poachers. However, that may be, the Frenchmen were received in very friendly fashion by the beys who entered into a treaty which gave to France some rather valuable privileges. On his return to France the French envoy painted such a glowing picture of the country and so strongly emphasised its value in a military sense, that the design was formed to despatch an expedition to conquer the country. Important events on the Continent prevented the carrying of the plan into execution for twelve years, and it seems doubtful whether the project even then would have been set afoot but for the strong desire that had grown up to strike a blow at the British power in a vital quarter.

The command of the expedition was entrusted to Buonaparte whose great military qualities displayed on the Continent of Europe peculiarly fitted him to discharge this important task. There was placed at his disposal for the work a force of nearly forty thousand men, composed of the flower of the Republican Army—troops whose valour had been proved on many a hard fought field. Toulon was selected as the place of embarkation of the principal division, and the other divisions were assigned to Ajaccio, Genoa, and Civita-Vecchia. Buonaparte repaired to Toulon early in May, 1798, and visited the squadron which was gaily decorated with flags for his reception. Unfavourable conditions of weather detained the force for some time and it was not until May 20th that the fifteen war vessels and the two hundred transports composing the squadron left the harbour. Prior to the departure Buonaparte from on board the Admiral's flagship, *L'Orient*, addressed a stirring proclamation to the united forces. "Soldiers," said the General, "You are one of the wings of the army of France. You have made war on mountains, on plains, and in sieges; it remains

for you to make war by sea. The Roman legions, which you have sometimes imitated, but not yet equalled, combated Carthage by



PRINCIPAL SQUARE IN GRAND CAIRO.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

turns on this same sea, and on the plains of Zama. Victory never forsook them, because they were always brave, patient under fatigue, disciplined, and united among themselves. Soldiers! Europe has its eyes upon you: you have great destinies to fulfil, battles to give, dangers, fatigues, to vanquish; you have to do more than you have ever yet done for the prosperity of your country, the welfare of mankind, and your own glory. Soldiers, sailors, infantry, artillery, cavalry, be one! remember that in the day of battle, you will have need of each other. Soldiers! sailors! you have hitherto been neglected; now, the greatest anxiety of the republic is on your account: you will be worthy of the army of which you make a part. The genius of liberty, which, from her birth, has rendered the republic the arbiter of Europe, wills that she shall be the same of the most distant seas and nations."

In addition to the militant forces the expedition had in its ranks a great body of civilians drawn from every leading walk of life. Amongst others there were geometricians, astronomers, chemists, mineralogists, botanists, zoologists, architects, engineers, surgeons, printers, and mechanicians, as well as a number of artists and men of letters. These experts were taken out by Buonaparte in pursuance of a fixed design that he possessed to colonise as well as conquer Egypt. The classical associations of the country cast their glamour over him and it was his ambition to wrest from the colossal tombs of the Pharaohs their secrets to develop the beneficent activities of the Nile, and to revive in a French guise and under French direction the country's ancient glories. It was a magnificent conception which was not destined to be realised; but Buonaparte's scientists have handed down not altogether inglorious records as a result of their experiences while following his military footsteps.

The Toulon squadron reached Malta on June 9th after an uneventful voyage. The island was then under the domination of the Knights, and as their conduct had been equivocal Buonaparte decided to put their friendliness to the test by sending his aide-de-camp ashore to ask for watering facilities. The reply from the Grand Master was that he could only permit two vessels to take water at a time. As there were by this time between five and six hundred sail in the squadron and a day would be occupied in supplying two vessels, the answer amounted to a practical refusal of the request. Buonaparte was not ill-pleased with this response to his demands since it gave him the excuse he needed for occupying the island. This operation he carried out without loss of time after a letter had been sent to the Grand Master through the French Consul expressing indignation at his unfriendly conduct and intimating that the inhabitants had no hope but in the generosity of the French Commander. A landing was effected without much difficulty, but the Maltese retiring to Valetta maintained from thence a somewhat obstinate resistance. Eventually they were induced to enter into negotiations for the surrender of the island. The outcome was a convention handing over to the Republic the rights of sovereignty in the islands of Malta, Gozo and Cumino, while securing to the Knights their private property and to the people the free practice of their religion. Buonaparte supplemented the convention with a letter to the Bishop of Malta in which he commended the pacific conduct of the priests, and assured the prelates that not only would the Catholic Apostolic and Roman religion be respected, but that its ministers would be specially protected. The General went on to say that he knew no character more worthy or deserving of the veneration of mankind

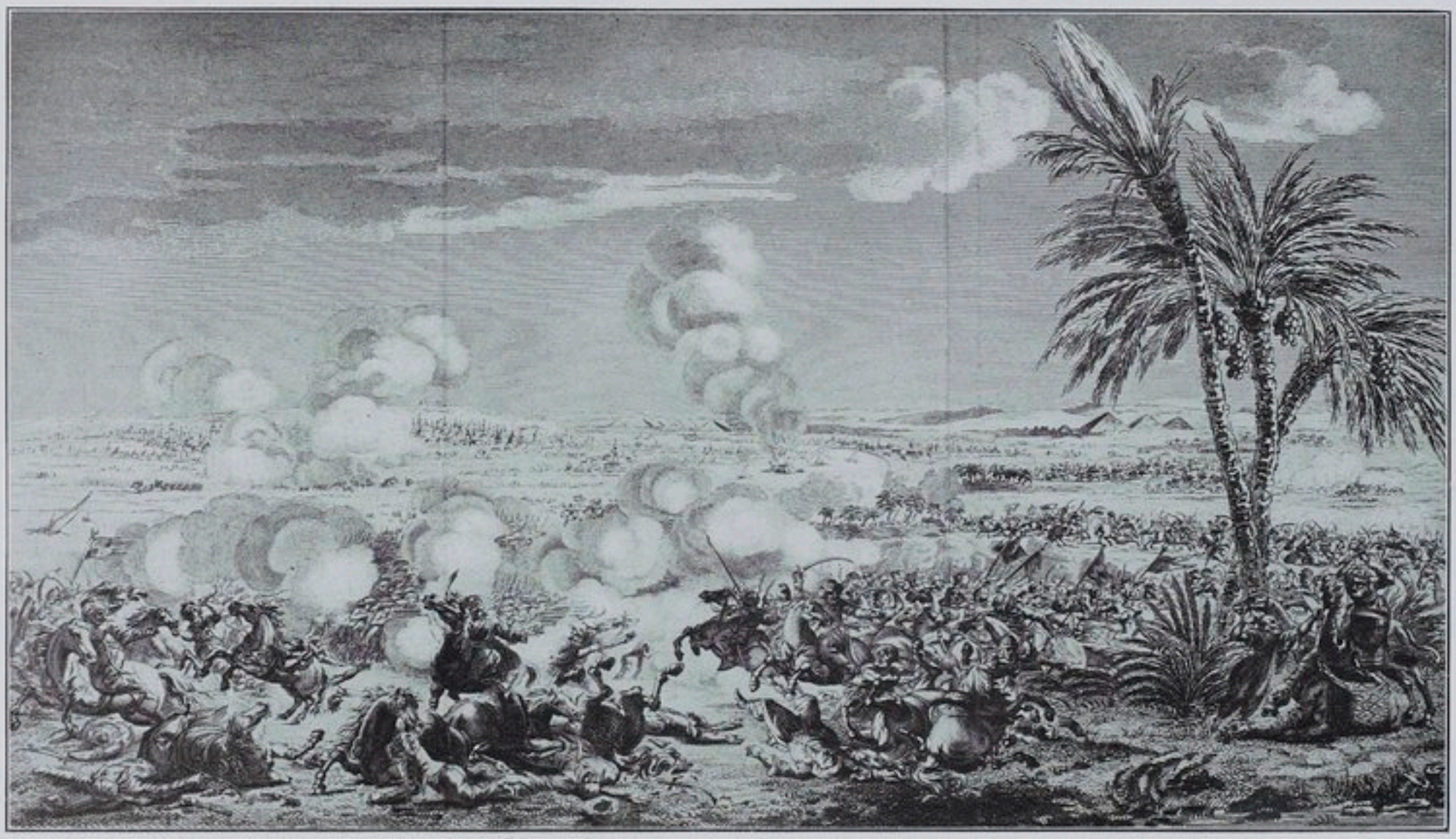


NAPOLEON BUONAPARTE.
(Engraved by Bartolozzi, 1802.)

than that of a priest, "who full of the spirit of the evangelist feels that his duty commands him to preach obedience to the temporal power and to maintain peace, tranquility and union in the midst of a diocese." He wound up his diplomatic letter by inviting him to come immediately to the city of Malta, there by his influence to preserve good order and tranquility among the people. The Bishop in his reply assured Buonaparte of his disposition to act in accordance with the pacific principles enunciated in the General's letter, and having expressed his pleasure at the fact that the occupation had taken place without any effusion of blood, intimated that he had ordered a solemn *Te Deum* to be sung that day to render thanks to Almighty God for the happy circumstance.

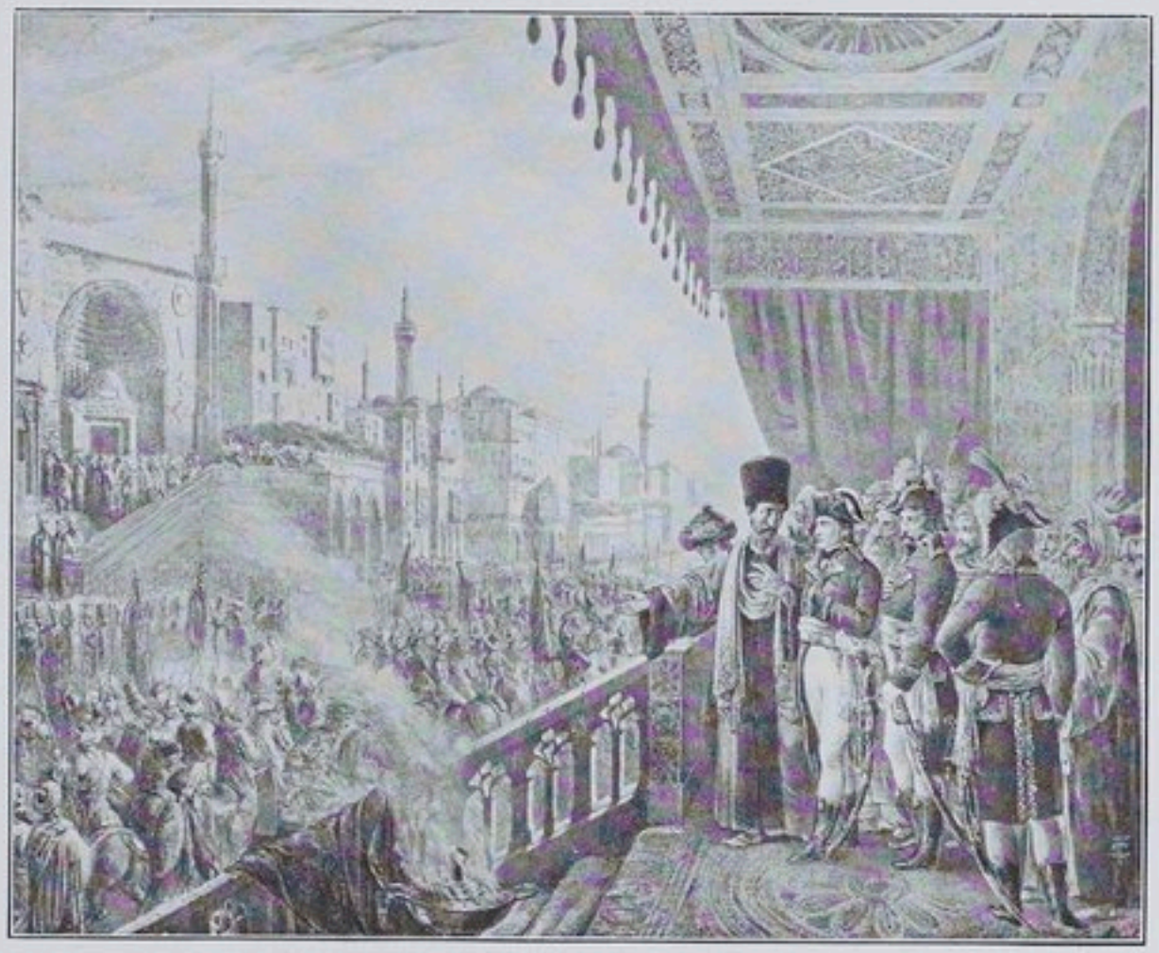
The peaceful possession of the island being thus assured, Buonaparte turned his attention to its future government. After he had been in the island five days he promulgated a constitution vesting the administration in nine commissioners under the control of the military commander; each commissioner in his turn, it was provided, should hold the office of president for six months. One of the articles of the constitution decreed the abolition of slavery, and Buonaparte embarked on board his boats all the Turkish slaves in the island with the intention of exchanging them for French and Maltese who might be held in bondage in Turkey or Egypt. Before sailing Buonaparte issued a series of regulations enforcing the strictest discipline on the troops under penalty of death. He followed this up by a proclamation in which, having stated the object of the expedition to be "to promote the general interests of civilisation and commerce and humble the naval power of England; he told the troops that they were going to live with Mahomedans, the first article of whose religious creed was that 'there is no God but God, and Mahomed is his prophet.'" "Do not contradict them," said the General. "Conduct yourselves towards them as you have done towards the Jews and the Italians. Show respect to their muftis and imams, and the ceremonies prescribed by the Koran, as you have shown to the rabbis and the bishops. Cherish the same spirit of toleration for the monks that you have entertained for the religion of Moses and of Jesus Christ; the Roman legions protected all religions. You will find here usages different from those of Europe. You will reconcile yourselves to them by custom. The people of the land into which we are about to enter differ from us in their mode of treatment of women; but in every country he who offers violence to the women is a monster." Buonaparte went on to warn the troops against giving way to a spirit of plunder. In conclusion he reminded them that the city they were going to attack was built by Alexander and that grand memories, fit to excite the emulation of Frenchmen, would be recalled at every step.

After a voyage of twelve days the French fleet arrived off Alexandria on June 13th. Nothing was seen on the way of the British fleet under Nelson which was known to be cruising in the eastern part of the Mediterranean. A heavy sea was running at the time that the French ships dropped anchor, and in ordinary circumstances the disembarkation would have been postponed. But the proximity of the British and the possibility of their appearance hastened matters. With all possible expedition the troops were landed near Marabout and by eleven o'clock at night the operation had been completed. Daybreak disclosed a body of Mamelukes and Arabs in the immediate front. Their opposition was brushed aside and the army was soon within striking distance of Alexandria. Animated by a desire to spare the city the horrors of an assault, Buonaparte sought to parley with the inhabitants, but his overtures were received in such a hostile spirit that he was compelled to open fire. The defences of the city were contemptible and the garrison was entirely unsuited to meeting the crisis which had been suddenly precipitated. Buonaparte, therefore, had little difficulty in making himself master of the city. Not later than the evening of the day of the assault he received the submission of the local Mahomedan authorities. The occasion was marked by the issue of another of those high sounding proclamations which the remarkable man appeared to take such delight in. "Too long," he said in his impassioned periods, "have the beys who govern Egypt insulted the French nation, and loaded her merchants with vexations; the hour of their chastisement is arrived. Too long has the horde of slaves, purchased from Caucausus and Georgia, tyrannised over the fairest part of the world; but God, upon whom everything depends, has ordered its empire to end. People of Egypt! You will be told that I come to destroy your religion; believe it not. Reply that I come to restore your rights and punish the usurpers and that I venerate more than the Mamelukes, God, his Prophet, and the Koran. Tell these that all men are equal before God; wisdom, talents, virtues, make all the difference between them. Now what wisdom, what talents, what virtues distinguish the Mamelukes, that they exclusively should possess all that is lovely and sweet in life? Is there a beautiful estate? it belongs to the Mamelukes. Is there a beautiful slave, a beautiful horse, a beautiful house? they belong to the Mamelukes. If Egypt is their farm let them show the lease that



THE BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.

God has granted. But God is just and bountiful to all mankind; all the Egyptians are called to fill all posts; let the most wise, the most informed, the most virtuous govern, and the people will be happy. There were formerly among you great cities, great canals, great commerce; by what has all this been destroyed, if not by the avarice, the injustice, and the tyranny of the Mamelukes! Cadis! Shiekhs! Imams! Tshorbadjies! tell the people that we are the friends of true Moslems. Is it not we who have destroyed the Pope, who said that war must be made on Moslems? Is it not we that destroyed the Knights of Malta because the madmen believed that God willed them to make war on Moslems. Is it not we that have long been the friends of the Grand Seignior (whose designs may God accomplish) and the enemies of his enemies? Are not the Mamelukes on the other hand in continual rebellion against the Grand Seignior, whom



BUONAPARTE WITNESSING THE FÊTE OF MAHOMED AT CAIRO.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

they still refuse to acknowledge. They execute only their own schemes. Thrice happy those that are for us! they shall prosper in their rank and fortune. Happy those that are neuter! they will have time to become acquainted with us, and they will come to our side. But wretched, thrice wretched, those that shall arm for the Mamelukes and fight against us! There shall be no hope for these, they shall perish!"

Leaving General Menou with a strong force behind to garrison Alexandria, Buonaparte advanced into the desert on July 6th. The sufferings of the troops from the heat and glare were great and it was with profound relief that on the third day the force struck the Nile at Ramanieh. Casting their arms and clothes aside the soldiers rushed towards the water, but they had barely time to slake their burning thirst before the drums sounded for action on the approach of a body of Mamelukes in battle array. The threatened attack, however, was never delivered and the wearied French troops were left in peace during that and the following day. Meanwhile a French flotilla had entered the Nile and with difficulty ascended the river. It rendered valuable aid when, on July 12th, Buonaparte having resumed his march came in conflict with a force of four thousand Mamelukes posted in a strong position at a village near Miniet-Salameh. The flotilla was attacked by boats sent forward by the Mamelukes, but after an obstinate contest the French carried the day. Buonaparte hearing the firing pressed forward upon the Mameluke front. The Mamelukes made some half-hearted charges upon the wings of the attacking force, seeking according to their manner of fighting, a weak point on which they might make an impression. But they were easily repulsed and the entire force was soon in full retreat, not, however, before six hundred of its number had been placed *hors de combat*.

After this engagement the march of the French was not opposed until they reached the vicinity of Cairo. But their rear was continually harassed by Arabs who intercepted supplies and cut off stragglers, manifesting a vigour and resource which greatly increased the respect of the invaders for these sons of the desert. On coming in sight of the Pyramids Buonaparte found a powerful Mameluke force drawn up prepared to give him battle. Over six thousand of the famous horsemen filled the ranks and there were besides a multitude of Arabs and peasants armed with all sorts of weapons. The centre of their position was the village of Embabeh, which had been heavily fortified. The ground had been on the whole well chosen, and against other than a disciplined European force the Beys might have regarded the coming contest with equanimity. But Buonaparte found the spectacle a brilliant and inspiring one. As the sun glittered on the immense masses of the Pyramids they seemed, says Alison, "to rise in height with every step the soldiers advanced, and the army, sharing his enthusiasm, gazed as they marched on the everlasting monuments. 'Remember,' said Buonaparte, 'that from the summit of those Pyramids forty centuries contemplate your actions.'" In his dispositions the great leader took extraordinary precautions to ensure success against the formidable cavalry of the desert. The divisions were all drawn up as before, in hollow square six deep, the artillery at the angles, the generals and baggage in the centre. When they were on march the two sides advanced in column—those in front and rear moved forward in their ranks; but the moment they were charged the whole were to halt and face outwards on every side. When they were themselves to charge the three front ranks were to break off and form the column of attack, those in rear remaining behind, still in square but three deep only, to constitute the reserve. As soon as the French force had advanced into the plain a division of the Mamelukes charged with the rapidity of lightning. A splendid bravery was shown by these inimitable horsemen as they dashed fearlessly upon the serried ranks of the French; but it was from the first a hopeless task that they essayed. The solid masses of steel cast back in disorder the gallant Mameluke banks. Seizing the opportunity presented by the discomfiture of the horsemen, Buonaparte ordered the advance. The troops, responding eagerly to the summons, pressed on to the attack. There was a short sharp fight in which prodigies of valour were performed by the Mamelukes, but the superior discipline and armament of the forces under Buonaparte told in the long run, as it was bound to do, and in a brief space the position was won. Forty pieces of cannon, eighty camels, and the baggage of the enemy fell into the hands of the French. They on their part had suffered little, the casualties on the occasion only numbering ten killed and thirty wounded. On the day following the battle the authorities of Cairo, accompanied by the representative of the Sultan of Turkey, appeared in the French camp to tender their submission. Buonaparte received the deputation in friendly fashion and sent them back to the city with an assurance of his intention to scrupulously respect the manners and customs and religion of the country. Meanwhile Murad Bey, who had led the Mameluke forces in the opposition to the French, was in full flight with a few followers to Upper Egypt. Ibrahim Bey, the official head of the civil department of the government, had also retreated to the desert in the direction of Suez. In the absence of these high dignitaries and amid the general confusion caused by the Mameluke route the disorderly elements of the Cairene population commenced to pillage the city. Buonaparte's appearance on the scene on July 23rd, however, soon put a different complexion on affairs. He established a military occupation of the city, and set himself to devise a provisional government to replace that of the Beys. His inclination was to rest for a time on the laurels he had won, as his forces were badly in need of repose. But the movements of Ibrahim Bey and the evident disposition he manifested to renew the struggle compelled Buonaparte, on August 1st, to despatch Brigadier-General Leclerc with a small mobile force in pursuit of him. The enemy were encountered almost immediately after Cairo had been left behind, and though Ibrahim was defeated, the French leader deemed it advisable to proceed in person at the head of a more formidable force to completely crush him. Buonaparte came up with Ibrahim at Salehieh, and immediately engaged him. Ibrahim's followers included a large body of Mamelukes who had just come

off the pilgrimage to Mecca and who had consequently not hitherto tasted the quality of the French troops. These men fought with desperate courage and inflicted a very severe punishment upon the French cavalry who had had the temerity to pursue them. But as before personal valour and consummate horsemanship availed nothing against the trained intelligence of the skilfully directed French legions, and the close of the day saw Ibrahim's guns, baggage, and camels in Buonaparte's hands and the Bey himself in hurried flight for Syria. When the victory was complete Buonaparte returned to Cairo. He went back to face a situation which called for the exercise of the highest military qualities that he possessed. A few days previously the entire French fleet had been destroyed in Aboukir Bay by Nelson and by that blow his communications with France had been cut off. The influence of sea power was not then so widely understood as it is at the present time, but Buonaparte's shrewd judgment and quick intuition can hardly have failed to make it clear to him at this juncture that his position was one of extreme difficulty and even of grave peril.

CHAPTER X.

The Battle of the Nile—The Effects of the Battle—Buonaparte's Campaign in Syria—The Siege of Acre—Heroic Defence by Sir Sidney Smith—Buonaparte evacuates Syria and later quits Egypt—Kleber assumes Command of the French Forces—He negotiates with Sir Sidney Smith for the Withdrawal of the French Army—Negotiations broken off—Re-occupation of Cairo by the French—Assassination of Kleber.

NELSON'S famous cruise, which culminated in the Battle of the Nile, is a familiar part of British naval history. The great admiral followed up his prey with all the bull-dog determination of his nature. His ships were at Alexandria two days before the French fleet anchored in Aboukir Bay, and after leaving that port on the night of June 22nd, the British fleet actually crossed the track of the enemy without discovering its whereabouts. During the night those on the French ships heard the discharge of cannon on their right. It was the signal which Nelson gave to the ships of his squadron as they were steering a course northwards from the coast of Egypt. More than a month passed before Nelson obtained definite information of the enemy. Then while in the Morea he learned that the French had been seen several weeks previously steering a course S.E. from Candia. He immediately came to the conclusion that the destination was Egypt, and resolved to return forthwith to Alexandria. After a favourable voyage the fleet arrived a second time off Alexandria on the morning of August 1st. To his intense satisfaction Nelson saw that his prey had not escaped. In Aboukir Bay moored in long lines was the French fleet, consisting of thirteen ships of the line and four frigates. The British squadron was composed of the same number of ships of the line and one fifty-gun ship. Altogether the French had 1,196 guns and 11,230 men against 1,012 guns and 8,068 men on the side of the British. The advantage, therefore, was distinctly with the French. But Nelson did not hesitate to engage the enemy. "Before this time to-morrow I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey," he observed as he rose from his last meal prior to the battle. His plan of action was communicated as was his wont to his captains prior to the action. It was a bold and highly ingenious one. Nelson's idea was to keep entirely on the outside of the French line, and station his ships as far as he was able, one on the outer bow and another on the outer quarter of each of the enemy's. One of the captains at the conference, when he comprehended the scope of the scheme, exclaimed, "If we succeed, what will the world say?" "There is no *if* in the case," replied the admiral, "that we shall succeed is certain; who may live to tell the story is a different question."

When the moment for action came the British ships advanced steadily to take up their allotted positions. They were received with a heavy fire from the French ships, but it was not replied to as all the available men on the attacking fleet were engaged in furling sails and attending to the braces preparatory to anchoring. What followed is well described by Southey in his "Life of Nelson":—

"A French brig was instructed to decoy the English, by manœuvring so as to tempt them toward a shoal lying off the island of Bekier; but Nelson either knew the danger, or suspected some deceit; and the lure was unsuccessful.

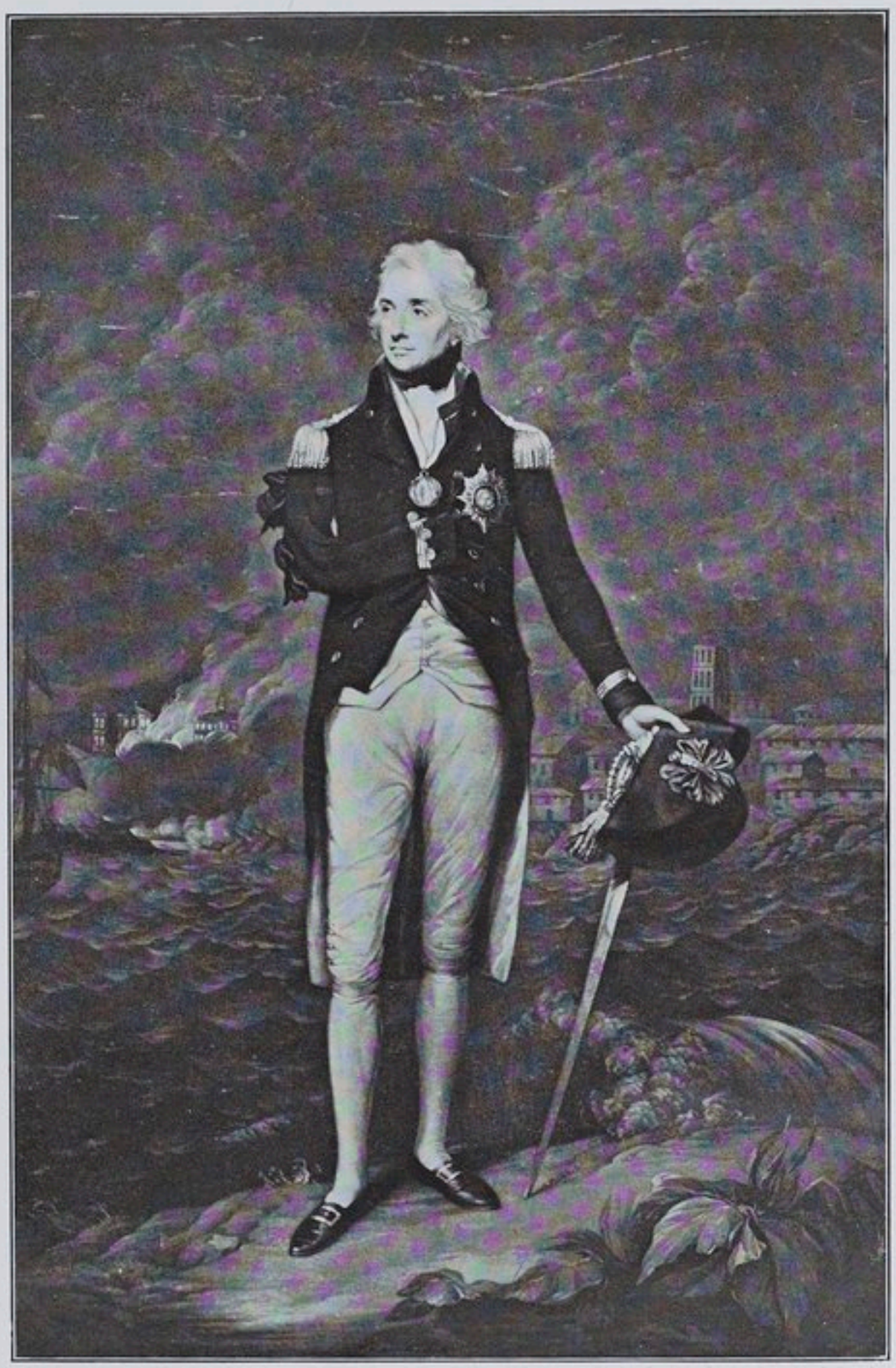
"Captain Foley led the way in the *Goliath*, out-sailing the *Zealous*, which for some minutes disputed this post of honour with him. He had long conceived that if the enemy were moored in line of battle in with the land the best plan of attack would be to lead between them and the shore, because the French guns on that side were not likely to be manned, nor even ready for action. Intending, therefore, to fix himself on the inner bow of the *Guerrier*, he kept as near the edge of the bank as the depth of the water would admit; but his anchor hung, and having opened his fire, he drifted to the second ship, the *Conquerant*, before it was clear; then anchored by the stern, inside of her, and in ten minutes shot away her mast. Hood, in the *Zealous*, perceiving this, took the station which the *Goliath* intended to have occupied, and totally disabled the *Guerrier* in twelve minutes. The third ship which doubled the enemy's van was the *Orion*, Sir J. Saumarez; she passed to windward of the *Zealous*, and opened her larboard guns as long as they bore on the *Guerrier*; then, passing inside the *Goliath*, sunk a frigate which annoyed her, hauled round toward the French line, and anchored inside, between the fifth and sixth ships from the *Guerrier*, took her station on the larboard bow of the *Franklin*, and the quarter of the *Peuple Souverain*, receiving and returning the fire of both. The sun was now nearly down. The *Audacious*, Captain Gould, pouring a heavy fire into the *Guerrier* and the *Conquerant*, fixed herself on the larboard bow of the latter, and when that ship struck,



THE BATTLE OF THE NILE.
(From an engraving by Fittler in the British Museum.)

passed on to the *Peuple Souverain*. The *Theseus*, Captain Miller, followed, brought down the *Guerrier's* remaining main and mizen masts, then anchored inside of the *Spartiate*, the third in the French line.

"While these advanced ships doubled the French line, the *Vanguard* was the first that anchored on the outer side of the enemy,



LORD NELSON.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

within half-pistol-shot of their third ship, the *Spartiate*. Nelson had six colours flying in different parts of his rigging, lest they should be shot away—that they should be struck no British admiral considers as a possibility. He veered half a cable and instantly opened a tremendous fire, under cover of which the other four ships of his division, the *Minotaur*, *Bellerophon*, *Defence*, and *Majestic*, sailed on ahead of the admiral. In a few minutes every man stationed at the first six guns in the forepart of the *Vanguard's* deck was killed or wounded—these guns were three times cleared. Captain Louis, in the *Minotaur*, anchored next ahead, and took off the fire of the *Aquilon*, the fourth in the enemy's line. The *Bellerophon*, Captain Darby, passed ahead and dropped her stern anchor on the starboard bow of the *Orient*, seventh in the line, Brueys' own ship of one hundred and twenty guns, whose difference in force was in proportion of more than seven to three, and whose weight of ball, from the lower deck alone, exceeded that from the whole broadside of the *Bellerophon*. Captain Peyton, in the *Defence*, took his station ahead of the *Minotaur*, and engaged the *Franklin*, the sixth in the line, by which judicious movement the British line remained unbroken.

"The *Majestic*, Captain Westcott, got entangled with the main rigging of one of the French ships astern of the *Orient*, and suffered dreadfully from that three-decker's fire; but she swung clear, and closely engaging the *Heureux*, the ninth ship on the starboard bow, received also the fire of the *Tonnant*, which was the eighth in the line. The other four ships of the British squadron, having been detached previous to the discovery of the French, were at a considerable distance when the action began. It commenced at half after six; about seven night closed, and there was no other light than that of the contending fleets.

"Trowbridge, in the *Culloden*, then foremost of the remaining ships, was two leagues distant. He came on sounding, as the others had done. As he advanced, the increasing darkness increased the difficulty of navigation, and suddenly, after having found eleven fathoms of water, before the lead could be hove again, he was fast aground; nor could all his exertions joined to those of the *Leander* and the *Mutine* brig, which came to his assistance, get him off in time to bear a part in the action. His ship, however, served as a beacon to the *Alexander* and *Swiftsure*, which would else, from the course which they were holding, have gone considerably farther on the reef, and must inevitably have been lost. These ships entered the bay and took their stations, in the darkness, in a manner still spoken of with admiration by all who remembered it. Captain Halowell, in the *Swiftsure*, as he was bearing down, fell in with what seemed to be a strange sail. Nelson had directed his ships to hoist four lights horizontally at the mizen peak, as soon as it became dark, and this vessel had no such distinction. Halowell, however, with great judgment, ordered his men not to fire. If she was an enemy, he said, she was in too disabled a state to escape; but from her sails being loose, and the way in which her head was, it was probable she might be an English ship. It was the *Bellerophon*, overpowered by the huge *Orient*, her lights had gone overboard, nearly two hundred of her crew were killed or wounded, all her masts and cables had been shot away, and she was drifting out of the line, towards the lee side of the bay. Her station, at this important time, was occupied by the *Swiftsure*, which opened a steady fire on the quarter of the *Franklin* and the bows of the French admiral. At the same instant, Captain Ball, with the *Alexander*, passed under his stern and anchored within side on his larboard quarter, raking him, and keeping up a severe fire of musquetry on his decks. The last ship which arrived to complete the destruction of the enemy was the *Leander*. Captain Thompson, finding that nothing could be done that night to get off the *Culloden*, advanced with the intention of anchoring athwart-hawse of the *Orient*. The *Franklin* was so near her ahead that there was no room for him to pass clear of the two; he therefore took his station athwart-hawse of the latter, in such a position as to rake both.

"The two first ships of the French line had been dismasted within a quarter of an hour after the commencement of the action; and the others had in that time suffered so severely that victory was already certain. The third, fourth, and fifth were taken possession of at half-past eight. Meantime Nelson received a severe wound on the head from

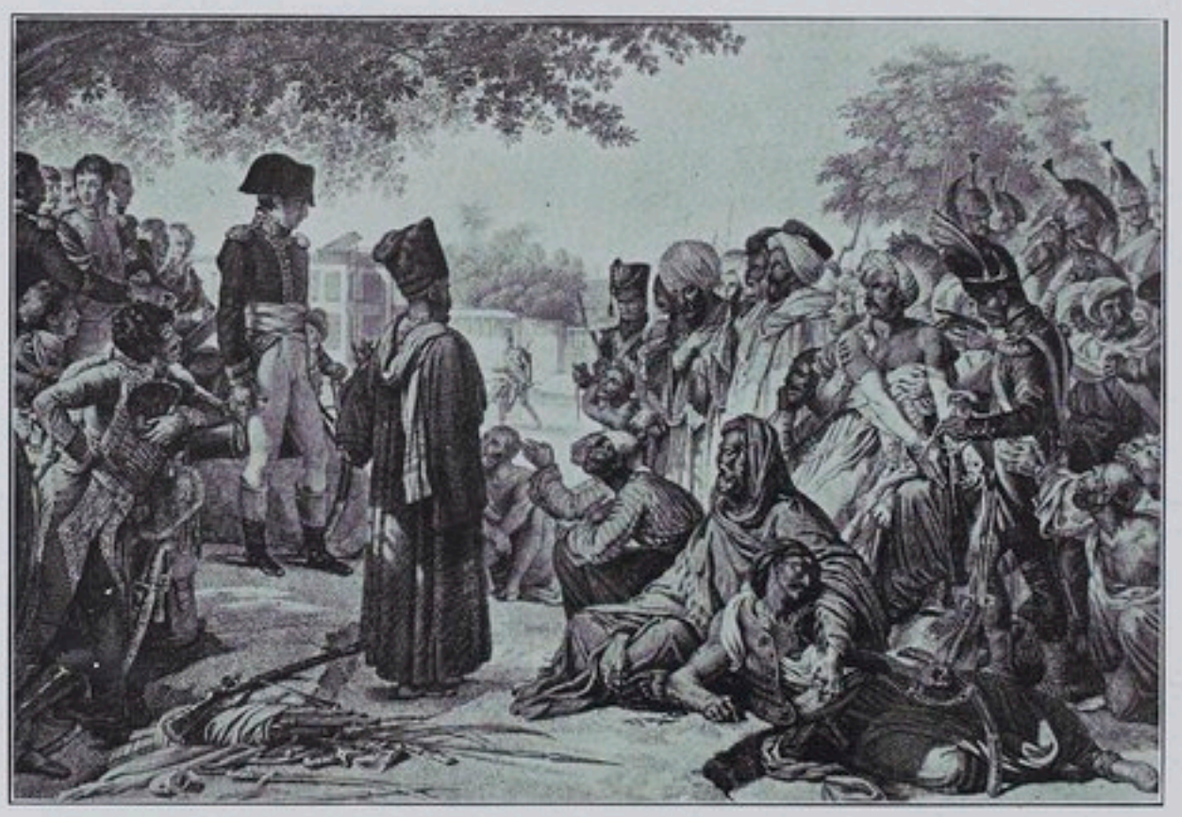
a piece of langridge shot. Captain Berry caught him in his arms as he was falling. The great effusion of blood occasioned an apprehension that the wound was mortal; Nelson himself thought so. A large flap of the skin of the forehead, cut from the bone, had fallen over one eye; and the other being blind, he was in total darkness. When he was carried down the surgeon, in the midst of a scene scarcely to be conceived by those who have never seen a cockpit in time of action, and the heroism which is displayed amid its horrors, with a natural and pardonable eagerness quitted the poor fellow under his hands that he might instantly attend the admiral. 'No,' said Nelson; 'I will take my turn with my brave fellows.' Nor would he suffer his wound to be examined till every man who had been previously wounded was properly attended to. Fully believing that the wound was mortal, and that he was about to die, as he had ever desired, in battle and in victory, he called the chaplain, and desired him to deliver what he supposed to be his dying remembrance to Lady Nelson. He then sent for Captain Louis on board from the *Minotaur*, that he might thank him personally for the great assistance which he had rendered to the *Vanguard*; and ever mindful of those who deserved to be his friends, appointed Captain Hardy from the brig to the command of his own ship, Captain Berry having to go home with the news of the victory. When the surgeon came in due time to examine his wound (for it was in vain to entreat him to let it be examined sooner), the most anxious silence prevalled; and the joy of the wounded men, and of the whole crew, when they heard that the hurt was mérely superficial, gave Nelson deeper pleasure than the unexpected assurance that his life was in no danger. The surgeon requested, and as far as he could ordered him to remain quiet, but Nelson could not rest. He called for his secretary, Mr. Campbell, to write the despatches. Campbell had himself been wounded, and was so affected at the blind and suffering state of the admiral that he was unable to write. The chaplain was then sent for, but before he came Nelson, with his characteristic eagerness, took the pen and contrived to trace a few words, marking his devout sense of the success which had already been obtained. He was now left alone, when suddenly a cry was heard on the deck that the *Orient* was on fire. In the confusion he found his way up, unassisted and unnoticed, and, to the astonishment of every one, appeared on the quarter-deck, where he immediately gave order that boats should be sent to the relief of the enemy.

"It was soon after nine that the fire on board the *Orient* broke out. Brueys was dead; he had received three wounds, yet would not leave his post. A fourth cut him almost in two. He desired not to be carried below, but be left to die upon deck. The flames soon mastered his ship. Her sides had just been painted, and the oil-jars and paint-bucket were lying on the poop. By the prodigious light of this conflagration the situation of the two fleets could now be perceived, the colours of both being clearly distinguishable. About ten o'clock the ship blew up with a shock that was felt to the very bottom of every vessel. Many of her officers and men jumped overboard, some clinging to the spars and pieces of wreck with which the sea was strewn, others swimming to escape the destruction which they momently dreaded. Some were picked up by our boats, and some even in the heat and fury of the action were dragged into the lowest ports of the nearest British ships by the British sailors. The greater part of the crew, however, stood the danger till the last, and continued to fire from the lower deck. This tremendous explosion was followed by a silence not less awful; the firing immediately ceased on both sides, and the first sound which broke the silence was the dash of her shattered masts and yards falling into the water from the vast height to which they had been exploded.

"About seventy of the *Orient's* crew were saved by the English boats. Among the many hundreds who perished were the commodore, Casa-Bianca, and his son, a brave boy only ten years old. They were seen floating on a shattered mast when the ship blew up. She had money on board (the plunder of Malta) to the amount of £600,000 sterling.

"The firing re-commenced with the ships to leeward of the centre, and continued until about three. At daybreak the *Guillaume Tell* and the *Generenx*, the two rear ships of the enemy, were the only French ships of the line which had their colours flying; they cut their cables in the forenoon, not having been engaged, and stood out to sea, with two frigates with them. The *Zealous* pursued; but as there was no other ship in a condition to support Captain Hood he was recalled. It was generally believed by the officers that if Nelson had not been wounded not one of these ships could have escaped: the four certainly could not if the *Culloden* had got into action; and if the frigates belonging to the squadron had been present not one of the enemy's fleet could have left Aboukir Bay. These four vessels, however, were all that escaped, and the victory was the most complete in the annals of naval history. 'Victory,' said Nelson, 'is not a name strong enough for such a scene'; he called it a conquest. Of thirteen of the line nine were taken and two burnt. Of the four frigates one was sunk, another, the *Artemus*, was burnt in a villainous manner by her captain, M. Estandlet, who, having fired a broadside at the *Theseus*, struck his colours, then set fire to the ship, and escaped with most of his crew to the shore. The British loss in killed and wounded amounted to 895. Westcott was the only captain who fell. 3,105 of the French, including the wounded, were sent on shore by cartel, and 5,225 perished."

Such was the Battle of the Nile—a Titanic combat which at one stroke altered the whole complexion of affairs not only in the East but in Europe. Buonaparte attributed the disaster to the error of judgment of Brueys, the French Admiral, who, instead of retiring to Corfu, remained in the vicinity of Alexandria with the idea that he might be able eventually to enter the port. But modern commentators on naval tactics deem that the whole idea of the campaign was strategically wrong, and that Brueys' blunder was not to be compared with the folly which launched an army across the Mediterranean when the effective command of the sea was in other hands. Whatever differences of opinion there may be on the question of responsibility, there is no controversy about the deadly character of the blow struck. The facts are palpable in the pages of history. Not long after the great fight we find Buonaparte called upon to face with his limited army a combination of British, Russian, and Turkish forces, formed with the object of crushing him in Egypt. While the British and Russian naval forces acted in concert in the Mediterranean, the Ottoman troops prepared to make a military demonstration from Syria with the object of reinstating the Turkish authority under the auspices of Ahmed-el-Jezzar, the Pasha of Syria. Buonaparte soon obtained information of the movement that was on foot against him, and decided to anticipate it by sending an expedition into Syria. After a rapid march the French forces arrived before Arish, the ancient Larissa, in the middle of February, 1799. This fortified port had sometime previously been occupied by the Turks with whom Ibrahim Pasha was co-operating. The French immediately attacked it, and had no great difficulty in effecting a lodgment in the village. The fort still held out, and it was necessary to regularly invest it as it was too strong to be carried by assault. Buonaparte, who up to this period had remained in Cairo, now took charge of the



BUONAPARTE PARDONING THE REBELS AT CAIRO.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

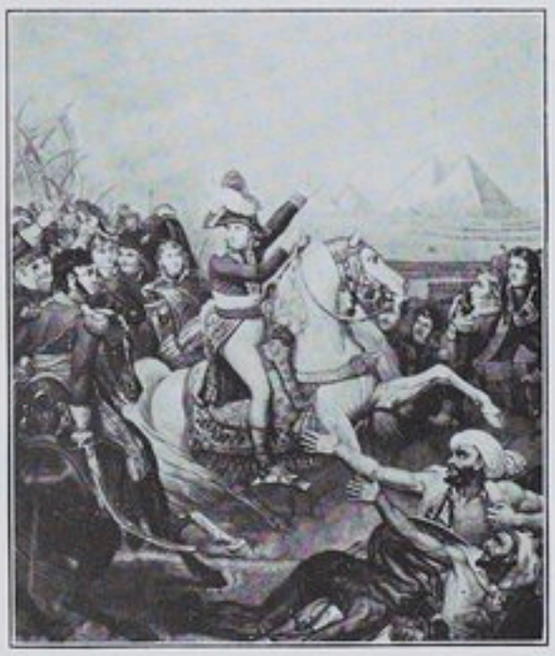
operations, and under his direction negotiations were opened up with the garrison. In the result the garrison, which consisted chiefly of Arabs, capitulated on the condition that they were allowed to retire without their arms to Baghdad. After this success



COMBAT AT BENOUTH, 1799.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

Buonaparte marched his army to Jaffa, which he carried by assault after a fierce resistance on the part of the garrison and the inhabitants. "Never," said the general in his official despatches to the directory, "did the horrors of war appear to me so hideous." The incidents of the assault gave rise subsequently to charges of inhumanity against Buonaparte. It was said that the prisoners had been massacred wholesale by the general's orders, and that lamentable excesses had been committed by the soldiery on the inoffensive inhabitants. There was probably some amount of truth in the charges, but how far Buonaparte was directly responsible for the wholesale butchery which occurred has never been clearly determined. From Jaffa Buonaparte proceeded to Acre anticipating an easy victory; but he had not taken account of British activity. At that time Sir Sidney Smith was in command of the British squadron on the Egyptian coast. This able and enterprising man hearing at Alexandria, on March 3, 1799, of Buonaparte's exploits, at once sent the ship *Theseus* with instructions to make what arrangements were possible for the defence of the town. On May 15th Smith proceeded himself to Acre in the *Tigre*. On March 18th he fell in with and captured a French flotilla of eight gunboats carrying siege artillery stores and ammunition for Buonaparte. The acquisition proved of the utmost value in the subsequent operations at Acre. The gunboats, aided by the *Tigre* and the *Theseus*, took up positions from which they enfiladed the French lines, and the siege guns mounted on the ramparts effectually warded off assault. It was not until April 25th that Buonaparte was able to bring up his siege guns from Jaffa, and nine days further elapsed before a practicable breach had been made in the fortifications. The assault was ordered for the next day, but during the night the defenders, by destroying a mine upon which the French depended, upset all Buonaparte's calculations, and the delivery of the blow had to be postponed. Towards the evening of May 7th news was brought of the approach of several vessels with a considerable body of Turkish troops sent to the aid of the garrison. Perceiving the necessity of anticipating their arrival, Buonaparte decided to deliver the assault at once. A desperate struggle ensued, which continued all through the night. When day broke the French were in possession of one of the towers composing the fortifications. In view of the critical position of affairs Smith landed from the ships a strong party of seamen armed with pikes, who held the breach until the Turkish troops had time to land. Throughout the day the battle raged with unabated violence. At night Buonaparte, finding that he could make no headway, drew off his forces, and twelve days later the siege was raised.

Foiled in his designs on Syria, Buonaparte returned to Cairo with the determination to quit the country as soon as circumstances would permit him to do so. Admiral Gauteaume, whose squadron was at Alexandria, was instructed to have two frigates in readiness for early departure, and to inform the general immediately there was a prospect of evading the British blockade. On the morning of August 24th the anticipated summons was given. By that time the British and Turkish fleets had sailed for Cyprus, and the coast was clear of any dangerous enemy. Buonaparte lost no time in responding to the notice that had been sent to him. Buonaparte, leaving Kleber in supreme command at Cairo, and Menou at Alexandria, embarked on the night of August 29th, and by morning the vessel conveying him was well out to sea. Nine days after Buonaparte's departure Kleber issued a proclamation to the army in which he declared that imperious motives had determined the Commander-in-Chief to return to France, and promising that powerful succour would soon arrive for them, or that a peace worthy of their labours would be concluded. In this way Kleber outwardly put the best face he could upon the abandonment by Buonaparte of his cherished designs, but his military judgment must have convinced him of the hopelessness of the situation in which the army of occupation was placed. Buonaparte, indeed, himself had shown some time before that he knew his position to be untenable by opening up negotiations with the ports for the evacuation of the country. Kleber now continued these overtures, and he did so the more earnestly, as after Buonaparte's embarkation his difficulties very considerably increased. Eventually a convention was entered into at Arish with Sir Sidney Smith and the Turkish authorities, under which the French army was to be allowed to withdraw peacefully. Before, however, it could be carried out Admiral Lord Keith, who was in charge of British interests in the Mediterranean, received explicit instructions from home that he should not consent to the return of the French army home, or to its capitulation, excepting upon the terms of its disarmament and its surrender as prisoners of war. This led to a repudiation by Lord Keith of the convention that Smith had without proper authority entered into. The result was the breaking off of the negotiations by the French. Kleber, who had waited at Alexandria the result of the deliberations, made preparations for an immediate return to Cairo. But the Turkish troops outside the city barred the way, and they had to be met and defeated before the return march could be entered upon. The engagement, which took place upon the ancient site of Heliopolis, though decisively in the French favour, did not terminate the struggle. On arriving near Cairo, Kleber found the enemy so strongly posted that he had to regularly lay siege to the city before he could obtain possession of it. Once installed, however, in it he was in a strong position, and with the change of the French fortunes in Europe, brought about by Buonaparte's return and his investment with the office of First Consul of the Republic, the hopes of



THE BATTLE OF THE PYRAMIDS.—BUONAPARTE LEADING THE TROOPS.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

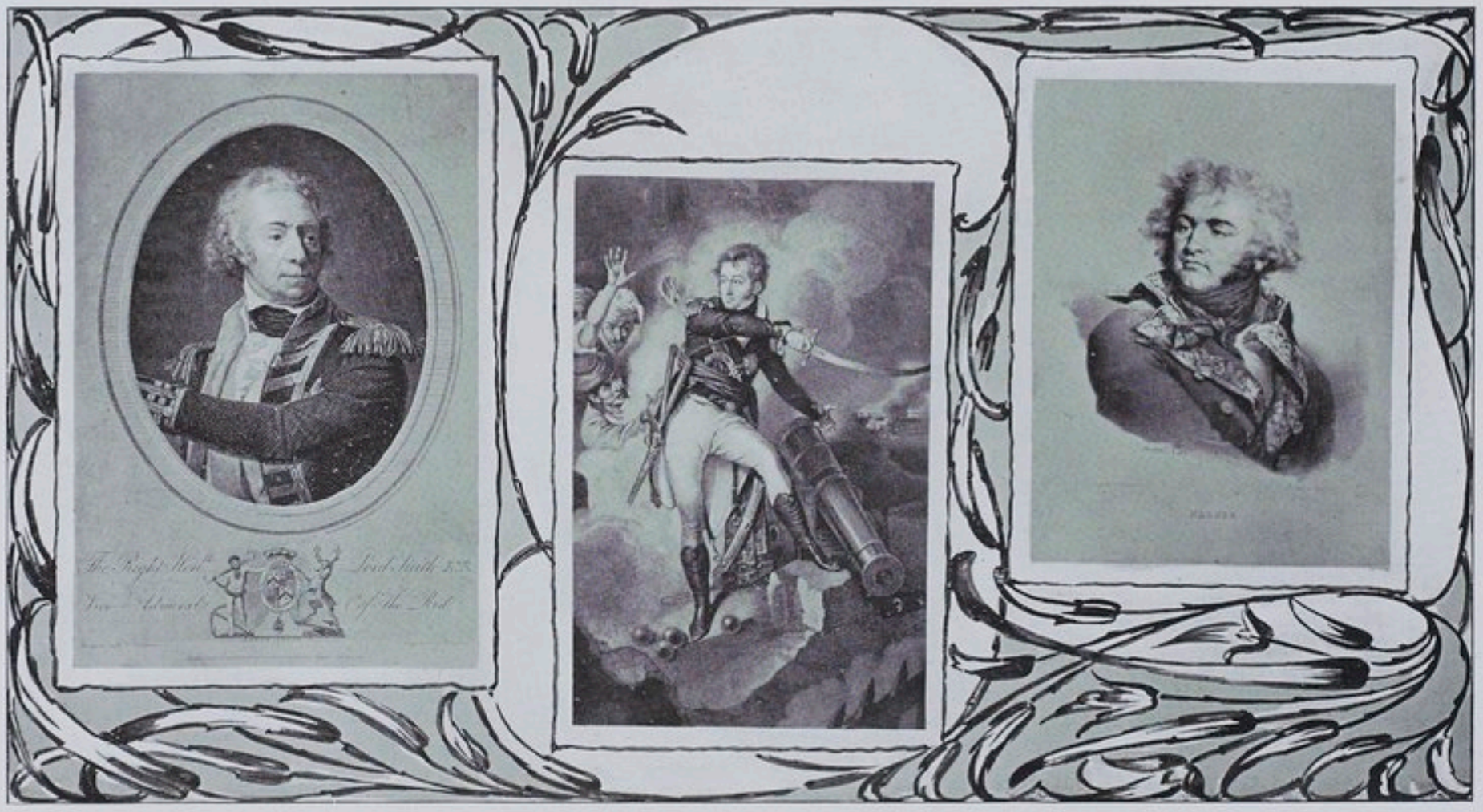
maintaining the Egyptian conquest were once more in the ascendant. The assassination of Kleber some little time after the re-occupation of the Egyptian capital was a heavy blow to the French arms, but in other respects the position was not unpropitious.

CHAPTER XI.

British Expeditionary Force despatched to Egypt from Europe and India—Commanded by Sir Ralph Abercromby—Landing effected in Aboukir Bay—Advance on Alexandria—Defeat of the French and Death of Sir Ralph Abercromby—General Hutchinson assumes Command and occupies Rosetta—Advance down the Nile of the Indian Troops under Major-General Baird—Surrender of Cairo by the French—Menou holds out at Alexandria, but eventually Capitulates—Magnitude of the British Success.

PEACE was made by the French with Murad Bey and French authority was everywhere recognised. But it was only the calm which preludes the storm. Great Britain, disappointed at the failure of her efforts to secure the evacuation of Egypt by indirect means, adopted measures to drive the French army out. These took the form of an expedition composed of troops from Great Britain and India, the former making Alexandria their objective, and the latter advancing by way of the Red Sea and the Nile. Sir Ralph Abercromby, a soldier of wide experience, was in supreme command. The army from India was under the command of Major-General Baird, an able officer who had distinguished himself in the war against Tippoo Sahib. The plan of campaign was boldly conceived; indeed, as so much depended upon sea transport from two distinct quarters, and as moreover the Indian troops had to be brought partly, at least, over a little-known route, it may almost be described as hazardous. But those were days when great risks had to be taken, and the spirit of the active instruments of British policy was such that the possibility of failure was not entertained.

The British fleet conveying Sir Ralph Abercromby's force arrived in Aboukir Bay on March 2, 1802. A heavy gale which was prevailing at the time prevented the immediate landing which all desired. It was not until the 7th of March that the wind had moderated sufficiently to make the operation feasible. Taking advantage of the lull, Sir Sidney Smith, who was in command of the fleet, went off in a small boat to reconnoitre the coast with a view to the selection of a favourable place for landing. The armed party which accompanied the admiral attacked a battery near the beach, carried the position, and took the commander prisoner. Valuable information was gained in the course of this brief and brilliant raid, and a decision was come to to disembark the force at two o'clock on the morning of the following day. Mr. Baldwin, the first British Consul-General in Egypt, who was present with the force, gives this graphic account of the operation and the subsequent events:—"The position selected for the disembarkation may be described as the arc of a circle whose base (on a line of about three miles in length) drawn from one extremity to the other would be about a mile from the shore. Within the line representing the base were stationed the brigs of war and bomb vessels set apart to cover the landing. Punctual to the moment the firing of a rocket gave the signal for the boats to put off from the ships. The various craft, one hundred and fifty in all, carrying nearly six thousand men, put off from the ships and slowly got into line. The perfecting of the arrangements occupied until eight o'clock, and then the order for the advance was given. The French position was a strong one. On the right was the castle of Aboukir, the centre rested on a sandhill nearly 180 feet high, and the left was composed of a chain of low sandhills which ran right up to the lake. In the intervals between the sandhills were stationed at intervals detachments of artillery and infantry. It was an immensely strong position, indeed almost an impregnable one if defended by a resolute force. Amid complete silence the line of boats made its way to the shore. The sun by this time was well above the horizon and lighted up the amphitheatre of sandhills, revealing evidences here and there of the existence of defences, but disclosing no sign of life. The flat boats which were used for the accommodation of the troops were preceded by armed launches, whose mission it was to check the fire of the enemy. The advance continued for some time without the occasion arising for the utilisation of their services. Then, without the slightest warning, a terrific fire was directed from the shore upon the line of boats. The attacking party cowered under

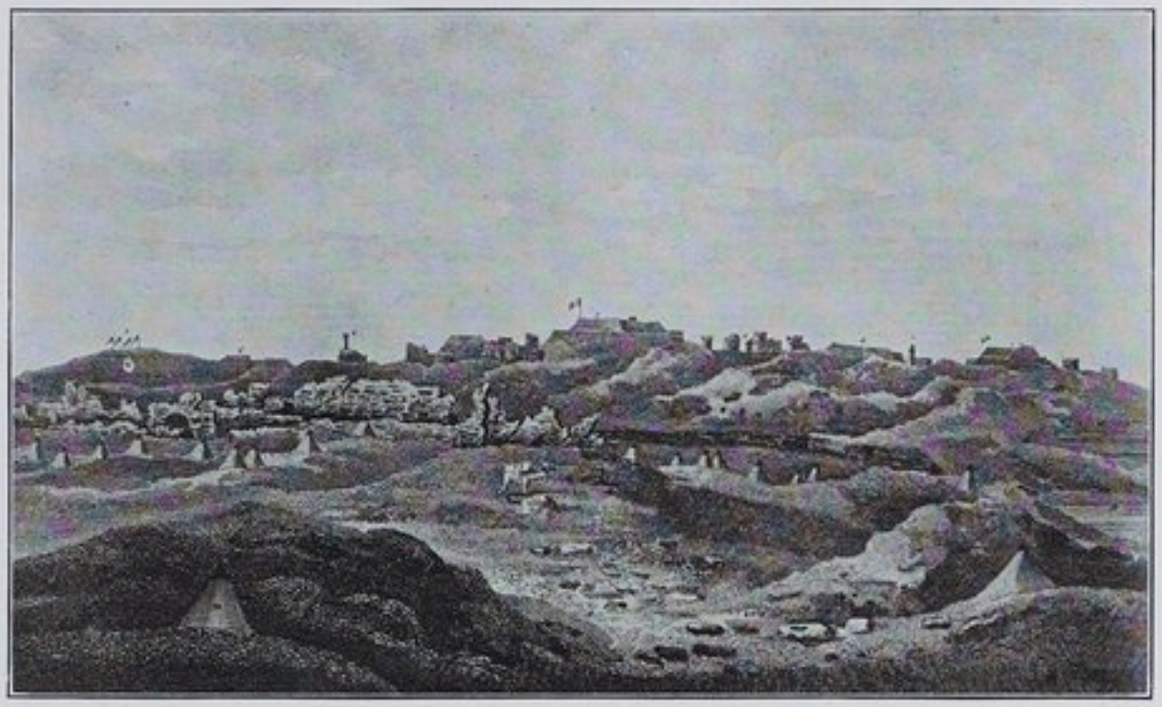


LORD KEITH.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

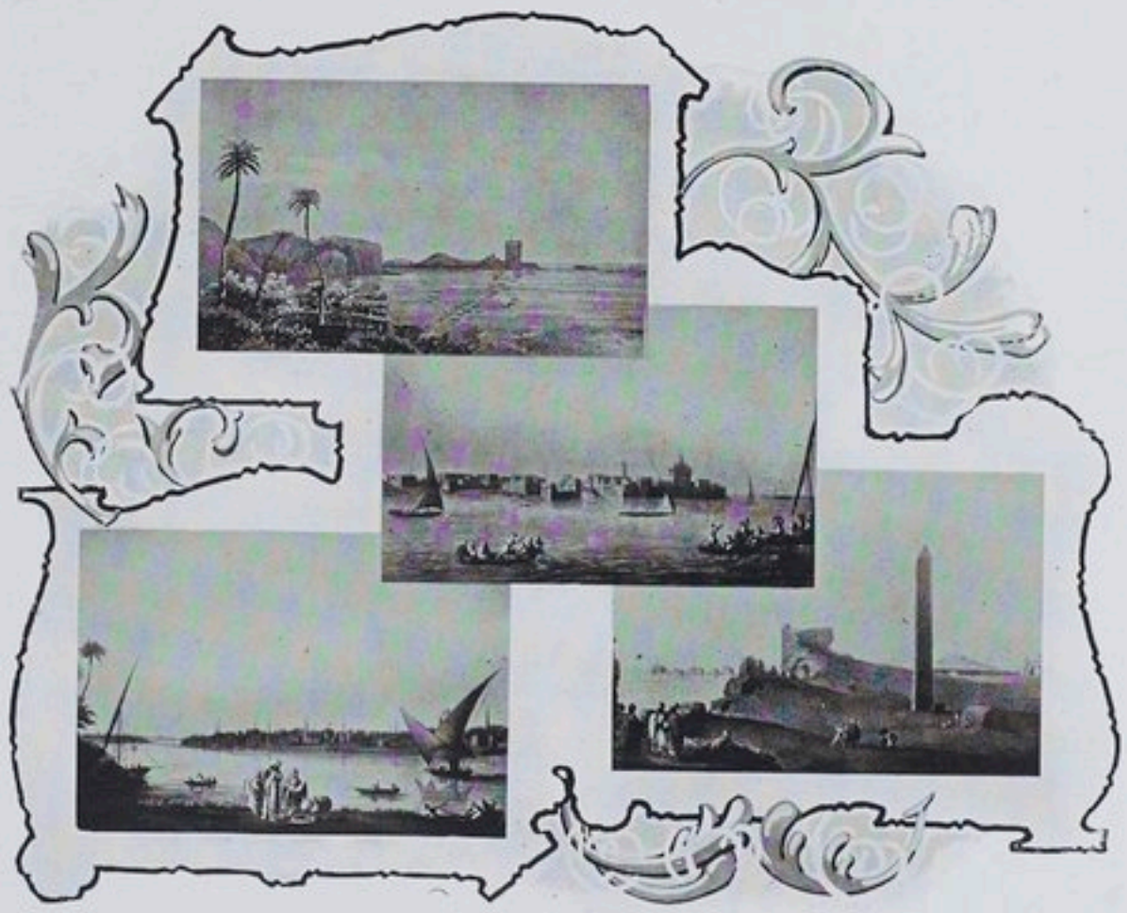
SIR WILLIAM SIDNEY SMITH.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

KLEBER.
(From an engraving in the British Museum.)

the terrible hail, but the check was only momentary. With a thunderous cheer the line of boats dashed forwards until the shore was reached. Under a heavy fire from the castle they commenced to land. The enemy poured down upon them in considerable numbers from their defences and made a vigorous attack upon the boats, even rushing into the water to the more effectually deliver their charge. The British, undismayed by the energy displayed, steadily disembarked, and soon a respectable force was ranged up on the shore. A charge was made by a body of cavalry upon the rapidly augmenting ranks, but it was repulsed with considerable loss to the enemy. Meanwhile, led in person by General Moore, a portion of the attacking force had gone forward to the attack of the central position. The defenders appeared too surprised at the audacity of the movement to make an effective defence. They fired wildly for a brief space and then turned and fled. The British followed briskly upon their heels, and the position was soon won. The success of this movement determined the day. One after another the various positions were captured, and by night the entire British army was encamped ashore. The French retreated on Alexandria, and, having received a reinforcement of three thousand men from Cairo, took up a strong position there, about four miles from the walls of the city to the eastwards, their left resting on the sea and their right on the lake. The British force consisted of about fourteen thousand men, but as it hardly had any artillery and no cavalry its superiority in numbers was more than outbalanced by the advantages possessed by the defending force in these respects. Nevertheless, Sir Ralph Abercromby determined to attack on the morning of the 13th. The advance was made under a galling fire from a line of riflemen posted in the sandhills, reinforced by artillery placed in advantageous positions along the whole line of front. In spite of the execution done the British advanced steadily. From position after position the French were driven until they were close under the walls of Alexandria. As if to make a last stand the retreating force occupied a hill in the vicinity of the walls. The general ordered a detachment of the army to turn this hill, whilst the main body of the army made a direct attack. The manœuvre was well in progress when the commander, having obtained information which showed that the defences of the position were exceedingly strong, gave the order for the retreat. The British force retired to a position somewhat in the rear, and immediate steps were taken to fortify it. Some days of necessary inaction followed, and then, on the morning of the 20th, at a great distance away, the British descried great lines of animals passing to Alexandria. They had no difficulty in deciding that the train was that of the French army from Cairo under Menou. Altogether the general brought a reinforcement of nine thousand men. It was not long before the French took advantage of their increased numbers. Before daylight on the 21st Menou delivered an attack on the British camp with his entire army. It was at first thought that the movement was a mere feint, but soon there was unmistakeable evidence of the serious intentions of the French commander. The British front was along a line drawn from the lake Aboukir on the left to the sea on the right. From the lake, for about five hundred yards, was level ground; then was rising ground for about a mile merging into a valley about six hundred yards broad, with, finally, level ground stretching to the sea. The French plan was to turn the British right while the main body of their army pierced the centre, turned the left, and enveloped the reserve. This manœuvre accomplished, it was arranged that the French cavalry, fifteen hundred in number, should charge the body so retained and cut them to pieces. For the important enterprise on the right one of Napoleon's best regiments, nine hundred strong, was told off. Gallantly the men went to the attack, but they met foemen worthy of their steel. On three successive occasions they were repulsed with terrible slaughter. Then the remnant of two hundred and fifty, taken in rear by the reserves, surrendered. Meanwhile, the main body of the French army in a heavy column had broken through the British line and was making its way down the valley. It only needed the cavalry movement to win a victory. Fortunately for the British the manœuvre was found to be impossible owing to the inequalities of the ground. The French squadrons, owing to this cause, fell into confusion and in that condition were easily routed by the British



VIEW OF THE FRENCH FORTIFIED HEIGHTS TO THE EASTWARD OF ALEXANDRIA.
(From Walsh's "Journal in Egypt.")



VIEW OF THE CASTLE OF ABOUKIR.
(From Walsh's "Journal in Egypt," 1803.)

CITY OF ROSETTA.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

FORT AND HARBOUR OF ABOUKIR.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

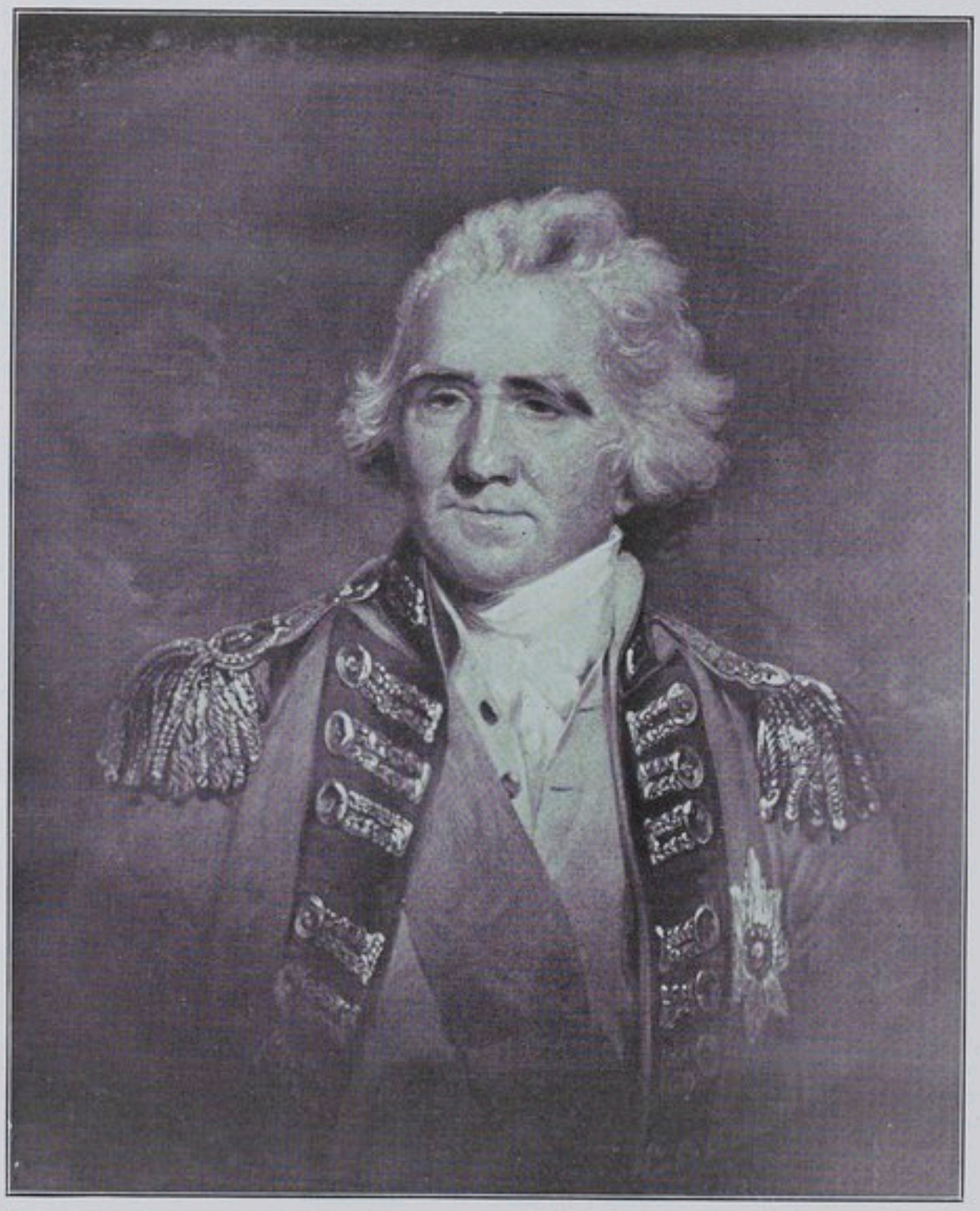
THE OBELISKS AT ALEXANDRIA (CLEOPATRA'S NEEDLES).
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

force. The reserve, freed from the cavalry attack, now faced about and proceeded to assist to repel the main attack. The conflict was long and fluctuating. On the British side ammunition at length began to fail, and it looked as if the battle must be lost. At this critical moment, to the joy of all, the French forces began to give way, and soon they were in full retreat. They retired in good order, but as they passed up the valley they were severely shaken by a heavy fire from the British batteries."

The victory of March 21st was decisive. The French left two thousand dead and wounded on the field, and amongst the former three of their best generals. On the British side the casualties were much smaller, but amongst the killed was the commander of the force, Sir Ralph Abercromby, who fell mortally wounded by a musket ball which struck him in the groin at a moment when he was engaged in personal combat with an officer of dragoons.

After the battle of Alexandria the British force remained inactive for some time. The arrival of a reinforcement of six thousand Turkish troops in the Bay of Aboukir enabled General Hutchinson, who had succeeded to the command, at length to take the field once more. His first move was against Rosetta, which he occupied on April 19th. A welcome reinforcement of three thousand British troops which arrived early in May enabled operations to be undertaken on a larger scale. With four thousand British and six thousand Turkish troops, General Hutchinson moved forward to Ramanieh with the intention of threatening Cairo. The French retreated before the advance and did not halt until they had reached that city. Their retirement was a practical acknowledgment of defeat, for with Ramanieh in British hands the line of communication between Cairo and Alexandria was cut at a vital spot. Soon evidence of the importance of the advantage gained was forthcoming in the capture of a convoy of four hundred men and six hundred camels bound for Alexandria. The loss of these supplies to the French was a serious matter, but apart from the sense of material failure the cap ure carried with it the conviction that the position of the French Army was rapidly becoming untenable. A circumstance which strengthened this view was the knowledge that the French commander possessed that he had to deal not only with General Hutchinson's force and the Turkish contingent, but with Major-General Baird's Indian troops consisting of 3,600 British and 2,800 sepoy soldiers. The latter had been delayed by the monsoon, and it seemed at one period that they would not arrive soon enough to be of service. But welcome news reached General Hutchinson of their disembarkation at the beginning of July, and their mere presence in the rear of the French greatly facilitated the end. Before we deal with the situation at Cairo it may be desirable to give a more detailed account of Major-General Baird's force since it was not only the first British Indian contingent ever despatched beyond the confines of India, but it was the first considerable body of troops sent up the Red Sea since very ancient times. Every presidency furnished its quota of troops, and the contingent embraced every arm of the service. It was an arduous task to move this considerable force from India to Egypt at a time when the oversea transport of troops was in its infancy and when the navigation of the Red Sea was comparatively little known.

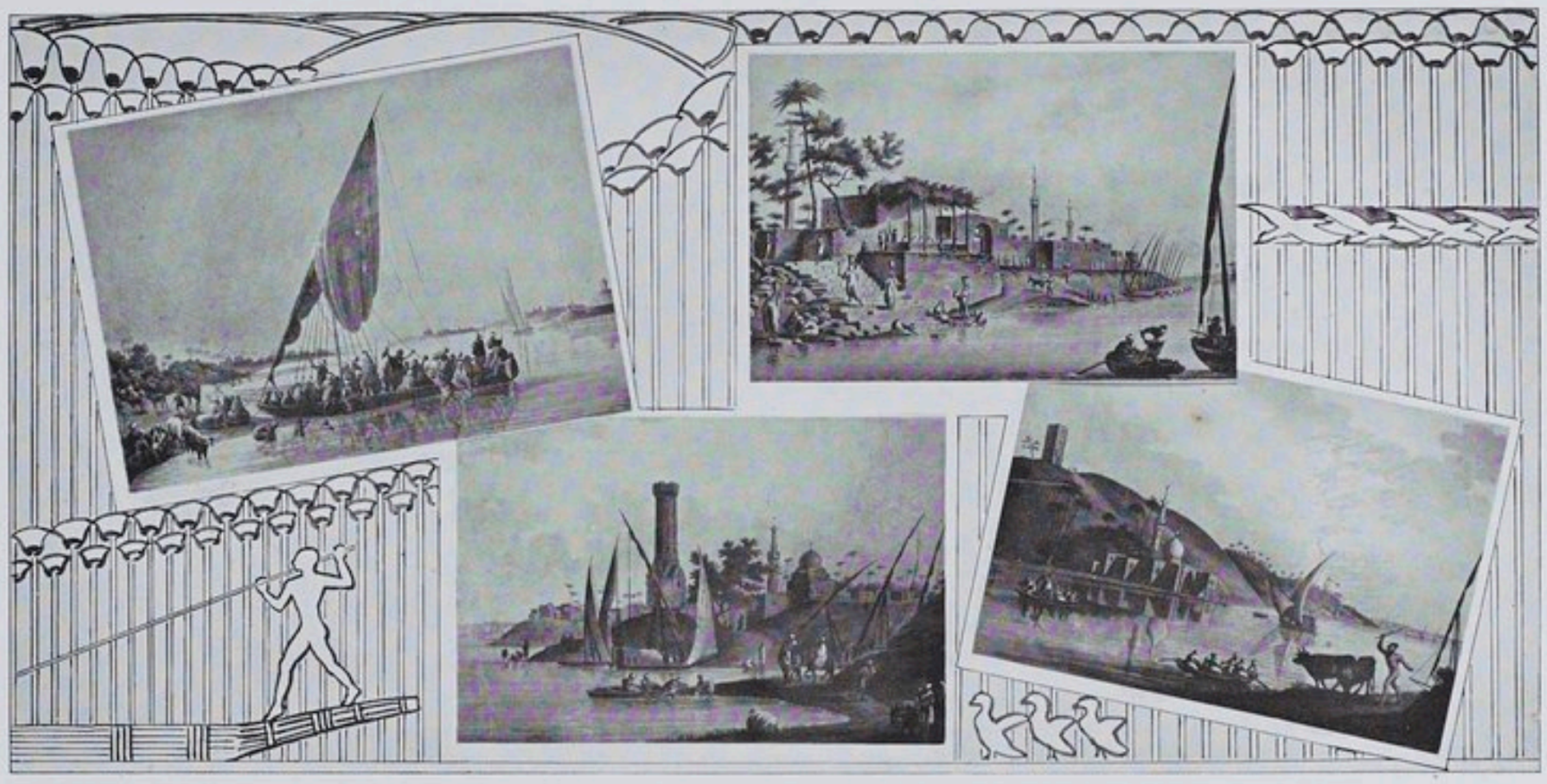
The artillery branch of the force was despatched in small divisions across the Persian Gulf to Jeddah as the intricate and dangerous navigation of the Red Sea would not allow of their sailing in a large fleet. The navigation, indeed, was so bad, and the sea so little surveyed, that of the fleet seventeen sail were lost, some of them the finest ships. One vessel, the *La Forte* frigate was lost in Jedda harbour by being run upon the rocks. From Jeddah the force proceeded to Kosseir, where they landed. The troops, it was originally arranged, should proceed to Suez, but this port was found impracticable as the monsoon had set in and it was indeed only with much difficulty and danger that they were landed at Kosseir. From Kosseir the troops commenced their march to Keneh on the Nile on June 21st. The road across the desert lies almost the whole way through a succession of ravines, winding amongst hills varying from five to fifteen hundred feet in height. These hills, says Alison, are very remarkable, rising often perpendicularly on both sides of the valley, as if scarped by art; in other places, rather broken and overhanging, like the lofty banks of a mighty river, the traveller traversing its dry and naked bed. Now you are quite landlocked, soon you open on lateral valleys, and see upon heights in their distance small square towers. Depôts of provisions had been provided at the eight stations where the army halted, and wells dug by the Arabs, from which a tolerable supply of water was obtained, though in many places rather of a brackish quality. Not a dwelling was to be seen, and hardly any traces of vegetation were discovered along this heavy tract; nothing met the eye but bare and arid rocks in the mountains and loose sand or hard gravel in the hollows. The sufferings of the soldiers from heat and thirst were very great; for though they marched only during the night, yet the atmosphere, heated to 115 degrees of Fahrenheit in the shade during the day, was at all times sultry and oppressive in the highest degree. It was soon found that it was impossible by drinking to allay the thirst, and that indulgence in that respect only augmented the desire; a little vinegar mixed with water proved the only effectual relief. At length the Nile was reached, and the troops, catching sight of its glittering expanse, with one consent, casting discipline to the winds, rushed forward, and with indescribable joy cast themselves into the flowing waters. At Thebes the troops were embarked on boats, and, after a nine days' journey, on August 10th, arrived at Grand Cairo.



LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR RALPH ABERCROMBY.
(From a portrait by Hoppner—engraved by S. W. Reynolds.)

In the meantime events had been rapidly ripening for the consummation of the British

design — the complete expulsion of the French from Egypt. General Belliard, the French commander at Cairo, finding himself invested at Cairo at the end of May by the combined British and Turkish forces, and seeing no prospect of help, surrendered the city on May 22nd. The condition upon which the capitulation was made was that the army should be conveyed to France within fifty days with its arms, field artillery, and baggage, and as soon as adequate transport could be procured the French forces to the number of 13,672 were embarked and sent down the Nile. Menou, who was in command at Alexandria, was greatly incensed when he heard of the terms of the surrender and proclaimed his own intention to hold out at Alexandria until the last moment. General Hutchinson finding how matters stood took measures, as soon as he had disposed of Belliard, to reduce Alexandria. At the beginning of August with sixteen thousand men, including the greater part of the Indian contingent, under his command, he marched out. Fort Marabon, which is situated on a tongue of land which unites the town to the opposite of Lake Mareotis, was attacked and taken by four thousand troops, who were embarked in a flotilla collected for the purpose and landed in the vicinity of the fort. About the same time several redoubts on the heights near the sea fell into the hands of the British, and when Menou despatched a column of six hundred men to recover the positions the force was surrounded and taken prisoners by seven companies of the 30th Regiment, part of General Hutchinson's force. The next day General Coote following up these successes made a brilliant attack on Fort le Turc, which was reduced to submission eventually by his heavy artillery fire. Menou, at last convinced that nothing could be done to save the situation, sued for terms. General Hutchinson agreed in consideration of the surrender of Alexandria to allow the French to return to France with their arms and baggage but only with ten pieces of artillery. He also stipulated that the French scientists who accompanied the French expedition should hand over all their collections of antiquities and drawings to him as spoil of war, but in view of the extreme dissatisfaction which this condition aroused in the ranks of the *savants* he eventually allowed the British rights under the compact to be waived. Only one memento was retained. That was the sarcophagus of Alexander the Great, whose destination was changed from Paris to London. It now reposes amongst the priceless treasures of antiquity at the British Museum. In a military sense the victory was a striking one. Over ten thousand troops and three hundred pieces of cannon fell into British hands, together with an immense quantity of stores. Altogether with the force which had surrendered at Cairo twenty-four thousand troops had yielded—"An astonishing success," says Alison, "to have been achieved by a British force which had hardly ever seen a shot fired, and which, even including those who came up from India six weeks after Cairo had surrendered, never amounted to the same numerical strength."



NILE SCENES A CENTURY AGO.

FERRY BOAT NEAR NEDSSILL. THE TOWN OF FOUA ON THE NILE. THE CITY OF MENOUF. MOSQUE OF ABOU-MANDOUR.

(Illustrations from Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

CHAPTER XII.

British Occupation of Egypt—Massacre of Beys by the Turks—British Indignation—British Non-intervention Policy—Anarchy in the Delta—Rise of Mehemet Ali—Sketch of his Early Career—Mehemet Ali leads a Military Mutiny and establishes his Authority at Cairo—Massacre of Beys—Second British Expedition despatched to Egypt under General Fraser—It sustains Severe Reverses at Rosetta—Re-embarkation of the Force.

AFTER the great triumph narrated in the preceding chapter the bulk of the British force returned to England. The Indian troops with several British regiments, to the number altogether of about twelve thousand men, were left to garrison the country until a general peace was made. Up to this period the Turks had actively co-operated with the British forces and the military triumph on the Delta had been celebrated with as much *éclat* on the Bosphorus as on the banks of the Thames. But before the country had settled down an incident occurred which strained the alliance to the breaking point. For a long time the Turks had meditated

strengthening their position at Cairo and had sought by cajolery to overcome the beys, whose influence, notwithstanding the course of events, was still paramount. In vain, however, had these wiles been exercised. The Beys' own description of the Turks at that period was: "Their whole strength lies in their words and in their writing; while their mouth says one thing, their heart says another. We hate the Jews as we hate the devil, but we hate the Turks more." It was inevitable that sooner or later there should be a collision between the two Mahomedan forces, whose hatred as illustrated by this remark was so deadly; but when the crisis did come it was precipitated in a manner which gave rise to the highest indignation on the part of the British. The story, as told by Mr. William Hamilton in his "Remarks on Several Parts of Turkey," written a short time after the occurrence, is as follows:—"The Beys in Cairo being on a visit of ceremony to the Vezir were informed that they were no longer at liberty to return home, and that there they must wait as prisoners till the future pleasure of the Sultan should be known. Resistance was in vain; they submitted and no blood was shed. The others who had now joined the Captain Pasha were tempted by his artful expressions of the tenderest concern for their welfare to trust themselves in boats for the purpose of being conveyed on board a corvette which was to carry them to Alexandria on a visit to the British Commander. When at some distance from shore they discovered the snare that had been laid for them; saw that their destruction was determined on and refused to go on board the corvette. A short engagement took place between them and the Turks to whose care they had been committed. Some of the principal Beys and Pashas fell the victims of this deliberate act of treachery; the rest escaped by swimming to shore, more or less wounded. This extraordinary outrage committed so near the British camp upon persons whose security was under the double guarantee of the laws of hospitality and of English faith could not fail to arouse the resentment of the British general who, in the most decided manner, signified to the Captain Pasha the sense he had of his unprincipled conduct; charged him, it is said, with the act of an atheist, a liar and an assassin, and in the most peremptory terms demanded and obtained the release of the prisoners and the restitution of the dead. The prisoners were taken under the immediate protection of the British Army, and the latter were interred with "the honours due to their rank." "So great," adds the writer, "was the resentment manifested on this occasion throughout the whole English Army that it was the wish of many officers of distinction to return to the Captain Pasha the gold medals which had been lately distributed amongst them by order of the Porte."

After this active intervention by General Hutchinson on behalf of the beys the British appear to have allowed matters to take their course in Egypt. The policy of non-intervention was necessitated probably by the critical state of affairs in Europe at this period, which prohibited any wide dispersal of the country's military forces. But it was unfortunate to say the least that a stronger line was not taken, for in a very short time the country lapsed into a state of almost complete anarchy. The Mamelukes at the outset had hoped for British support, but when some months had passed without any arrangement being made they decided to act alone against the Turks. Their first efforts were unsuccessful, and there was a proposal made by the Turkish authorities that they should be confined to Aswan. Before, however, the negotiations with the British to this end could be completed the beys' star was once more in the ascendant and they were soon in occupation of Cairo itself. Their triumph was only a temporary one. Ere many weeks had elapsed the Turks re-asserted their authority. But, again, the era ushered in was short lived. For a considerable period this condition of disorder continued, the changes being facilitated by the lawless character of the Albanian garrison furnished by the Porte, who sided now with one party, now the other, as its fancy or its personal interests dictated. The might of the strongest, in fact, had become the ruling law of the land.



MEHEMET ALI.

(From Sir David Wilke's "Sketches in Turkey, Syria, and Egypt," 1843.)

It was in the circumstances narrated in the previous paragraph that there came upon the stage of Egyptian life as remarkable a character as had ever figured there in the country's strange eventful history. The man was Mehemet Ali, the founder of Modern Egypt, the first of the line of Khedives. In later life, Mehemet Ali was called the Asiatic Napoleon, and nothing pleased him more than this appellation. The comparison was not altogether a strained one, for there was a remarkable parallelism in some of the main features of the two careers. Like Napoleon, Mehemet Ali was an obscure military adventurer, who, taking advantage of a condition of anarchy in the country in which he was discharging subordinate military functions, boldly constituted himself a national leader, and upon the ruins of an effete organisation built a solid superstructure of government, with himself as its all powerful head. Another singular point of resemblance is to be found in the circumstance that Napoleon and Mehemet Ali were born in the same year—1769. Not improbably, this fact had some influence in shaping Mehemet Ali's career. Certain it is that he, in common with other Asiatics, was profoundly impressed with the achievements of Napoleon. To his uninstructed imagination there was something more than human in the great man's wonderful ascent to the heights of supreme power. In it he doubtless saw the working of that *Kismet*, which is at the bottom of every good Mahomedan's belief and which is the principle he has ever before him, guiding and influencing his life. Such being the position, it is easy to conceive that Mehemet Ali may have regarded himself as one born under the same influences as Napoleon, and destined to like greatness.

Mehemet Ali was born at Cavala, a small town in Roumelia. His father was a poor man who eked out a precarious existence by fishing and farming. Mehemet Ali, when old enough, took an active part in his parent's occupation, showing a marked predilection for sea pursuits. At a very early age he acquired a reputation for courage and resourcefulness. One episode in which he took a leading part—the successful pursuit of some pirates and the recovery of property they had annexed, brought him to the

notice of the Governor and he was given the rank of lieutenant in recognition of his services. The Governor's wife also took a lively interest in the youth, and her husband dying some time after the events narrated, she became Mehemet Ali's wife, and endowed him with all her riches. With this capital the future ruler of Egypt embarked in the tobacco business. But his operations do not appear to have been successful and he abandoned the enterprise. Thrown upon his own resources, he eagerly welcomed an offer to raise and equip three hundred men for service in Egypt when Buonaparte invaded that country. At the battle of Aboukir he showed conspicuous courage, winning promotion to the rank of colonel and obtaining unbounded influence amongst the troops. This influence he turned to good account subsequently, when in the struggle between the Mamelukes and the Porte for supremacy, the real power, by force of circumstances, gravitated into the hands of the military forces. Badly paid, ill disciplined, and utterly lacking in the sense of patriotism, the mercenaries who composed the Ottoman regiments were good material for the working of a *coup d'état* in a country like Egypt. Mehemet Ali was quick to see this, and upon disaffection manifesting itself in some Albanian regiments, he promptly caused himself to be constituted the delegate of the men and a redresser of their grievances. Kourshed Pasha, the Ottoman representative, finding how matters stood, determined to crush the bold upstart. He sent a message to Mehemet Ali, commanding his attendance at a council to be held at midnight. The import of the move was not lost upon the wily adventurer. Smiling as he received the summons, he kissed the Pasha's missive and sent word by the messenger that he would be sure to come. Then, turning to the troops who were paraded before him at the time, he observed: "I am sent for by the Pasha, and *you* know what destiny awaits the advocate of your wrongs in a midnight audience. I *will* go, but shall I go alone?" A great shout of defiance went up as four thousand swords were drawn from their scabbards and flourished in the air in token of the mutineers' determination to stand by their champion. Kourshed Pasha, hearing the tumult, discreetly retired to the citadel without waiting for the visit which he had commanded. Mehemet Ali was not slow to grasp the situation. "Now then," he said to his supporters, "Cairo is for sale, and the strongest sword will buy it." The call to arms was enthusiastically responded to. Electing Mehemet Ali as their leader, the troops opened the gates of the city to the Mamelukes, engaged the forces still loyal to the Porte, and took Kourshed Pasha prisoner. Osman Bardissy and Elfy Bey were the leaders of the Mamelukes at this period, and they were naturally overjoyed at the clean sweep that had been made of the Ottoman power. Mehemet Ali accepted from them the rank of general in acknowledgment of his services, but he had not ousted the Turk to restore the Mameluke. His aims were purely selfish ones, and he watched with cynical satisfaction the two beys fall out with each other, and a situation mature in which he could intervene with effect. On the one hand, he insidiously fanned the flames of discontent amongst the soldiery, prompting them to demand their arrears of pay, and on the other, he encouraged the Cairenes to resist the impositions which were laid upon them in order to satisfy these demands. Osman Bey, who at this period wielded nominal authority in the capital, recognising the hopelessness of a conflict against the formidable forces arrayed against him, sought safety in flight. Mehemet Ali was now master of the situation, but he considered that the time was not yet ripe for him to throw off completely the mask and grasp the reins of power. With a show of submission he invited Kourshed Pasha, a prominent Ottoman official, to be Viceroy of Egypt, and in the same spirit of humility he permitted himself to be made Kaimakan, the next highest in command. The Sultan confirmed these nominations, but he had reason to repent his action, for Mehemet Ali's restless ambition was before long in active operation, once more sweeping him along the old path of intrigue. Finding how events were shaping, Kourshed Pasha ordered both Mehemet Ali and the Albanians to leave the country. Mehemet Ali feigned submission, but secretly he fomented a rising amongst the troops which led to the pillage of Cairo and the deposition of the Pasha. The overthrow of Turkish authority having been thus accomplished, Mehemet Ali was invited by the leaders of the military revolt to accept the supreme authority. Like some other famous characters in history, Mehemet Ali professed to be reluctant to assume the original honour sought to be conferred upon him, and like them he ultimately waived his scruples and forthwith initiated a strongly marked despotic régime with the title of Khedive, or Governor of Egypt. The Porte, alarmed at the turn which events had taken, endeavoured to get rid of the usurper by relegating him to Jeddah in the office of governor. But Mehemet Ali was too wily to be enticed away even by this tempting bait, and plainly intimated his preference for Cairo. The next move of the Porte was the despatch of a fleet to Alexandria to enforce submission to the Sultan's will. Before any active measures could be taken, Mehemet Ali's friends at Constantinople, aided by M. Drovetti, the French Consul in Egypt, had secured for him the pardon and favour of the Sultan. Barely had Mehemet Ali been confirmed in his post than the Ottoman Government, at the instance of the British Government, sought to re-establish the Mameluke power in Egypt. A firman to this effect was sent to Mehemet Ali, and in lieu of his governorship of Egypt, the Pashalic of Salonica was offered him. Again the astute Governor affected to submit, and, as before, he allowed his soldiers to force an open door by persuading him to remain in Egypt. Once more, too, he was restored to the favour of the Porte, though, as events proved, the reconciliation was only a nominal one.

Mehemet Ali's power did not extend beyond the walls of Cairo. The beys were hostile to his authority and resisted it wherever possible. Irritated at their attitude, Mehemet Ali meditated wreaking vengeance against them. The opportunity which he looked for was found in 1805. Early in August in that year a letter was sent to certain of the beys encamped outside Cairo, informing them that Mehemet Ali was going out in state on the morning of the 17th to officiate at the dam-cutting ceremony and inviting their attendance. The unsuspecting chiefs accepted the invitation and on the appointed morning marched into Cairo with their followers. When they had got well into the city they were fired on by soldiers who filled the houses on either side. A terrible scene of confusion ensued. A section retreated to the collegiate mosque El-Barkoskeiyeh hoping to obtain there the safety that was denied them in the streets. They were unmolested in the building, but having trusted themselves to their implacable foes on a promise of protection they were stripped naked and the bulk of them were butchered on the spot. The survivors were dragged before Mehemet Ali, who, sitting on his divan, looked with gloating eyes on the victims of his treachery. One of the beys, in the madness of extreme thirst, having asked him for a drink of water, the despot in mockery ordered the man to be untied that he might take the bottle. The frenzied victim detecting the deception that lurked beneath this seemingly humane act as soon as his hands were free snatched a dagger from a bystander and rushed towards the Pasha. Before, however, he could reach the divan, he fell covered by a hundred wounds.

After this tragic occurrence the Mameluke influence waned, and it would have flickered out altogether had not the British Government sought to prop up the beys by lending them the support of their powerful interest. In 1807 an expedition under General Fraser was sent to Egypt to aid in the restoration of the *status quo*. Landing at Alexandria on March 17th the troops, five thousand in number were well received by the inhabitants who were disaffected to Mehemet Ali. Intimation was sent to the beys of the arrival of the expedition, and an invitation was given to them to proceed to Alexandria to discuss the situation with the British chiefs. Meanwhile, acting on the representations of Major Misset, the British Consul, preparations were made to despatch a force to occupy Rosetta and Ramanieh, the possession of which was deemed necessary to ensure adequate supplies. The 31st Regiment and the Chasseurs Britanniques were despatched under the command of Major-General Wauchope for the execution of the duty. The troops met with no opposition on the road to Rosetta, and were even allowed to enter the town peaceably. But no sooner had the men dispersed in the narrow streets than the garrison opened a deadly fire upon them from the lattice windows and the roofs of the houses. With difficulty the little contingent extricated itself from the trap into which it had marched and retired on Aboukir and Alexandria. The casualties were extremely heavy; General Wauchope and three other officers were killed, and Brigadier-General Meade, the second in command was wounded together with seventeen other officers; altogether there were 185 killed and 262 wounded in the disastrous affair. The British authorities at Alexandria undeterred by the disaster, despatched to Rosetta a force of 2,500 men commanded by Brigadier-General Stewart. The town was bombarded by the artillery for thirteen days without producing much effect. Then, on April 11th, news having reached General Stewart of the approach of large reinforcements to the besieged, he decided to beat a retreat. He consequently sent directions to Major Macleod, who commanded the advanced guard at El Hamid, to fall back. Unhappily the messenger never reached his destination, and the advanced body standing fast was surrounded by a greatly superior force of the enemy. A gallant resistance was made for some time, and then, the ammunition failing, the force, or what remained of it, surrendered. The blow which thus fell on the British contingent was a heavy one. The advanced guard consisted of a detachment of the 71st Regiment, two companies of the 78th, one of the 35th and De Rolles' Regiment with a piquet of Dragoons—in all 733 men. General Stewart's force, when it returned to Alexandria, numbered 900 fewer than when it set out. Apart from the military reverse the British had to bear the humiliation of knowing that a great body of their race had been sent to Cairo to grace a triumph where their countrymen a short time before had been as conquerors. Finding that it was hopeless to look for co-operation from the beys, General Stewart re-embarked his depleted forces on September 11th.

CHAPTER XIII.

Mehemet Ali is ordered to conduct a Campaign against the Wahabees—Massacre of Mamelukes at the Cairo Citadel by Mehemet Ali's Orders—Pillage of a Portion of Cairo—Toussoun, Mehemet Ali's Son, commands the Expedition against the Wahabees—Second Expedition against the Wahabees conducted by Ibrahim Pasha—Mehemet Ali declares himself the Owner of all the Land in Egypt—His Military Organisation—Campaign in the Soudan—Massacre of Ismael's Force by the Tiger of Shendy—Soudanese Regiments Formed—Campaign against the Greeks by Ibrahim Pasha—The Battle of Navarino and Return of the Egyptian Troops—Ibrahim conducts a Successful Campaign in Syria against the Turks—The Pashalic of Syria granted to Ibrahim Pasha—Ottoman Troops invade Syria and are defeated—European Intervention—Restoration of Syria to the Porte.

BEFORE the British evacuation took place an event had occurred at Cairo which had greatly added to the power of Mehemet Ali. In 1810 the rise of the Wahabee movement in Arabia greatly alarmed the Porte, and looking around the Sultan thought he could have no better instrument to suppress the new cult than Mehemet Ali. His expectation and hope was that while the troublesome Governor of Egypt would exhaust his resources in the campaign he would give the Wahabees such a taste of warfare as to render them more amenable to reason. Mehemet Ali, astuter than his crafty suzerain, was quick to grasp an opportunity which offered such abundant promise of personal distinction. With a profuse expression of thanks to the Porte he prepared to send an army into the field. He realised, however, that to send away the flower of his troops and leave behind a large body of Mamelukes who hated his sway would be to deliver himself into the hands of the beys. Accordingly he determined to purge Cairo of the remnants of the Mameluke power which still found a home there. He executed his purpose with all the ruthless cruelty of the barbarian despot who is serenely content to wade through blood to the goal on which he has fixed his ambition. Summoning all the Mameluke beys in Northern Egypt to a friendly conference at the Citadel on March, 1811, he caused the entire body with their followers to be destroyed by his own troops whom he had placed in advantageous positions for the purpose. This hideous massacre, which has covered the name of Mehemet Ali with indelible infamy, is well described in an interesting chapter of Walpole's "Memoirs on European and Asiatic Turkey." After recalling the principal features of the winding road leading from the Citadel, which was the scene of the slaughter, the author says :—"Shahin Bey appeared at the head of his house. He came with the other chiefs to pay his respects to the Pasha, who awaited them in the great reception hall. He caused coffee to be handed round, and entered into conversation with them. The whole having assembled, the signal for departure was given ; each took the place assigned him by the master of the ceremonies. A corps of Dehlis, commanded by Uxoun-Ali, took the lead, then came the Wali, the Aga of the Janisaries, and the chief of the Commissariat, the Ojaklis, the Yoldashes ; next was Saleh-Kosh with his Albanians ; and following him were the Mamelukes, led by Soliman Bey, El-Bawab ; the infantry, the cavalry, and the officers of the government.

"The head of the column was ordered to descend along the steep road above described, towards the gate El-Azab, opening upon the place Roumeileh. But no sooner were the Dehlis and Agas fairly out of the defile than Saleh-Kosh gave orders to shut the gate, and communicated to his followers the Viceroy's command to exterminate all the Memlooks.

"The Albanians immediately turned round, and climbing to the top of the rocks on either side of the road, to be out of reach of their adversaries and to take a surer aim, fired upon them.

"Having heard the reports of the guns, the hindermost troops began in turn to fire from the summit of the rocks which afforded them protection. The Memlooks, who had reached the first gate, tried to take another route to return to the Citadel, but not being able to manage their steeds on account of the difficult position in which they found themselves engaged, and seeing many of their companions already killed or wounded, they alighted, abandoned their horses, and took off their upper garments. In this desperate situation they retraced their steps sword in hand, but no one would oppose them face to face ; they were shot down from the houses. Shahin Bey fell before the gate of Saladin's palace. Solyman El-Bawab ran half-naked to implore the protection of the harem, which among the Memlooks was looked upon as a sanctuary : but in vain ; he was dragged to the palace where the Viceroy gave orders to cut off his head. Others went to implore the mercy of Toussoun Pasha, who took no part in the transaction.

"Those who were not killed by the fire were dragged from their horses and stripped naked ; with a handkerchief bound round their heads and another round their waists, they were led before the Pasha and his sons, and by them ordered to immediate execution. Even there the suffering was aggravated, and, instead of being instantly beheaded, many were not at first mortally wounded ; they were shot in different parts of their bodies with pistols or stuck with daggers ; many struggled to break loose from those who held them ; some succeeded and were killed in corners of the Citadel or on the top of the Pasha's harem ; others, quite boys, of twelve or fourteen years, cried eagerly for mercy, protesting, with very obvious truth, that they were innocent of any conspiracy, and offering themeslves as slaves to the Pasha ; all these, and, in short, every one, however young and incapable of guilt, or however old and tried in his fidelity, the most elevated



MAMELUKES EXERCISING IN THE SQUARE OF MOURAD BEY'S PALACE.
(From Ainslie's "Views of Egypt," 1801.)

and the most obscure, were hurried before the Pasha, who sternly refused them mercy, one by one, impatient until he was assured the destruction was complete.

"Orders were now sent round to the troops to seize upon all Memlooks wherever they might be found, and no sooner were they taken than they were led before the Kiaya-Bey, who gave instant orders for their decapitation. Many individuals who were not included among the obnoxious party perished in spite of their innocence, so eager did the soldiers become in the work of carnage. The corpse of Shahin-Bey was dragged by a rope round its neck here and there through the city. The citadel was one vast bloody arena; the mutilated bodies of the dead encumbered the passages; on all sides were seen richly caparisoned horses stretched by the side of their masters; Sais, or foot-attendants, pierced with balls, broken weapons, and garments stained with blood; all the booty was given up to the soldiery. In the morning were counted four hundred and seventy mounted Memlooks; not one of them escaped from the massacre."

While this ghastly butchery was proceeding at the citadel the passage of the procession was anxiously awaited in the city. After a long interval the Dehlis with the Agas and their suite appeared. Almost immediately after, a number of terrified Sais passed, running at intervals without uttering a single word. This sudden flight had given rise to a thousand conjectures when a confused noise was heard and a voice exclaimed, "Shahin Bey is killed!" Upon this the shops were instantly shut and every one hastened to retire to his own house. The streets were soon deserted excepting by the soldiers who were rushing hither and thither intent on plunder. All sorts of atrocities were committed by these chartered ruffians. Women were insulted, their clothes were torn from their backs and it is on record that a soldier even cut off a woman's hand in order to more easily secure the bracelet that she was wearing. "The spoils," says Mr. J. A. St. John in his "Egypt and Nubia," "were incalculable. The houses of the Beys were rich; many among them were making preparation for marriage; furniture, costly stuffs, cashmere, and jewels had been bought. Not only were the houses of the proscribed sacked, but those in their neighbourhood underwent the same fate: on every side were seen traces of pillage. The city resembled a place taken by storm; no inhabitant appeared in the street; all waited in their own retreat the fate decreed them by destiny.

"The following day the soldiers indulged in the same excesses; murder and pillage continued. At length Mehemet Ali thought it his duty to descend from the citadel; he was followed by numbers of armed men on foot, in state costume. He traversed various quarters. At each post he severely reprimanded the chiefs for having permitted such crimes, but these, far from having attempted to restrain their men, had been the first to set the example of pillage. . . . . Next day Toussoun Pasha (Mehemet Ali's son) traversed the streets followed by a numerous guard, causing all those whom he found engaged in pillage to be decapitated. It was necessary to take the severest measures, for the city would otherwise have been completely ravaged. Nevertheless, the search after the Mamelukes was continued, and even the most aged and those who had never quitted Cairo were put to death."

Nor did the terrible proscription end here. Orders had been sent to the governors of the provinces to seize and put to death all the Mamelukes they could place their hands on, and from time to time the heads of unfortunates who had been murdered were sent to Cairo, bloody evidences of the fidelity with which the decrees had been executed. Altogether there perished on this occasion at a low estimate a thousand souls. The Mameluke women were spared, but it would have been better for most of them if they had shared the fate of their male relatives, for some were forcibly taken into the harems of the Pasha's favourites while others were left to pass a miserable existence in the streets.

When at length the Pasha's appetite for blood had been sated he turned his attention to the Wahabee expedition. Some eight thousand troops, including two thousand cavalry, were collected and these were placed under the command of Toussoun Pasha. At the outset Toussoun met with a serious reverse, but having received reinforcements in 1812 he besieged and captured in turn Medinah, Jeddah, and Mecca. Later the Wahabees recovered from their defeat and pressed so hardly upon Toussoun that in 1813 Mehemet Ali decided to take the field in person. He conducted on the whole a successful campaign and returned to Egypt in 1815 with a treaty he had concluded with the Wahabee chief Abdallah. In 1816 Mehemet Ali, dissatisfied with the conditions of the treaty he had made despatched another expedition to Arabia under his son Ibrahim. This leader began his campaign badly by losing half his forces in an abortive effort to capture the town of El Rass. But subsequently he retrieved his ill fortune by taking the Wahabee capital, El Direeyeh, and with it the Wahabee leader. Abdallah was sent under escort to Constantinople, but though he had Ibrahim's promise of safe conduct he was put to death as a traitor to the Ottoman cause in 1819.

While Mehemet Ali was absent in Arabia the Porte sought to undermine his authority by appointing a successor to him in the person of Lateef Pasha. This individual's tenure of power, however, was of the briefest. He was arrested by Mehemet Ali's deputy, and by his orders beheaded. The Porte retaliated by proclaiming Mehemet Ali an outlaw. The proscribed governor ignored the sentence, completed his campaign in Arabia, and returned to Egypt with all the prestige which attached to the saviour of the Holy Places of Islam.

A strong ruler in every sense, Mehemet Ali especially distinguished himself in those early years of power by civil decrees, which were tyrannical even in an Oriental despot. By one of these he declared himself in 1814 the owner of the entire land of the country, and intimated that all who were dwellers thereon were but labourers on his great farm, or at best but tenants at will. The men, says Warburton in his "Crescent and Cross," bowed tamely to this extraordinary exercise of authority, but the women rose tumultuously and exhorted some leading sheikhs to make a demonstration of resistance. One of the latter was arrested and executed on some pretence foreign to the occasion; the women were allowed to talk out their indignation, and land in Egypt became in due time the unquestioned property of the ruler. Another of Mehemet Ali's drastic measures of confiscation was the alienation of all the revenues belonging to religious institutions. This step created even more dissatisfaction than the decree relating to the land since it deprived a large number of persons of their means of subsistence. It is stated that at the mosque of El Azhar alone six thousand persons daily received alms, and two thousand slept within its walls. Protest, however, was of no avail in the face of the despot's determination to make his position good by any and every means in his power.

On the military side Mehemet Ali's efforts were directed to fashioning a force which would be an effective weapon for the defence of his existing possessions and the execution of his far reaching plans beyond the border. Inspired by memories of the great achievements of Napoleon he first endeavoured to construct an army on European lines with the aid of Christian officers. But the fanaticism of his subjects revolted against this association with the infidel, and the idea had for the time being to be abandoned. In anger at the frustration of his plans Mehemet Ali sent the mutinous troops to assist his eldest son Ismael to extend his sway southwards. Ismael advanced through Nubia claiming tribute and submission from all the tribes. Nemmir, the Melek (Tiger) or king of Shendy received him hospitably, and desired to know his pleasure. "My pleasure is," replied the invader (according to an interesting story told by Warburton in his "Crescent and Cross," on the authority of his dragoman). "My pleasure is that you forthwith furnish me with slaves, cattle, and money to the value of 100,000 dollars. "Pooh!" said Nemmir, "You jest; all my country could not produce what you require in one hundred moons." The young man, indignant at the tone or the purport of the reply, struck the Tiger across the face with his pipe; had he done so to his namesake of the jungle, the insult could not have roused fiercer feelings of revenge; but the human animal did not show his wrath at once. "It is well," he replied. "Let the Pasha rest: *to-morrow he shall have nothing more to ask.*" The Egyptian and the few Mameluke officers of his staff, were tranquilly smoking towards evening, entertained by some dancing girls whom the Tiger had sent to amuse them, when they observed that a huge pile of dried stalks of Indian corn was rising rapidly round the tent. "What means this?" inquired Ismael angrily; "Am not I Pasha." "It is but forage for your Highness's horses," replied the Nubian, "for were your troops once arrived the people would fear to approach the camp." Suddenly the space was filled with smoke, the tent curtains shrivelled up in flames, and the pasha and his comrades found themselves encircled in what they well know is their funeral pyre. Vainly the invader implored mercy, and assured the Tiger of his warm regard for him and all his family; vainly he endeavoured to break through the fiery fence that girded him round; a thousand spears bore him back into the flames, and the Tiger's triumphant yell and bitter mockery mingled with his dying screams. The Egyptians perished to a man. Nemmir crowned with savage glory escaped up the country, and married the daughter of a king, who soon left him his successor, and he lived long afterwards to defy Mehemet Ali's power.

The tragic end of Ismael did not deter Mehemet Ali from prosecuting his scheme of military conquest in the south. In process of time a very large tract of country, embraced in what is now described as the Soudan, was brought under his sway. Still intent on building up an army he conceived the idea of utilising the inhabitants of the conquered provinces as raw material for his new force.

Some thirty thousand natives were collected by his agents in Sennaar and Kordofan and sent to Assouan to a camp of instruction controlled by Colonel Sène, a Napoleonic soldier, who having embraced Mahomedanism disguised his identity under the Arabic name



IBRAHIM PASHA.
(From "Rambles in Egypt and Candia," 1837.)

Suleiman. No better success attended this experiment than the previous one. The black soldiers in the colder latitudes of Cairo contracted pneumonia and other chest complaints and died off like flies. Such was the waste from disease and other causes that in a comparatively short period, of the original force only a single regiment remained. Mehemet Ali now turned his attention to the raw material to his hand in fellaheen. Forming a camp at Farshoot he drafted to it the conscripts as they were torn from their native villages. No expense was spared on the training. Military instructors in considerable numbers were obtained from France, barracks were erected, military schools established, and the best equipment that money could buy was obtained. Meanwhile the insurrection of the Greeks supplied what seemed to Mehemet Ali a good opening for testing and strengthening his organisation and at the same time of restoring himself to favour at Constantinople. He promptly offered his services in the suppression of the rising, suggesting that he should be allowed to send troops to the Morea for the purpose. The Porte eagerly accepted his aid. Money was never plentiful at Constantinople and there was special reasons at this period why the assistance of the sultan's masterful vassal should be acceptable. With characteristic energy Mehemet Ali devoted himself to the task of preparing for the expedition. The whole country became one vast military workshop and training ground, and to supply the pressing financial demands which arose in consequence, the last piastre was squeezed from the unfortunate fellaheen. At last the arrangements were complete, and in 1824 a powerful fleet consisting of sixty-three sail, with one hundred transports sailed from Alexandria for the Morea. The force thus despatched included sixteen thousand infantry and seven hundred cavalry. It was commanded by Ibrahim Pasha, whose previous experience in the field well qualified him to lead this Egyptian contingent. The subsequent history of the expedition need not be related here at length. It is only necessary to say that Ibrahim Pasha made a succe-sful descent on Candia and afterwards showed good qualities as a commander in Greece. But the intervention of the European Powers in the struggle brought to a disastrous end the attempts to restore the Turkish authority. The Egyptian fleet was involved in the naval cataclysm of Navarino, and the remnants of Ibrahim Pasha's force had to find their way back to Egypt as best they could. As a reward for his services to the Potre Mehemet Ali had conferred on him the Pashalic of Crete. This was a dubious compliment which the ruler of Egypt did not at all appreciate. What he had expected was the Pashalic of Syria, the possession of that country being necessary for the fulfilment of his far-reaching designs which embraced a dominion over the whole of the Arabic speaking countries. Accepting the gift for the nonce, Mehemet Ali made preparations for a struggle which he knew he must enter upon in the not distant future. The battle of Navarino had impressed upon him the value of sea power, and he set himself to build up a navy which would be a match for almost any force that could be brought against it. By dint of lavish expenditure he managed in a few years to supply himself with a really formidable naval force. Then he threw down the gauntlet to the Porte. The excuse for making war was found in the harbouring of some Egyptian deserters by Abdallah, Pasha of Acre. A demand was made for the delivery up of these refugees, and it was curtly refused. Thereupon Mehemet Ali sent Abdallah notice that "he would come and take them with one besides." As good as his word, Mehemet Ali sent his son Ibrahim with an army of twenty-four thousand infantry and four thousand cavalry to operate against Acre. After a six months' siege the place fell. Immediately afterwards Ibrahim Pasha with thirty thousand men advanced on Damascus, which opened its gates to him, the army of the Sultan, commanded by Mahommed Pasha, retreating northwards. Following up the Ottoman forces, Ibrahim Pa-ha eventually brought them to bay, and a great battle was fought which resulted in the complete rout of the Sultan's army, with a loss of two thousand killed, three thousand prisoners, and many guns. The Sultan's army rallied at Bailan, the heights of which they fortified with artillery. The Egyptians, after a preliminary cannonade, carried the position at the point of the bayonet. Now thoroughly disorganised, the Ottoman forces retreated through Silicia and the Koolak Boghaz Pass into Asia Minor. Konia was hurriedly evacuated on the approach of Ibrahim's army, and much artillery and munitions of war fell into the hands of the Egyptians. The news of these successive triumphs caused the utmost consternation in Constantinople, and the Sultan, as a measure almost of despair, appointed Reshid Pasha as generalissimo of his forces and grand vizier to make one supreme effort to stay the invader. Ibrahim meanwhile had taken up a strong position in the vicinity of Konia, and was occupying his time in exercises to familiarise his troops with the ground. The advanced guard of the Sultan's army was easily defeated on December 18th, and thereafter Ibrahim in his lines calmly awaited the onset. A heavy mist coming on as the Turkish forces advanced appeared to favour the attack, but it actually tended to their disadvantage since it prevented them from taking up advantageous positions. When the air suddenly cleared Ibrahim Pasha quickly noted that in the gloom a space had been left between the cavalry and the left wing of the infantry of the advancing force. Taking immediate advantage of this he ordered his cavalry to charge between the two sections of the enemy's line. The manœuvre was completely successful. The Turks were thrown into the utmost confusion. A part of the infantry managed to retreat and to take with them sixty out of eighty pieces of artillery. But the Grand Vizier was taken prisoner and one regiment of cavalry and two of infantry surrendered. This crowning disaster placed Constantinople at the mercy of Ibrahim Pasha, and he would inevitably have taken it had not the Russian Government intervened to save the Sultan. A plain intimation was given to Mehemet Ali by a special envoy sent from St. Petersburg to Alexandria, that if the advance was continued on Constantinople it would be opposed by all the forces of Russia on sea and land. Mehemet Ali, yielding to the inevitable as gracefully as he could, withdrew his forces on the condition that his original demand for the Pashalic of Syria should be granted to him. The Porte, thankful to have escaped from utter extinction, gladly conceded this point and the Taurus Range became the limits of Mehemet Ali's dominions. On his part, the astute Eastern Napoleon agreed to pay the Porte the tribute which was ordinarily claimed by it from this part of its dominions. He did so because he realised that his safety from European intervention depended upon his maintaining a connection with the Turkish Empire. As a separate entity he would be a mark for the attack of any designing maritime power which might think itself strong enough to despoil him; as an integral part of the Ottoman Empire any aggression on him would provoke the ill-will of the other European Powers.

The Sultan was far from accepting the situation so philosophically as the Governor of Egypt. He brooded over the humiliation to which he had been subjected, and prepared to wreak his revenge by reorganising his army and improving his fleet. In 1839



THE SULTAN ABDUL MEDJID.
(From Sir David Wilke's Oriental Sketches, 1843.)

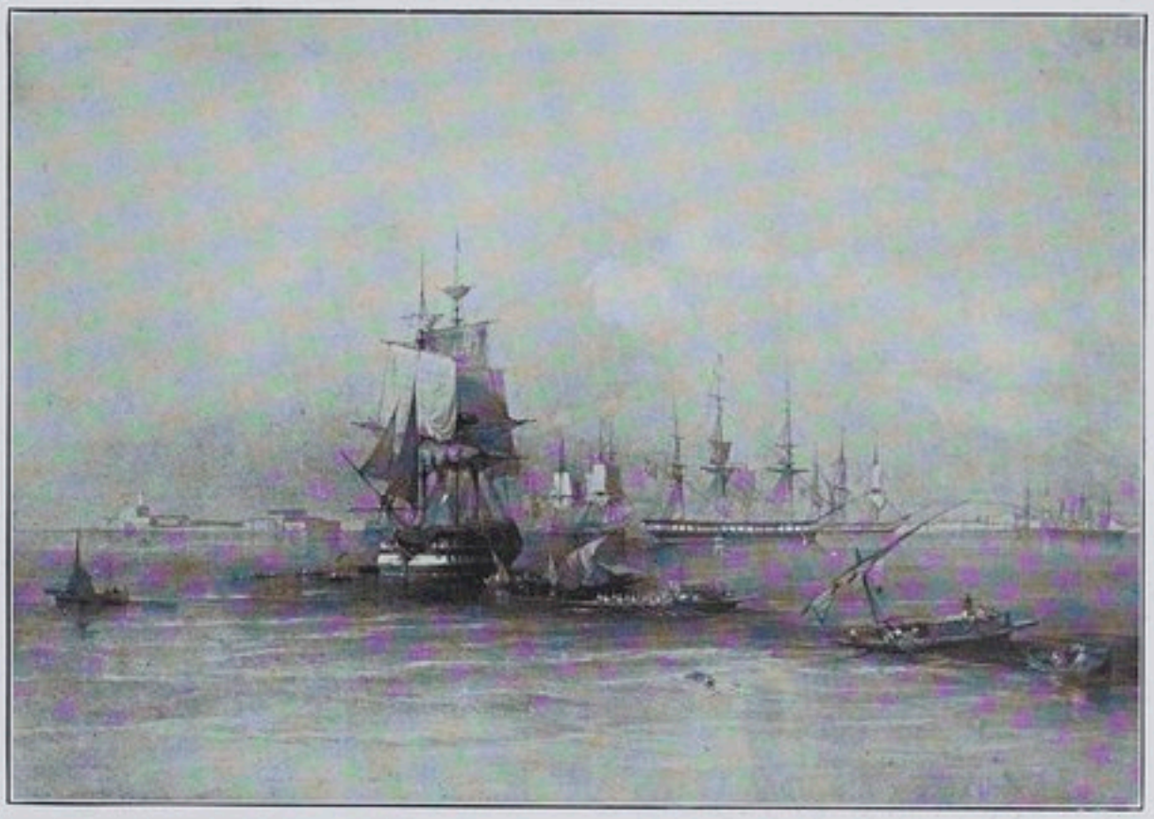
he felt strong enough to take the initiative, and despatched an army into Syria under Hafiz Pasha. The Ottoman forces were met by Mehemet Ali's army at Nezib. The result of the battle was another crushing defeat of the Turks. The victory left

Mehemet Ali stronger than ever in Syria. But he had again to reckon with the European Powers, who did not relish the prospect of the establishment of this formidable new Mahomedan power on the flank of Turkey. In August, 1840, there arrived at Alexandria a Turkish vessel of war conveying a Turkish envoy and agents representing Great Britain and Austria charged with the duty of submitting proposals from the European Powers to Mehemet Ali relative to the position in which matters were left by the battle of Nezib. The Viceroy was called upon to evacuate Syria and to restore the Turkish fleet which he had captured. In return for this he was offered the possession of St. Jean d'Acre for life, and it was further intimated that his Governorship of Egypt would be made hereditary. As soon as Mehemet Ali got scent of the mission of the envoys he retired to Mansourah on the Nile, so as to be out of reach of their solicitations. Meanwhile, Walewski, Napoleon's natural son, appeared on the scene as the envoy of France, and so worked upon Mehemet Ali's feelings that he was induced practically to reject the proposals. With true Oriental finesse he clothed his decision in a cloud of words. He caused the envoys to be informed that he intended to occupy Syria until he had time to secure the Sultan's consent to his humble solicitation to be permitted to retain the government of that country, and that with respect to the fleet it was merely held in safety for his master for the time being. The envoys were not to be put off in this fashion, and they pressed for a plainer answer to the question they had come to ask. The Pasha, thus driven into a corner, after a devotional declaration that he was in the hands of God and that his trust was in Him, intimated to one of the consuls that as he had gained Syria by the sword he intended to hold it by the sword. However, he did not act up to these brave words. Finding that France, upon whom he had relied for support, was not prepared to back him up, he in 1841 agreed to a treaty which restored Syria to the Porte.

CHAPTER XIV.

Mehemet Ali and his European Employés—Cerissy's Report upon the Arsenal at Alexandria—The Naval School and Dock—Cotton Cultivation—Sugar Refinery—Educational Measures—Consultative Council formed—Mehemet Ali's Character—He disperses his Harem—Ibrahim Pasha assumes the Reins of Government—His Death—Mehemet Ali's Death.

MEHEMET ALI'S disappointment at the frustration of all his plans, which the conclusion of the compact relating to Syria implied, was intense. Up to the last almost he had hoped to accomplish his purpose of creating a great Arabic empire, and had made extensive preparations for a decisive struggle. His navy was a favourite toy. Upon it he lavished money without stint. To advise him he called in a host of European adventurers, some of whom were little qualified to discharge the difficult duties which were associated with the construction of a fleet. When one of his friends reproached him with the facility with which he allowed himself to be deceived by a set of ignorant quacks, he made a remarkable reply. "I know," he said, "that among fifty men who come from Europe to offer me their services, forty-nine are only to be compared to false stones. Without testing them, however, I cannot discover the only genuine diamond that may be among them. I begin by buying them all, and when I discover the true one he repays me by a hundredfold the loss I have incurred by the others." One of the "true ones," to adopt Mehemet Ali's phrase, was M. Cerissy, an accomplished Frenchman, whose name is identified with some of the best work accomplished at Alexandria at this period. When this expert appeared upon the scene Mehemet Ali had already expended a million upon his arsenal, and almost his first request to M. Cerissy was that he would report on that place. Cerissy, who was very plain spoken and rather abrupt in his manners, made, says Madden, the short but pithy report that everything that had been constructed until then was good for nothing, and that even the spot selected for the arsenal was totally unfit for such a purpose. Mehemet Ali was so impressed with what he heard that he immediately gave orders for the demolition of the old building and the construction of a new one. The basin was excavated, the necessary earth was provided, and in four years' time several of the largest men-of-war were launched from the new and now completed arsenal.



ALEXANDRIA (SHOWING MEHEMET ALI'S FLEET AT ANCHOR).
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

The effective naval force of Egypt at this period was 28 vessels armed with 1,428 guns and carrying 20,190 men. The largest vessels carried an armament of 104 guns (30-pounders), and each was manned by a crew of 1,200. In connection with the arsenal, says the author of "Egypt and Mehemet Ali," was a naval school containing 1,200 pupils, who were instructed, clothed, and entirely maintained at the expense of the Government, each of them receiving in addition a monthly stipend of from twenty to one hundred piastres. There were in addition to this establishment two purely naval schools held on the ships *Acre* and *Mansurah* afloat. The conditions were the same as those obtaining at the arsenal school, with this difference, that each pupil received a monthly stipend of one hundred piastres. Amongst the pupils was the Viceroy's son, Said Pasha. The Egyptian navy made an imposing display afloat, but it carried within it the germs of premature decay, for in spite of repeated remonstrances Mehemet Ali allowed the ships to be constructed of wood that was too new.

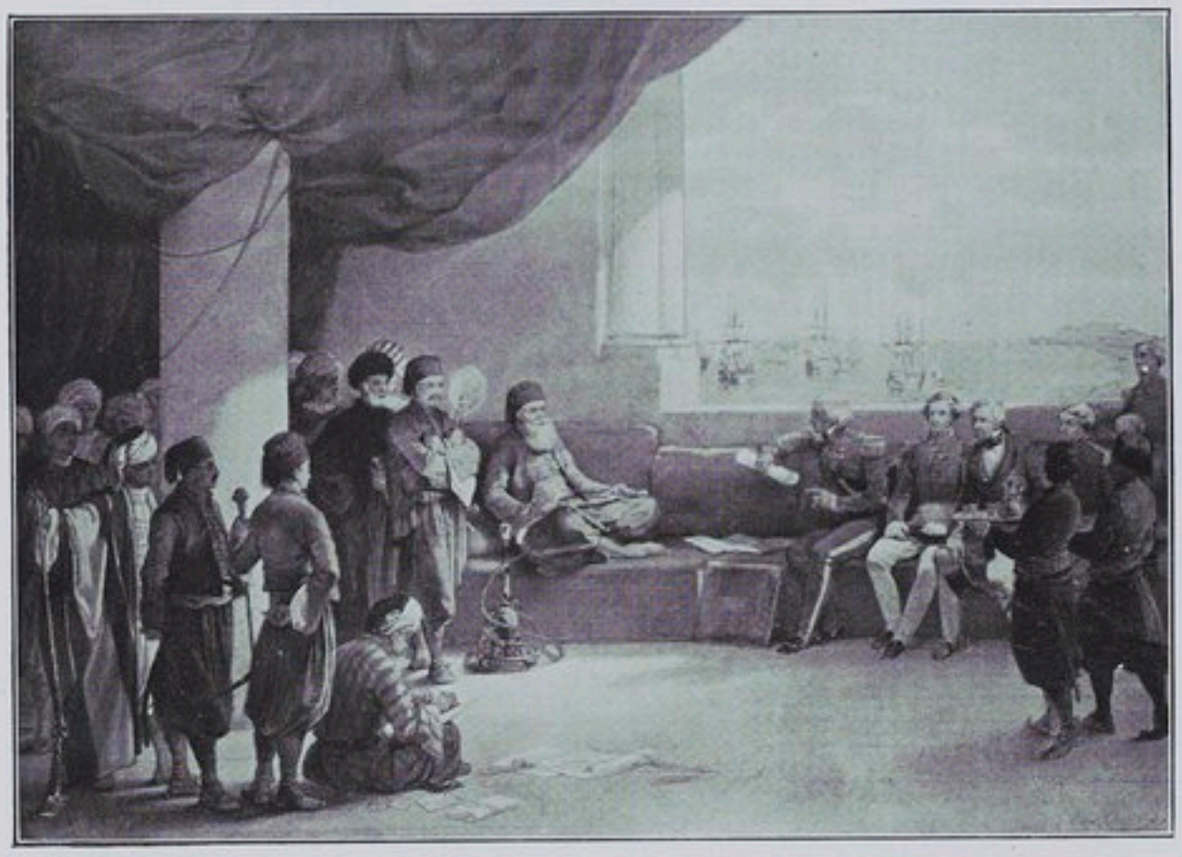
To better accommodate his ships of war Mehemet Ali had a dock excavated at Alexandria at enormous cost. As the site was not of the best, and the sandy soil rendered the undertaking one of dubious durability, one of the consuls took occasion in the early stages of the scheme to attempt to dissuade

Mehemet Ali from the project. "Your Highness is only throwing your money into the sea," he said, with the privileged intimacy of an old acquaintance. "Allah Kherim," replied the Pasha, philosophically, "for many years I have been doing nothing else." This was far from being literally accurate, for vast as was Mehemet's expenditure at Alexandria on the naval and other establishments there it was only a part of his colossal disbursements. Besides being supreme on the sea, he aimed at securing a reputation as a great practical administrator. Under his auspices cotton cultivation was first started, and by that means a new and highly lucrative industry was acclimatised in Egypt. He also established in all directions factories of various kinds with the object of emulating in Egypt the achievements of great mercantile nations such as Great Britain, of whose wealth he had increasingly impressive testimony, as the opening of the overland route brought in its train a great development of commercial intercourse between Great Britain and India. One of the Pasha's undertakings was a sugar refinery which he established at Ereramoun. A writer who visited the place about the year 1841 gives an interesting description of the concern. Originally, he says, the establishment was under the direction of an Englishman, whose death, occurring very suddenly, was attributed by Mehemet Ali's enemies to poison. After this another European took over the management of the establishment, and it was carried on with considerable activity. "The sugar," says the writer, "is neither so good nor so cheap as it might be; in the first place, from the faulty system adopted by the Pasha in collecting the molasses, and secondly from the prejudices of the consumers, who require that it should be clarified in strict accordance with the precepts of the Koran. Instead of the canes being brought to the refinery, the saccharine matter is expressed from the cane by the growers, and the Viceroy's proportion brought in a liquid state to Ereramoun—an ingenious method of extracting molasses and taxation by the same operation. The liquor is then mixed with a proportion of water; a small quantity of milk is added to clarify it, and, after being boiled, is poured off into earthenware moulds, made in the usual sugar-loaf shape, the top being covered with clay, and a hole left in the small end for the molasses to exude. This is the first process of clarification, and most of the sugar remains in this state and is sold for seventy paras per pound (fourpence three-farthings). The second process consists in breaking up and re-boiling this sugar with eggs, repeating the operation of claying. The sugar that has undergone this second clarification sells for the enormous price of eight piastres per pound (one shilling and ninepence). I was informed that the number of eggs used in this second process is inconsiderable, rendering this vast difference in the cost of the two qualities the more extraordinary, for it is difficult to imagine that the mere repetition of the operation of boiling could occasion an advance of upwards of 300 per cent. in the price. The operation of clarification would of course be performed more readily and cheaper by the use of blood, but as that is prohibited by the Mahomedan law, recourse is had to a more expensive substitute. Dear as this causes the viceregal sugar to be, yet it nevertheless always finds a sale, as no good Moslem will allow a drop of coffee to pass down his faithful throat if sweetened with any other than orthodox sugar. This is the only sugar refinery in Egypt, and the quantity made amounts annually, I was informed, to forty thousand quintals (one hundred pounds French, each). . . . The quantity of rum distilled at Ereramoun amounts to from two to three thousand quintals per annum. It is placed in large reservoirs lined with lead, in which it remains a year, when it is again submitted to the process of distillation, after which it is poured into hogsheads. It is of a very fiery nature (twenty-three degrees), and is coloured in the usual way with burnt sugar. . . . The total number of persons employed is about two hundred. The price of labour varies from 25 to 80 paras per day. Some of the principal workmen are paid as high as five piastres."

Side by side with Mehemet Ali's trading operations were prosecuted a number of administrative measures of a somewhat advanced character for a Mahomedan country. He established primary schools in populous centres, and introduced a novel form of compulsory education. A trifling gratuity was in the first place given annually to all children who attended, and if this inducement did not produce the desired result the emissaries of the Government were sent into the highways and the byways to collect pupils by force. About the year 1840 there were fifty of these primary schools, and the scholars in them numbered 5,000. In the more advanced schools some 4,000 pupils were instructed. Altogether in the public schools of the country there were at this period about 10,000 pupils. In addition about 20,000 pupils, it was estimated, received instruction at private schools or endowed medressehs for instruction connected with the mosques. In 1825 a school of medicine was established under Clot Bey at Cairo for giving a training in Western methods. By 1840 some 500 young men had passed through its portals. In 1826 Mehemet Ali initiated a system of sending young men to European countries, chiefly France, to obtain the benefits of Western education. On their return the youths were given employment in the Government service either as masters in the schools or in the executive branches of the army and navy.

From the first Mehemet Ali's educational measures met with great opposition from the people. People were not alive to the benefits of knowledge. Moreover, there was grave mistrust of the motives which prompted the Viceroy to push forward with these schemes. Popularly the schools were associated with conscription, and according to Clot Bey, parents sometimes mutilated their children in order to prevent them being entered in the schools.

The introduction of a public educational system went a long way in the direction of the adoption of Western methods, but Mehemet Ali was not content with this. To shelter himself from the odium that some of his measures might excite amongst the people as well as to keep open the breach



LIEUTENANT WAGHORN INTERVIEWING MEHEMET ALI ON THE SUBJECT OF THE OVERLAND ROUTE.

(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia," 1846.)

that has been effected between the Sultan and his Turkish adherents, Mehemet Ali called to his assistance a council, consisting of some thirty or forty of the principal officers of state and ministers, to whose consideration all the acts of his Government were submitted ere they were promulgated. "The sittings of the Council," says Madden, in his well-known work, "are constant; but its functions are deliberative only; for no act originates with it – nor is it permitted to discuss the merits of any other matters than those submitted for its opinion and advice. Each member gives his opinion separately and in writing, but the Council being composed entirely of the dependents of the Viceroy, it cannot be supposed that it is in the habit of thwarting his views. Indeed, the French chambers under Napoleon *in prosperity* were hardly more compliant."

Mehemet Ali's character was a remarkably complex one and some curiously contradictory pictures of him have come down to us from those who knew him personally and had an opportunity of making acquaintance with his administration. Madden,

writing of him, says:—"There are things to admire in the anomalous character of Mahomed Ali. In his legal tribunals he discountenances senility, is disposed to have justice impartially administered, and leans towards mercy in all judicial proceedings; and capital punishments are seldom or never carried into effect. He is tolerant, moreover, in religious matters. . . . Though his intellectual powers have been greatly over-rated, he has qualities that ought to have made him, if not the founder of an empire, at least a prince whose power was not destined to be shaken in his latter years. . . . During the five and thirty years he has reigned over Egypt he has wonderfully augmented the produce of the soil. . . . When he took possession of the Government the people were oppressed by their improvident rulers; but the removal of the Beys only paved the way for an organised system of well regulated rapacity such as the people of Egypt in all the periods of their misery and slavery had never groaned under; and the Government of the Beys, even when the country by the badness of their rule was most insecure for strangers, was a mild one for the people when compared by them, as it now is, with that of Mahomed Ali."

Describing Mehemet Ali's system of regularised oppression, Madden says, "There is no advantage in the cultivation of the soil except for Mahomed Ali. Every date tree on those lands is heavily taxed, every kind of produce is similarly burdened, and the farmer is compelled to sell him the produce at his own price. The harvest may fail, the crops may be scanty, the date trees may be blighted, and there may be no proceeds to pay the taxes. The unfortunate holder of the land pays in person when he cannot pay in purse; he is flogged with a severity proportioned to the largeness of the sum he is unable to pay; and as it generally happens he attributes the blight of the trees or the scantiness of the crop to the remissness of the fellahs in irrigating the land, the unlucky fellahs are laid hold of by the soldiers and they are beaten with sticks, or scourged on the naked feet and legs with the courbash; and there is not a village in Egypt where these periodical atrocities are not perpetrated by the servants of Mahomed Ali.

"The constant punishments that are going on in every town and village have driven the people mad, and I verily believe, from one end of Egypt to another, there is not a man, woman or child, capable of labouring, that does not execrate the name of Mahomed Ali. There is no mistake about this; go where one may, there is nothing but curses on his head, and even frightful wishes expressed for vengeance on him and his family. One of these people openly declared in a boat when I was recently going up the Nile, that 'he would die happy if he could cut the throat of Mahomed Ali and drink his blood.' This demoniac sentiment was spoken aloud in the presence of thirteen or fourteen Arabs, and every man of them hailed the wish as a sentiment of his own mind. The unfortunate wretch who expressed it had voluntarily deprived himself of an eye, to escape being taken by the Pasha for a soldier. Another of our boatmen was minus a finger for the same object, and several had their front teeth extracted in order that they might be declared unfit for service, in consequence of being found incapable of biting the cartridge."

As opposed to this sketch may be presented the impression supplied by Warburton in his "Crescent and Cross." "Severe but not cruel," says this writer, "Mehemet Ali relentlessly swept from his path every opponent of his power; yet he was never known to cherish vengeance or to punish for a personal offence towards himself. Enthusiastic to credulity, he eagerly listened to the golden promise of adventurers; and out of their many schemes of advantage he has realised the wealth of a cotton trade, olive plantations, sugar factories, and the more doubtful prosecution of other branches of industry. He abolished the power of punishing by death, until lately vested in the governors of provinces; he established a consistent system of taxation, which, though greatly abused by his officers, is tolerably just in its construction. He called in the aid of European skill to instruct his people, indifferent to the prejudices it raised against him; he tolerated all religions and discountenanced fanaticism. With regard to this latter I may mention an anecdote



GHAWAZI OR DANCING GIRLS (ROSETTA). CAIRENE LADY WAITED UPON BY A GALLA SLAVE GIRL. FELLAH. NUBIAN FEMALES.

(From the "Oriental Album," 1848.)

illustrative of his character. Some Europeans attending his levee, he observed that his servants made use of the left hand, which is considered impure in presenting coffee to his guests; while the Christians were present he took no notice of an insult of which they were unconscious; but, immediately on their retiring, he sent for the servants and thus addressed them. 'As you seem to think yourselves dishonoured in paying due respect to my guests, you shall no longer run the risk of having your prejudices thus offended. Depart instantly for Mecca; there you may exercise without control the fanaticism that is preferable in your eyes to good manners.'"

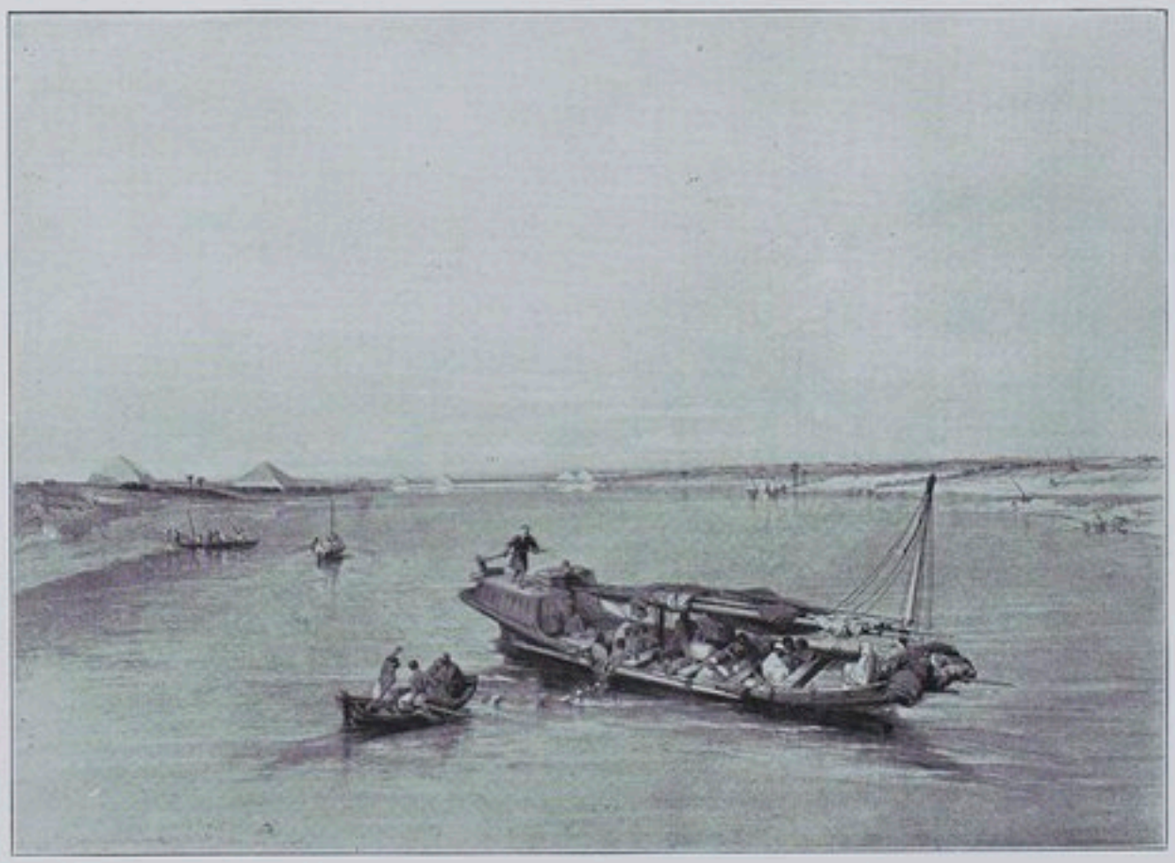


DISTANT VIEW OF ALEXANDRIA.
(From "Rambles in Egypt and Candia," 1837.)

As a pendant to this character sketch may be given a vigorous pen picture, which is to be found in Leon's "The Khedives Egypt." "Mehemet Ali," says this writer, "created not only an empire, but a people out of the dozen different nationalities which then, as now, constitute the strange amalgam we vaguely term Egyptians. Everywhere throughout Egypt and its dependencies the hand of the mighty master is still to be seen in the traces it has left—from the Mahmoudieh Canal, connecting the waters of the Nile with the Mediterranean, to the fairy-like pleasure-gardens of Shoubra, near Cairo; from the gigantic, but still uncompleted barrage or breakwater of the Nile, to the grand old sycamore trees, which give their beautiful shade to the gardens and the roads round Cairo and Alexandria. . . . He brought order out of chaos; he invited and encouraged European immigration, and especially European merchants, to develop the rich resources of the country, neglected and despised by the warlike chieftains, who had been ruling it with a rod of iron, and making it the theatre of perpetual little local wars. Yet his mistakes, like his successes, were on a great scale; and inherited by his successors too. Entertaining the notion so common to uneducated minds, that a country to be independent and prosperous should produce within its own borders everything requisite for the use of its population, he sought to put this idea into practice in Egypt. Nature had made Egypt agricultural; Mehemet Ali determined that she should be manufacturing too! Regardless of expense he imported large quantities of costly machinery with skilled operatives at high wages, erecting vast mills all over the Delta that manufactures on a large scale might be produced. The skeleton ruins of these mills, many of them still filled with the rusty remains of the machinery left there when the failure was manifest, attest the cost of the lesson given this Eastern Canute, whose will was to over-ride all natural laws. . . . He also strained the country by his lavish expenditure, and it is curious to read in the annals of his contemporaries of the straits to which he was often reduced, and his sudden and inexplicable command of money from no visible source."

Whatever differences of opinion there are about Mehemet Ali's character, all writers are agreed that he was personally a charming man. His conversation was frank and savoured with an attic wit. His manners were courteous and dignified, and he was always accessible to Europeans properly accredited—perhaps a little too much so for his personal comfort and for the interest of the country. Dr. Madden, describing him when in his seventy-second year, says: "He is about five feet six inches in height, of a ruddy fair complexion, with light hazel eyes deeply set in their sockets and overshadowed by prominent eyebrows. His lips are thin, his features regular, extremely changeful, yet altogether agreeable in their expression when he is in good humour. At such times his countenance is that of a frank, amiable, and highly intelligent person. . . . He sleeps but little and seldom soundly; he is said by his physicians to be subject to a determination of blood to the head, attended with epileptic symptoms which recur with violence when he is under any unusual excitement. He rises early—generally between four and five—receives every one who comes to him, dictates to his secretaries, and has the English and French newspapers translated and read to him."

"The Pacha, amidst all the reforms he has introduced, has thought proper to leave untouched the old habit of exacting the most profound submission from his grown-up children. When Seid Bey (a remarkably fine little boy of nine years old), who as yet resides in the palace of the women, or the harem of the Pacha, pays his weekly visit every Friday to his father, he enters the reception hall with his eyes downcast and his arms folded and dares not walk up straight to his father's presence, but makes the circuit of the divan slowly and abashed and at length stops at a respectful distance before the Pacha, approaches and kisses the hem of his garment, retires modestly and stands again with folded arms and downcast looks; after an interval of two or three minutes the



SLAVE BOAT ON THE NILE.
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia.")

Pacha salutes him, beckons him to his side, and then he is permitted to talk to his august father."

To complete these interesting character sketches of the great founder of the Khedivial house we must give the following delightful description of him in the privacy of his harem, which is to be found in Leon's entertaining pages: "Like all Eastern rulers, the grim old warrior, nursed from boyhood in the lap of war, was to a certain extent a voluptuary; although he never allowed his pleasures to interfere with his duties or his ambitious schemes. The gleaming white walls of the Palace of Ras-el-Tin, which first strike the traveller's eye on entering the harbour of Alexandria, mark one of his favourite resorts. Another was the Garden of Shoubra, near Cairo, in which he built a spacious kiosque of white marble, embowered in tropical foliage, where the golden orange glows in the midst of the dark green foliage and the senses ache with the perfume of roses and other fragrant flowers. It was a lofty-building in the form of a hollow square; and in the central open space, over which there was no roof, like the old impluvium, was an artificial lake, about four feet deep, paved with marble, with an elevated marble resting place in the centre. Here, when his beard was like snow, and his blood circulated more slowly, the old man was wont to repair, to relax mind and body from the cares of State. Perched on this central seat he would amuse himself for hours, watching the gambols or the fright of his harem women, who he would cause to be rowed or paddled about in small boats around this mimic lake, at a secret signal from himself to the boatmen causing them to be upset in the water and witnessing with delight their struggles afterwards."

Some years before he died Mehemet Ali dispersed his harem. The operation was carried through in peculiar fashion. On a given day the leading functionaries of the Government were directed to attend at the palace to receive at the hands of the Pasha the gift of a wife from his harem. As the expectant bridegrooms assembled they were keenly scrutinised from a latticed window by the ruling lady of the household, and she subsequently allotted to each the bride who seemed best suited to him. It is said that the distribution by no means gave unalloyed joy to the officialdom of that time, since the wives they were so peculiarly united to, unlike the bulk of Mahomedan spouses, had to be taken for "better or worse," since divorce was out of the question in their cases.

Mehemet Ali's infirmities grew upon him as he advanced in years. He suffered terribly from insomnia, and under its effects his brain weakened until he became practically insane. At length his son Ibrahim assumed the reins of government. He did so with the approval of the consuls, who recognised that if matters were left in Mehemet Ali's hands the results might be serious to the country's interests. Ibrahim, however, was himself in no condition to undertake the burden of the country. He was stricken with a mortal disease very soon after he was invested with power, and died after a reign of two months. Mehemet Ali survived him for a short period. He died on August 3, 1849.

CHAPTER XV.

Abbas Pasha's Reign—Threatened Expulsion of the Greek Colony during the Crimean War—Death of Abbas—Ghastly Farce enacted to conceal his Demise—Said Pasha's Accession—His Magnificent Fêtes—His Irrigation Works—Employs Robert Stephenson to construct Railways—Grants Lesseps a Concession for the Construction of the Suez Canal—The Foundation laid of the Public Debt—Said's Closing Years and Death—Lord Cromer's View of Said Pasha—A Railway Accident changes the Succession—Ismael succeeds—His Character—Firmans granted by the Porte settling the Succession on the Reigning Prince's Eldest Son, granting the Governor of Egypt the Title of Khedive, and constituting him a Practically Independent Sovereign—Ismael's Reforms—Nubar Pasha, Cherif Pasha, Riaz Pasha, and Ismael Sadyk Pasha.

With the disappearance of Ibrahim and Mehemet Ali from the scene, a new era was opened in Egypt. Ibrahim's successor was his nephew Abbas, a gloomy saturnine sensualist, who cared nothing for reform, and hated Europeans with a fanatical hatred. Mr. De Leon, who knew him personally, describes him in his book as "swarthy, with a scanty beard, short and stout of figure, with a bloated sensual face and dull cruel eyes." He states, however, that "there was both energy and intelligence manifested in this repulsive countenance when warmed into interest or animation on any matter that touched him nearly." Moreover, his manners, like those of all high Turks, were bland and polished. Abbas was the son of Toussoun, who did not live to enter upon the heritage his father had created. His uncle, Said, son of Mehemet by a young wife, would under the ordinary rule of succession have been the new Khedive but for the fact that he was younger than his nephew, and the firman regulating the matter decreed that the succession should pass to "the eldest male of the blood of Mehemet Ali." Abbas endeavoured to have this rule set aside in favour of his son, El Hami, and to that end did his best to cultivate good relations with the Porte. He paid unmurmuringly the heavy tribute demanded by the Sultan, and sent El Hami to Constantinople to show his personal regard for his suzerain. The Sultan on his part was not slow to reciprocate the prince's advances. He took the young man under his guardianship, bestowed upon him the hand of one of his daughters in marriage, and generally treated him with extreme favour. The succession question would probably have been ultimately arranged had not El Hami, who was of a festive turn, met with an untimely death by drowning while on a pleasure excursion in the vicinity of Constantinople.

Abbas did nothing to promote the progressive measures which had been set on foot by his great ancestor. In fact, his reign was a period of distinct retrogression. The one achievement to his credit is the construction of the railway from Cairo to Alexandria, which was forced upon him by the urgent representations of the British, who stood in need of the improvement of their communications with India. Apart from this undertaking, he did his utmost to discourage the employment of foreigners, and he allowed commerce to languish rather than call in the aid of European experts who could have materially aided its development. In his dealing with his own subjects he was despotic to a degree. His word was law, and woe to the man who attempted to thwart him.

On the outbreak of the Crimean War the Sultan called upon Abbas to assist him in the struggle. Abbas responded promptly to the call, and contributed both money and men to support the Porte. An order arriving from Constantinople for the expulsion of the entire Greek Colony with the exception of those members of the community who were enrolled as Christian subjects of the Porte, Abbas prepared to carry out the cruel measure. He would actually have done so had not the American Consul General taken the Colony under his protection, as he was privileged to do under the old capitulations. Abbas accepted the situation imposed upon him by the forceful representative of the Great Republic philosophically. When asked by a representative of one of the Powers why he had not enforced the edict, he shrugged his shoulders and said, "What can I do? These people have obtained another protection, and I cannot interfere with them without insulting a great nation."

After a brief and inglorious reign, Abbas died in July, 1854. His end came with tragic suddenness, but how it was brought about was never known. The popular belief was that he was strangled in his sleep by two boy slaves who had been sent to him by a kinswoman from Constantinople. Elfy Bey, the Governor of Cairo, was instantly summoned from Cairo to the Benha Palace, where the deed was executed. On arrival he gave peremptory orders that no one should divulge the Khedive's death. Afterwards he took extraordinary measures to perpetuate the notion that Abbas was still living. Mr. De Leon, who took a prominent part in the subsequent proceedings and learned at first hand the details, tells the story of this

ghastly farce played by Elfy Bey in these words:—"Ordering the state carriage to be brought to the private entrance, assisted by the head eunuch, he placed the body in a sitting posture within it and taking his own seat opposite, as usual, drove the twenty miles to Cairo surrounded by guards and the usual state in this ghastly companionship. He reached the citadel at Cairo with his mute companion without exciting suspicion, and once there caused the guns of the citadel to be pointed on the city, strongly reinforced the garrison and declared the truth, together with his intention of proclaiming El Hami Viceroy in defiance of the rights of Said. This purpose he was induced to abandon on representations of Sir Frederick Bruce, the English Consul General, and myself—both then at Cairo—and our friendly as well as formal warning that such action on his part would be treasonable, induced him to abandon the design and invite and welcome the new Viceroy to Cairo, whither he came and was installed without delay. The days of that governor were not long in the land, as he died very soon and very suddenly thereafter, removed doubtless by some superserviceable courtier—for the character of Said forbade even the suspicion of his complicity in any act of treachery or cruelty."

El Hami, adds Mr. De Leon, was generously treated by Said, who allowed him to retain the bulk of his father's fortune and showed friendly dispositions to him; but he died early and with him ended the line of Abbas, whose wealth, too, passed away like an exhalation in the hands of his improvident and reckless son.

Said Pasha was a man of a totally different character to the gloomy voluptuary who had so dramatically passed from the stage. He was bright and witty, and fond of European society, for which he was fitted by his education, his irreproachable knowledge of French, and not least by his excellent taste in cookery and wines. Mr. De Leon compares him in complexion, beard, face, and figure, to Henry VIII., only, strangely enough, he did not emulate that monarch in his extensive domestic tastes. He was the husband of one wife, the Princess Ingee Khanum, the most charming and accomplished of Eastern women. "His figure was large and muscular, indicating the immense personal strength which increasing corpulence and illness marred in his later years. His eyes were small though bright and he did not, like most Turks, keep them habitually half closed; but they had none of the sleepy languor of his race, but flashed with fun or blazed with anger, as his excitable temper and changing mood moved him. . . . His readiness of wit and the charm of his conversation (conducted in French, which he spoke as his mother tongue), rendered him a delightful companion; and he was convivial at the table without going into excess—drinking wine in moderation ever of the most superior quality. His 'French cook,' who was an Arab, used to prepare for the breakfast dishes worthy of the most famous Parisian restaurants. Generous to a fault, and liberal to prodigality, he pushed those virtues to excess and was deceived and preyed upon by many whom he rewarded and trusted until, like most princes, he became soured and distrustful in later days."

The Pasha's hospitable instincts led him to give magnificent fêtes to which all the European world of Cairo was invited as well as the leading Cairenes. He also gave frequent dinner parties which brought together all the principal heads of the heterogeneous society which centered in his capital. At these functions the Viceroy and the members of the consular body dined at the head of the table on a raised platform, and here the entire service at each remove was of gold. The ladies of the harem, of course, were not visible at these entertainments, but unseen by the guests bright eyes peeped down upon them, the harem wing giving a view of the banqueting hall so that the Princess and her visitors could amuse themselves with the spectacle. Said



ISMAEL PASHA.
(From a print in the British Museum.)

Pasha, however, was something more than a *flaneur* and a *bon vivant*. He inherited all his father's love of the grandiose and soon showed that it was his ambition to emulate his policy of encouraging works of utility. The great Delta Barrage, which was sadly hanging fire, was put in hand once more and other irrigation works were executed. Robert Stephenson's aid was sought to extend the railway system, and the firm foundations were laid of the existing system of communications, while telegraphs were constructed, steam pumps and steam machinery of all kinds were introduced, and agriculture stimulated in every way. Model villages, too, were built to improve the lot of the fellah, with whom the Viceroy sincerely sympathised. But the achievement of all which will make Said Pasha and his reign famous was the granting to M. De Lesseps of the concession for the construction of the Suez Canal. The story of this colossal undertaking is told elsewhere, and it is only necessary here to say that though it was Ismael's support which carried the project through it was Said's generous patronage of the famous Frenchman in the critical initial stage which made the scheme possible.

Under Said's enlightened rule Egypt prospered amain. The annual volume of trade reached the then unheard-of figure of six million pounds per annum, and the revenues kept pace with the increase in imports and exports. The American Civil War, by stimulating the cotton trade, contributed in a large degree to this prosperity, but had it not been

for Said's personal exertions and encouragement the advantage accruing from this cause would have been much less than it actually was. Perhaps the circumstance least to his credit is that he laid the foundation of that public debt which in after years was to be as a millstone round the neck of Egypt. To a great extent there was value left for the money in the shape of a growing railway system and useful public works; but the way was pointed to the slippery slope of loan raising and Said's successor was only too eager to enter upon it.

Said's closing years were clouded with misfortune. Mr. De Leon gives a pathetic sketch of him as he saw him in the summer of 1862 in Paris, whither he had gone to consult a famous surgeon as to the internal disease which was then destroying him. "His increasing feebleness was rendered more perceptible from the huge bulk of his body, swollen and flaccid by disease. But his mind seemed still vigorous, though his eye was dull; and his manner had lost little of its old charm, and his powers of retort were as keen and caustic as ever. He saw and submitted to his rapidly approaching doom with the blended stoicism of the fatalistic Turk and the resignation of the French *philosophe*, both of which characters were blended in his. He died shortly afterwards and was interred, not among others of his line, who had stately mausoleums near Cairo, but in the burying ground of a small mosque in the centre of Alexandria, where his mother's remains also rest."

Lord Cromer, in his great work, "Modern Egypt," takes a very different view of Said's character to that above outlined. He charges him with "excessive vanity and hopeless incapacity in the art of government." He says that although he was less ferocious than his immediate predecessor, he occasionally committed acts which would be considered extremely cruel had their iniquity not been outrivalled by the deeds of Abbas. In illustration of Said's character he cites this story which was related to him: "On one occasion Said was coming in a steamer from the Barrage to Cairo. The Nile was low and the steamer stuck in the mud. Said ordered the *reis* (steersman) to receive a hundred blows with the courbash. These were administered. The steamer was got off the mud and proceeded on her journey. Shortly afterwards she stuck again. Said roared out, 'Give him two hundred,' whereupon the unfortunate *reis* made a rush and jumped overboard. A boat was put off and he was brought back to the steamer. Said asked him why he had jumped overboard. The man explained that he preferred to run the risk of death by drowning to the agony caused by another flogging. 'Fool,' exclaimed Said, 'when I said two hundred I did not mean lashes but sovereigns.' And accordingly the man received a bag containing that amount of money." Another of Lord Cromer's anecdotes relates how on one occasion Said being irritated by accusations of cowardice brought against him in the European Press caused a kilometre of road to be strewn a foot deep with gunpowder, and then, with lighted pipe in his mouth and followed by a numerous suite, all of whom were ordered to smoke, walked solemnly along the road.

Ibrahim Pasha left two sons—Achmet and Ismael—the elder of whom, under the peculiar rule of succession followed, would have succeeded on Said Pasha's death had he not himself been removed from the scene under tragic circumstances some years previously. The episode which made this breach in the line created a great sensation at the time and may be briefly related. Said, in 1858, gave one of his great fêtes at Alexandria and invited to it as a matter of course all the members of the reigning family. Ismael was prevented from attending by indisposition, but Achmet and Halim, a younger brother of Said, accompanied the special train which left Cairo with illustrious guests for the fête. When the train approached the river the English engine driver saw to his horror that the swing bridge across the stream had been by some mischance left open. He shut off steam and reversed the engine, but the action was too late to prevent a catastrophe. The train with a rush dashed down the slope and fell into the river fifty feet below, involving nearly the whole of the passengers in a terrible death. Prince Halim escaped by forcing open the carriage door and jumping out while the carriages were suspended for an instant on the brink of the flood. Slanderous tongues were not wanting to suggest that Ismael had a hand in this terrible business. But Mr. De Leon, from his knowledge of Ismael's character as well as from his inquiries on the spot, is convinced that Ismael was innocent of all complicity in the transaction which was the result of carelessness. Mr. De Leon, in discussing the matter, indulges in some interesting speculations as to what would have happened if Achmet instead of Ismael had come to the throne. "Achmet was by nature and habit one of the most prudent and conservative of human beings—the exact reverse of a prodigal; in fact, accused of avarice and inordinate love of money; addicted not to spending but to hoarding, and in character and temper exactly the reverse of his brother. . . . So far did Prince Achmet carry his economies that he often received his foreign friends, who called at his palace in the evening after dark, by the light of no chandelier or lustres attached to the walls, but in a chamber illuminated by the ordinary *fanous* or glass lantern with two candles borne by respectable citizens in traversing the streets by night before patrols were instituted at Cairo. He would have economised the public funds as he did his private fortune, which was very large, but Egypt would have stood still, not advanced, under his reign. . . . He was a man of honour and courage, most truthful and reliable in all he said and did, devoted to agriculture, and incapable of cruelty or dishonesty. But he was better fitted for a private station than a throne; and had he lived and reigned most probably the Suez Canal, and the other great public works which will hereafter record the enterprise of the Khedive Ismael, long after his loans and the Egyptian debt have been forgotten, would never have been Egypt's dowry on her bridal with Europe."

Whatever may have been Ismael's shortcomings he certainly could not be accused of penuriousness or lack of enterprise. This was shown from the very beginning of his reign, and as his policy developed startling evidence was forthcoming of the existence of traits the very opposite to those possessed by Achmet. As soon as he was fairly in the saddle he set himself to remove as far as possible the irksome control of the Porte. He expended enormous sums on the furtherance of this object and eventually, in 1866, three years after his accession, obtained an imperial firman removing almost all the old treaty restrictions and granting him the title of Khedive. This was followed by the issue, on June 9, 1873, of another firman in which the succession was settled on the eldest son of the Khedive, and recognition was given to "the unlimited authority of the Khedive to make internal laws and regulations for the government of Egypt, . . . to enter into commercial or other treaties with foreign powers," and "to increase his army and navy as he sees fit, with the exception of ironclads which are forbidden." The last-named proviso notwithstanding, the firman may be regarded as constituting the Khedive an independent sovereign to all intents and purposes.

Very early in his reign Ismael Pasha adopted the *rôle* of a reformer. Inspired as none of his predecessors had been by the example of his great progenitor, the first of the line, he addressed himself to the task of the regeneration of Egypt on Western lines. With a sound perception of what constitute the soundest foundations of successful government, he made the establishment of an education system one of his first duties. He found in existence, on mounting the throne, the skeleton of the system which Mehemet Ali had provided, and he worked upon that, calling to his aid for the purpose a number of European educational experts with, at their head, Dor Bey, an able Swiss who had discharged similar functions in his own country. The system set up under the auspices of these officials embraced two classes of schools—primary and government establishments. The primary schools had a course which extended over four years, and children of all creeds and nationalities were freely admitted either as boarders or day scholars. Fees were arranged according to the means of the parents. Those who were wealthy paid £26 per annum for the board of their children; others less prosperous paid reduced fees; while the children of really poor parents were admitted free. This principle applied also to the day schools. The concession of free education was not made, however, without exacting a return. All non-paying pupils were considered to be at the call of the government when their education was completed, and the more promising of them were drafted into the public service either as teachers or in some other capacity. The government schools, so called, were designed to provide education of a technical and special character. They embraced a medical college, an establishment at which the higher mechanics were taught, and a polytechnic school for training officers of the Army. Perhaps the greatest innovation of all at this period in the domain of education, was the establishment by one of the Khedive's wives of a school for females. Utilising one of the palaces as a school house this enlightened princess got about her a staff of teachers and sent out invitations to the leading ladies of Cairo to send their daughters to be educated. The startling novelty of the proposal for a time prevented a response to the appeal and for some weeks an array of empty benches confronted the staff. At length a few more advanced ladies had the courage to send their daughters. This broke the ice and soon the school became embarrassingly popular, the accommodation proving all too small for the numbers who were clamouring to be admitted. Associated with this new departure at the palace was a scheme for the education of the female children of the fellah class. Ismael's notion was to train up these girls for domestic service so that in due time they would be able to take the place of the slaves who as he once confessed to a European friend "were a great expense and a great nuisance." The curriculum was arranged in keeping with this idea. For five days in the week the girls were instructed in the duties of a household and taught how to use the needle, and during the other two days they were given ordinary school lessons. Before many years had elapsed the educational

system thus established had attained very respectable dimensions. By 1873 the pupils who in Mehemet's time had only numbered six thousand, had increased to about ninety thousand, and of these no fewer than three thousand were girls.

In other branches of the government Ismael showed an equally praiseworthy zeal on behalf of reform. He remodelled the Customs system on Western lines to the great joy of the traders who had acutely suffered under the oppressive and effete system which had long obtained; in 1865 he took over from private hands the postal arrangements, and engaged the services of an official from St. Martins-le-Grand, London, to organise an Egyptian Post Office on thoroughly modern lines. The army was reorganised with the aid chiefly of American officers whose services Ismael had been induced to secure by the influences of the great Civil War which had just terminated. The railways were extended and improved, a telegraph system was established, harbour works were constructed at Suez and the port was made safer by the provision of lighthouses, and a breakwater was constructed at Alexandria which immensely improved the facilities of that port. But, of course, the public work with which Ismael's name will ever be associated is the Suez Canal, which during his reign was carried to completion and opened in circumstances fully described in another part of this work.

Ismael had as his advisers a body of ministers of varying degrees of moral worth, but all men of considerable ability. Four pashas occupying respectively the offices of Ministers of Commerce, Foreign Affairs, Justice and Finance, stood out conspicuously. Nubar Pasha, the first of the four, was a remarkable personage whose name lives as that of the greatest statesman that Egypt in modern times has produced. An Armenian Christian, a member of a proscribed and hated race, he yet contrived to occupy a dominating position in Egyptian politics for a long period of years and at the same time to retain the favour of successive viceroys. The wonderful influence he exercised was due, there can be no doubt, to his exceptional personal qualities. Lord Cromer relates, on Nubar Pasha's own authority, an interesting story which goes to show this. "He and others were on board a steamer which was conveying Ibrahim and his suite from Constantinople to Egypt. On nearing Alexandria Nubar learnt that Ibrahim had suddenly decided that the members of his suite, including Nubar himself, should be thrown overboard. Thereupon Nubar went to Ibrahim's cabin, entirely ignored the fate which awaited himself and his comrades and began to talk to Ibrahim of his campaigns. Ibrahim was so much pleased at the flattery which was abundantly administered to him, and also so much interested in all that Nubar said, that for the moment he forgot his recent decision. The conversation continued until the ship arrived at Alexandria. Thus Nubar and his companions were saved." His appearance at the period of Ismael's prosperity, as described by Mr. De Leon, was prepossessing. He was, we are told, "Of medium height, with swarthy complexion, dark eyes and hair, regular features, and a most winning smile, gifted with rare conversational powers, and courteous, almost caressing in manner and speech." He spoke and wrote all the principal languages of Europe with equal facility and he was conversant with European affairs to a quite exceptional degree in the case of an Egyptian official. Firmness was one of his chief characteristics and though usually the pink of courtesy, he could on occasion be frank almost to the point of rudeness. His success was probably greatly promoted by his family connections. He graduated in diplomacy under his kinsman, Boghos Bey, one of the ablest counsellors of Mehemet Ali. His brother, Arakel Bey, in the time of Said Pasha, was governor of the Soudan and died at his post there from the effects of the climate, and a nephew, the son of this Arakel Bey was Governor of Massowah and perished fighting with Arendrup in Abyssinia.



NUBAR PASHA.

The Foreign Minister, Cherif Pasha, was to some extent a rival of Nubar Pasha, but the two men were remarkably dissimilar. Cherif Pasha was a Mahomedan by birth and faith and conformed though not rigorously to Eastern forms of faith. He married a daughter of Suleiman Pasha (the French Colonel Séves) before alluded to, and rather cultivated the French style. Mr. De Leon draws this sketch of him as he knew him: "In appearance, as in mind and character, Cherif is the direct opposite of Nubar—fair, florid, with light hair and eyes, the former of which is turning grey. His manner and address are frank and cordial, more those of a soldier than a diplomat. He is a man to whom deception would be impossible; his easy, careless manner and open face would betray him, if he ever attempted it, which he does not. He is clever and quick witted and a most agreeable companion socially, entertaining much and liberally. His strongest passion is for the chase, and like

Nimrod he is a 'mighty hunter before the Lord.'"

Riaz Pasha, the third member of the quartette was a younger man than the other two. He acquired his training for public life under Nubar, and enjoyed a reputation for integrity and capacity. Of a totally different type was Ismael Sadyk Pasha, Ismael's Minister of Finance at this period. Mr. De Leon describes him graphically in some of the most entertaining pages of his work. Born and bred an Egyptian fellah without training or talent of the ordinary kind, he "ruled not only the country, but seemingly his master also with a rod of iron for ten years, through some strange influence which no man in or out of Egypt can comprehend." Attracting the attention of Ismael when serving in a humble capacity on one of the Khedivial estates, he rose gradually to the post of Mouffetich, or Finance Minister. According to the author of "Egypt under the Khedives," he was the evil genius of Ismael, the man who directed his steps into that dubious land of financial shifts and expedients, through which he passed ultimately to ruin and his country to bankruptcy. "He was reputed, from his early training and experience, to understand better than any man in Egypt how to 'squeeze the fellah,' which meant to wring the last para out of the poor wretches by the threat or use of the terrible kourbash, or hippopotamus hide whip, in the hands of agents as unscrupulous and merciless as himself."

CHAPTER XVI.

Ismael's European Employés—Establishment of the Mixed Tribunals—Nubar's Dismissal—Ismael's Financial Embarrassments—Sale of the Suez Canal Shares to Great Britain—An Expedition despatched to Abyssinia—Troubles at Zanzibar owing to Ismael's Pretensions—Mr. Cave reports upon the Affairs of Egypt—Fall of Ismael Sadyk—Lord Goschen's Investigations and Report—Egypt on the Verge of Bankruptcy—Introduction of European Officials—Establishment of the Caisse de la Dette—Lord Cromer arrives in Egypt.

WHILE the ministers described in the last chapter were the chief instruments of Ismael's policy, he had also at his call a great body of European officials whom he brought into the public service to carry out his wide-reaching schemes of public improvement. The impulsive Khedive showed little discrimination in his choice of these agents. "The Europeans into whose hands Ismael threw himself," says Lord Cromer, "were but too often drawn from the very class which he should most of all have avoided. Many were adventurers of the type represented in fiction by M. Alphonse Daudet's Nabab, whose sole object was to enrich themselves at the expense of the country. Moreover, few of those who exercised any influence in matters connected with the government of Egypt possessed sufficient experience of the East to enable them to apply wisely the knowledge which they had acquired elsewhere to the new conditions under which they were called upon to work." The foreign colony, in these circumstances, waxed fat at Egypt's expense, and in due course the finances, the railway, the docks and harbours, in fact everything but the army, had passed into foreign hands. As for the Khedive he allowed himself, says Mr. De Leon, "to be treated as Gulliver was in the land of Lilliput—tied down by thousands of small threads, until he could neither move hand nor foot of his own volition."

One prominent result of the great influx of Europeans into Egypt, and the increase of their influence, was the establishment of the mixed tribunals. This was the work of Nubar Pasha, although for a long time previously proposals to establish international tribunals of a similar character had been under discussion in Turkey. Nubar's objects in setting up this system were sketched in an able memorandum he submitted to the Government. The old system he denounced in this communication as an arbitrary one—"a system founded on precedents more or less improper, and one which the force of circumstances—pressure on the one side, and anxiety to facilitate the establishment of foreigners on the other—have introduced into Egypt a system which really leaves the administration without power, and the people without any regular justice in their intercourse with Europeans." With the increase of the European colony the necessity of a reform increased. "The Government sees itself attacked by lawsuits, which frequently the consuls themselves are compelled to stigmatise as scandalous. The native population distrusts the European; the Government, which nevertheless sees progress in this same European is obliged, for fear of being victimised, to keep aloof from him. For more than forty years the European has enjoyed the right to hold property in Egypt. His possession is said to be subject to the tribunals and laws of the country. The consuls in theory are agreed on this principle, but in practice, under pretext of the capitulations, which they say cover the European, the latter being either owner of a house or carrying on a trade, pays no duties; and if, being an owner of an estate, he does not pay land tax, then the consul interferes, and his interference almost always ends in non-payment. This state of things, contrary to the spirit and even the letter of the capitulations, not only hinders the country from developing its resources, from furnishing to European industry and capital all that it is ready to furnish, but puts an obstacle in the way of its organisation, and ruins it alike, morally and materially." Nubar then went on to elaborate his scheme, which proposed, in the place of the mixed tribunals of commerce at Cairo and Alexandria, the establishment of two judicial tribunals, presided over in each case by an Egyptian, but with two of the four members, which it was contemplated would compose them, appointed by the consuls. Besides these courts Nubar suggested that there should be established at Alexandria a Court of Appeal, to be composed of three Egyptian members and three other members, "competent judges obtained from Europe by application to their respective Governments." A further proposal was that by the side of the two mixed tribunals there should be two tribunals to decide in civil suits, such tribunals to be composed of two Egyptian and two foreign judges, and presided over by an Egyptian. Nubar's design in framing this scheme was at one and the same time to curb the absolute power of the Khedive and restrain the Consuls-General; while he cleverly sought to bring the European population under the jurisdiction of the Egyptian element by giving the latter the casting vote on the tribunals. The astute minister's plans, much to his disappointment, largely miscarried. Objections were urged from Constantinople to the proposal to place all the inhabitants of Egypt, whether natives or Europeans, under the mixed courts, and the consuls also strongly opposed the whittling down of their authority to the vanishing point. Ultimately criminal jurisdiction, as far as it relates to Europeans, was withdrawn from the cognisance of the courts, reserves were enforced in regard to civil jurisdiction, and the controlling voice in the courts was decreed to be European, and not Egyptian. It was a tremendous change which was thus introduced into the administration of Egypt. At one stroke the despot had been converted into the constitutional monarch whose power is circumscribed by courts of justice. All unconscious of what the new system implied for him Ismael signed the decree establishing the new tribunals. Later on, when he came to realise how much he had parted with, his rage knew no bounds, and Nubar was sent to meditate in the retirement of private life on the ingratitude of rulers.

Some years before this judicial revolution was finally consummated by the opening of the courts in 1875 lowering clouds had been gathering on the Egyptian financial horizon. The troubles arose out of the extravagance and incompetence of Ismael. Money had been poured out like water on all sorts of objects, mostly useless or at all events unproductive. "Luxurious, voluptuous, ambitious, fond of display, devoid of principle, he was at the same time," says Lord Milner, "full of the most magnificent schemes for the material improvement of the country. Over and above the millions wasted in entertainments, in largess, in sensuality, in the erection of numerous palaces—structurally as rotten as they are æsthetically abominable—he threw away yet other millions upon a vast scheme of agricultural development, started with

inadequate knowledge at inordinate cost." To finance his enterprises he raised money at extravagant rates of interest. The three millions at which the public debt stood when he mounted the throne increased by the end of 1876 to ninety-one millions. A crushing burden was imposed upon the country in order to meet the liabilities incurred under those loans. The taxation of land increased during the reign by fifty per cent., and wherever money could be squeezed out of the wretched population by Ismael's creature, the Mouffetich, it was extracted. In one year alone this tyrant is said to have raised no less than fifteen millions by his oppressive exactions. Another view of the misgovernment is presented by Lord Cromer in his book. "Estates representing about one-fifth of the arable land of the country," he says, "had passed into the hands of the Khedive, and these estates, instead of being farmed out to the dispossessed proprietors, were administered direct by the Khedive and cultivated to a great extent by forced labour." "No single measure," adds the great Pro-Consul, "contributed more than this to render the existing régime as intolerable to the people of Egypt as it was rapidly becoming to the foreign creditors."

Amongst other expedients adopted by Ismael to keep his head above water financially, was the sale to the British Government of the Suez Canal shares. These shares, 176,602 in number, are estimated to have cost him from first to last £5,280,000. He sold them to the British Government for £4,000,000. The price was a fair one at the time. Indeed, severe criticisms were raised against the transaction on the score of the excessive price paid for the shares. No one, however, now questions the excellence of the bargain, either from the financial or the political standpoint. The four millions secured by Ismael did little more than to relieve his most pressing necessities, and at the end of 1875, the Right Hon. Stephen Cave, the Paymaster-General of the then home Government, was sent out, with the assent of the Khedive, to overhaul the accounts and, if possible, prescribe a remedy for the disease from which the Egyptian financial system was so severely suffering.

A circumstance which had considerably added to the Khedive's financial embarrassments at this period was the outbreak of hostilities with Abyssinia. A small force obtruding into the sphere of influence of the King of Abyssinia had been cut up, and to avenge the insult Ismael made preparations for the despatch of an expedition to secure satisfaction. In spite of the British protests a great Egyptian force was assembled at Suez, and from thence transported to Massowah. It consisted of sixteen thousand men of all arms, and was under the command of Prince Hassan, with Ratib Pasha as chief of the staff, and a number of American officers also holding leading positions. An entrenched camp was established at Goura, betweeen Massowah and Adowa, and near there on February 17, 1876, a battle took place in which the Egyptians were signally worsted.

Another incident which greatly damaged Ismael, in the eyes of the British nation at least, was the advance of a preposterous claim to the overlordship of Zanzibar on the ground that the territories belonged *de jure* to the Sultan, and that he was authorised to occupy them. The British Government lodged a strong protest against this usurpation, but its representations were for a time unheeded At length matters were brought to a head at the close of 1875 by the outrageous conduct of the Egyptian force in occupation of the island. On the occasion indicated Dr. Kirk, the Consul-General, had landed from H.M.S. *Thetis*, with the senior naval officer on the station, when he was confronted by a body of soldiers, who hustled him and his companion, and ultimately drove them off. An apology was demanded from the Egyptian officer in command for the insult, and the *Thetis* clearing for action drew towards the shore to support it. Seeing how matters stood the Egyptian commander apologised just in time to prevent a catastrophe. After this a plain intimation was given to the Egyptian Government that they must withdraw their troops or bear the consequences. This secured an abandonment of Ismael's ridiculous pretensions.

Mr. Cave's report, when published in the spring of 1876, deepened the distrust with which the situation in Egypt was regarded. He spoke of Egypt as suffering "from the ignorance, dishonesty, waste and extravagance of the East, such as have brought her Suzerain to the verge of ruin, and at the same time from hasty and inconsiderate endeavours to adopt the civilization of the West." He denounced the dishonesty and peculation which everywhere prevailed, and after making certain proposals relative to the payment of the debt, concluded by recommending that the Khedive should place a person who would command general confidence, such as the Financial agent sent out by Her Majesty's Government, to take employment at the head of a control department, which would have a general supervision of the incidence and the levying of the taxes. Early in 1876 Mr. (afterwards Lord) Goschen representing British, and M. Joubert as the upholder of French interests, proceeded on a supplementary mission accredited on behalf of the bond-holding interests to devise a means of escape from the financial tangle into which the Khedive's affairs had got. Their investigations caused a great stirring of the muddy waters of Egyptian financial administration. It was made clear to the vultures which had fattened on the spoil wrung from Egypt by her oppressors that a day of reckoning was coming. The chief among them, the notorious Ismael Sadyk, true to his treacherous instincts, sought to save himself by making revelations and threatening others involving the fair fame of his master. By so doing he sealed his own doom. One day the story went out that the Khedive had personally taken the Mouffetich for a drive, placed him securely in custody, and intended to have him tried for high treason. On the following day, November 15, 1876, an official statement was published in the *Moniteur Egyptien* to the effect that the ex-Minister of Finance had sought to organise a plot against the Khedive by exciting the religious sentiments of the native population against the scheme proposed by Messrs. Goschen and Joubert, that he had also accused the Khedive of selling Egypt to the Christians, and that "in presence of such acts of gravity the Khedive caused the matter to be judged by his Privy Council, which condemned Ismael Sadyk Pasha to exile and close confinement at Dongola." Nothing authentic was ever heard of the fallen minister after this. It was given out some time after his disappearance that he had died at Dongola "from fatigue, grief and excess," but the popular belief was that he did not survive his arrest twenty-four hours. Lord Cromer, in a foot-note in his work, says there can be no doubt that he was murdered in a boat while proceeding up the Nile. Whatever his precise fate, his disappearance created an immense sensation amongst the native population. They saw in his sudden fall from the highest altitudes of power to the lowest depths, the hand of a remorseless fate working out its revenge for a thousand crimes perpetrated on a down-trodden and inoffensive people. From the standpoint of Egyptian reform Ismael Sadyk's removal was of exceptional value, as it left the way clearer to the introduction of a purer system of administration.

The task which Mr. (afterwards Lord) Goschen and his colleagues had to undertake, onerous in itself owing to the natural dislike which was entertained to the turning of the searchlight on to the dark corners of Egyptian administration, was rendered doubly difficult by the terrible confusion in which the accounts were found. Their inquiries, to adopt the words of Lord Vivian, the British agent, "soon disclosed false accounts, glaring discrepancies, and evident suppressions of sources of revenue." One striking example of the manner in which the accounts were falsified is given by Lord Cromer in his work. "Relying on the only figures which were at the time available, Lord Goschen took the net railway receipts at £900,000 a year. Some time afterwards it was discovered that, to the extent of £300,000 a year, these receipts were fictitious. In the first place a considerable sum was paid every year for the movement of troops, an item which under a well regulated system of accounts would have been shown as an inter-departmental transaction. In the second place it was discovered that any of the Khedivial family or their friends, and boon companions of the Khedive, who wished to travel by rail, rarely went by the ordinary trains. They frequently ordered special trains for which they paid nothing, merely signing a document, termed a 'ragaa,' intimating that the train had been ordered by the Khedive, and that its cost was to be charged to him. The money was of course never paid to the Railway Administration. Nevertheless, these book entries were treated as real receipts in the figures furnished to Lord Goschen."

Laxity of account keeping went hand in hand with graver evils, not the least of which was the corruption of the officials. A passage in Mr. Cave's report supplies a vivid picture of the system which prevailed at the time of his investigations. "From the Pasha downwards," he said, "every office is a tenancy at will, and experience shows that while dishonesty goes wholly or partially unpunished, independence of thought and action, resolution to do one's duty, and to resist the peculation and neglect which pervade every department, give rise to intrigues which, sooner or later, bring about the downfall of honest officials; consequently those who begin with a desire to do their duty give way before the obstructiveness which paralyses every effort. The public servant of Egypt, like the Roman pro-consul, too often tries to make as much as he can out of his office while it lasts; and the scandal takes place of the retirement, in a few years with a large fortune, of a man whose salary is perhaps, £40 a month, and who has plundered the treasury on the one hand, and the peasant on the other." Glaring inequalities of taxation added to the general impression of misgovernment. There was no proper scale of demands and the taxes were levied with an utter disregard of the convenience of the taxpayer. In this way, financial policy, says Lord Cromer, "instead of being used as a powerful engine of political and social improvement, had become merely a means for first extorting the maximum amount

of revenue from unwilling contributors, and then spending the money on objects from which the contributors themselves derived little or no benefit." The credit of the Government at the period had sunk to the lowest depth. The Government having incurred heavy liabilities with contractors which it had not met, "orders had been given by all foreign houses trading with Egypt to refuse to furnish the Government with any supplies, except for payment in cash on delivery." A measure of the value placed upon the debts is to be found in the fact that the claims themselves "were being hawked about for sale at a depreciation of fifty per cent."



LORD CROMER.
(Photograph by the London Stereoscopic Company, Ltd.)

Mr. Goschen's report outlined a series of proposals made with a view to the removal of the financial difficulties. He put short loans into a comparatively favourable position, merely calling upon the holders to make a partial sacrifice. Proprietors of other funded loans were also given a partial security of a special character by the creation of a charge on the railways. In exchange for this concession they were required during a period of nine years to accept six instead of seven per cent. interest, and further it was understood that their special security only extended to two-fifths of their capital. Mr. Goschen cut down the bonus proposed to be given to the holders of Treasury bonds from twenty-five to ten per cent. He separated the Daire from the general liabilities of the Khedive, put His Highness on a fixed allowance of four millions, and, finally, placed the whole system of finance under European control.

It was perfectly obvious to every one who had eyes to see that Egypt was on the verge of bankruptcy, and that only drastic measures could save her. The position was that the Egyptian Government owed, roundly, one hundred millions, and that with a depleted treasury, and a falling revenue the task of meeting the interest was altogether beyond her. In accordance with proposals made by Lord Goschen and M. Joubert a settlement was effected of the Khedive's liabilities in November 1876, but owing to the faulty basis upon which the calculations of the two financiers had been built, the arrangement was a mere temporary palliative which left the general situation as bad as ever. Two highly important consequences, however, flowed from the investigation. One was the introduction into Egypt of trained European officials to straighten the disorder in Egyptian finance, and the other the establishment of the Caisse de la Dette. The Caisse, as it is termed in Egypt, was to exercise a powerful influence on the course of Egyptian finance, but that influence was small compared with the effect to be produced by the infusion of healthy British blood into the atrophied system of Egyptian officialdom. The name of one of the functionaries introduced at this period on Lord Goschen's recommendation will for all time be identified with Egypt. Needless to say the reference is to Lord Cromer, who, as a little-known man with a military title to discredit him as a financier, was entrusted with one of the chief parts in the cleansing of a veritable Augean stable of finance existing at Cairo. But Major Evelyn Baring (as Lord Cromer then was) and his colleagues, chief among whom was Sir Gerald Fitzgerald, had in common one quality which was as rare in Egypt as it was valuable in such a country at such a period. "We were all honest," says Lord Cromer. Further, "we were all capable of forming and of expressing independent opinions, and we were all determined to do our duty to the best of our abilities in the discharge of the functions which were respectively assigned to us." The newcomers had not been long at work before it became evident that their probity was not appreciated by Ismael, and if they could have been sent about their business no one would have been better pleased than the Khedive. But to have driven the little band out would have strengthened the tide of hostile European opinion which was already flowing with sufficient strength against him, so Lord Cromer and his colleagues were left to commence to shape Egyptian destinies in the manner which was eventually to bring the country an abiding prosperity.

CHAPTER XVII.

The Caisse de la Dette—Financial Stringency—British and French Representatives recommend the holding of an Inquiry into Egyptian Finances—Ismael declines to accept Proposal for a General Inquiry, but appoints a Commission with Limited Powers—Gordon offered the Chairmanship of the Commission, but declines—M. de Lesseps appointed—Ismael agrees to Appointment of a Commission with Full Powers—The Commissioners' Report—Ismael reluctantly accepts the Recommendations—Nubar forms a Ministry—Sir Rivers Wilson appointed Minister of Finance—The Domain Estates.

THE Caisse de la Dette, which was first constituted by a decree of May 2, 1876, consisted at the outset of only three members, of French, Austrian, and Italian nationality, respectively. In 1877 an English member was added, and in 1885 Germany and Russia secured representation on the body. In the first instance the functions of the Caisse were limited to the receipt of certain revenue which had been appropriated for the payment of the interest on the loans. But gradually their powers were multiplied until the Commission became a sort of international watch-dog which had the guardianship of the foreign interests in relation to finance. Though the Commissioners are appointed by the Khedive and are technically Egyptian officials, they are in reality almost as much foreign representatives as the Consuls-General and have in some respects a greater influence than the majority of those functionaries. When the Caisse commenced its operations it encountered after the customary fashion a good deal of obstruction. A striking case in point is furnished by an incident which was brought to light very early in its history. One of the sources of revenue entrusted to its supervision was the Customs receipts at Suez. Noticing that these had fallen off in a most unaccountable fashion the Commissioners demanded an explanation. They were met with evasion. Pressing their point they discovered that the Khedive had appropriated the money, even going the length of banishing the local official who demurred to the payment to him of the amount on the ground that he was acting illegally. The Commissioners very quickly taught Ismael his duty, and they made it their business to see that the unfortunate official did not suffer. But there were far more serious difficulties to be overcome than obstructiveness in high quarters. The collection of the requisite amount of revenue to pay the interest due on the loans was a matter of enormous difficulty. Though taxes were collected nine months, and in some places a year in advance of the time at which they properly fell due and the utmost rigour was exercised in the collection, it was found just possible in 1877 to pay the interest on the funded debt. An unusually low Nile this year helped largely to increase the general stringency. In 1878 its effects were even more acutely felt by the unfortunate inhabitants of the Delta. Indeed something very closely resembling a famine prevailed in the land. The Commissioners of the Debt, of whom Lord Cromer was by this time one, were of opinion that the coupon ought not to be paid. But the French Government, influenced by French public opinion, which regarded the stories of distress as fictitious, pressed for payment, and the British Cabinet, having an eye to the necessity of conciliating the French in view of the Berlin Congress then about to assemble to regulate the situation arising out of the Russo-Turkish War, supported the French initiative. Lord Cromer describes the steps that were taken to collect the money necessary to pay the coupon. "Two of the most iron-fisted Pashas who could be found were sent into the provinces. They were accompanied by a staff of money lenders, who were prepared to buy in advance the crops of the cultivators. Thus, the low Nile having diminished the quantity of the crop, the peasantry of Egypt were deprived of such benefits as some of them, at all events, might have derived from the high prices consequent on the scarcity. 'In some cases,' Sir Alexander Baird wrote, 'perfectly authenticated corn was sold to the merchants for 50 piastres an ardeb, which was delivered in one month's time, when it was worth 120 piastres an ardeb.' The money, however, was obtained. The last instalment was paid to the Commissioners of the Debt a few hours before the coupon fell due. The great diversity of currency, and the fact that many of the coins were strung together to be used as ornaments, bore testimony to the pressure that had been used in the collection of the taxes."

For the moment a crisis had been averted, but the relief afforded was of a very fleeting character. Soon the financial position became worse than ever. On the one side the sufferings of the unfortunate population were increased by the renewal of the tax-collectors' efforts at a period when successive demands combined with scarcity had left them in the depths of poverty; on the other the bondholders' prospects had become gloomier owing to the manifest impossibility of the Government being able much longer to meet their demands. It, therefore, speedily became a matter for urgent consideration whether a fresh departure should not be made in Egyptian finance. Lord Goschen's scheme had manifestly broken down: it must be replaced by arrangements more in consonance with the needs of Egypt and her capacity to discharge her liabilities. But what were those arrangements to be? It was fortunate that at this time there were in Egypt clear minds to assist the water-logged ship of State into the channel which was best adapted to her necessities at the time. The British agent at Cairo, Lord Vivian, was a man of keen discernment, wide sympathies, and thoroughly imbued with the best traditions of British diplomacy. On the Commission of the Debt the two prominent figures were Lord Cromer and M. de Blignières, the French representative. The latter, as described by his British colleague, figures in the life of the time as "a French official of the best type, loyal, straightforward and intelligent, and endowed with a high degree of moral courage." These two Commissioners of the Debt tacitly took the lead in all matters affecting the financial position, and gradually framed a policy which by patient and persistent effort they induced the authorities concerned in the long run to accept. The proposal they put forward was the holding of a general inquiry into the financial condition of the country. It was intimated that "if a really impartial and exhaustive investigation was held leaving nothing behind it uninvestigated in the shape of debt, nor any pretext for further re-settlement" the bondholders were prepared "to make such a fair sacrifice of interest as may be found absolutely necessary." The letter embodying the proposal for an inquiry was forwarded by the Commissioners to the Khedive on January 9, 1878. Ismael, in reply, refused to allow a general inquiry, but expressed his willingness to appoint a commission whose sole duty it would be to inquire into the true amount of the Egyptian revenue. The Commissioners of the Debt declined to accept this as an adequate solution of the difficulty, but in spite of their remonstrances the Khedive proceeded by Khedivial decree issued on January 28, 1878, to institute a commission of inquiry of the character he had suggested. Much indignation was created amongst the foreign community by this action, and a petition was forwarded from a great meeting at Alexandria to the representatives of the Powers demanding in strong language that the Khedive should be compelled to meet his engagements and not be allowed to shelter himself behind the inquiry which he had instituted. Meanwhile, the Khedive was exerting himself to secure suitable persons to act as members of his commission. He asked Gordon, who happened to be in Cairo at the time on his return from his Soudan administration, to act as head of the commission, and that eminent man was at first inclined to accept the offer, but on thinking the matter over he came to the conclusion that he "was only to be a figure-head" and declined to serve. M. de Lesseps was also approached by Ismael, and he consented to sit on the commission. This very qualified success in the furtherance of Ismael's policy of a limited inquiry instituted by himself was as the year advanced neutralised by the action of the Powers who, acting in concert, gave the Khedive to understand that nothing short of "a full and complete inquiry" under independent auspices would be satisfactory. Finding that he had no alternative but to yield, Ismael gave his assent to the appointment of a Commission with most extended powers of inquiry, and a Khedivial decree setting up such a body was issued on April 4, 1878. M. de Lesseps was named as president of the Commission, but he took no part in the proceedings of the body. The real head of the investigation was Sir Rivers Wilson, an able Anglo-Indian official who was bracketed with Riaz Pasha as vice-president of the Commission. The four Commissioners of the Debt acted as members of the Commission, and the Secretary was M. Liron d'Airolles.

The investigations of the Commission were of a most exhaustive character. They covered the whole field of Egyptian finance, and even

in places dived below the surface in their search for the truth. Some astounding disclosures as to the waste and extravagance of Ismael's régime were the result. "The head of the Ordnance Department," says Lord Cromer, "if he heard that some new description of cannon had been invented, would order, not one as an experiment, but a couple of dozen on the ground, as was explained to us, that Egypt 'could not remain behind other nations in military matters.' Names familiar throughout Europe during the Napoleonic era turned up as recipients of the Khedivial largesse. The accounts also showed that the eulogies poured at one time on Ismael Pasha by a portion of the European Press were not altogether due to disinterested motives. Money was due to contractors and tradesmen of all sorts. An Egyptian Princess had run up an account of £150,000 with a French dressmaker. Large sums had been spent at Constantinople, as to which it was stated '*on n'a pas pu rendre compte.*' One financial operation was of so complicated a nature that it almost defied the ingenuity of man to get to the bottom of it. It appeared, however, that the Khedive had been engaged with his late Finance Minister in an operation on the Stock Exchange, the basis of which was that he was to 'bear' his own stock. In some cases extravagant sums had been paid for work done or for goods furnished. Thus, the harbour works at Alexandria cost over £2,500,000. According to a trustworthy estimate they should have cost about £1,400,000. In this case, however, the work was of real utility, and it was well executed, although at a high price. In a number of other cases, large sums were owing without the Egyptian Government having anything to show for their money. Interest at exorbitant rates, bonuses on the renewal of bills, differences between the real and nominal value of securities, and other financial juggleries constituted almost the whole of the claim."

The report of the Commissioners when forthcoming brought to light some astounding instances of fiscal oppression. New taxes were imposed at discretion, and were occasionally quite absurd. For instance, when a new bridge was built the charge for it was imposed on the boatmen whose boats it impeded and not on the passengers whose journey it facilitated. Egyptians were not allowed to own scales, because they might evade the weighing tax; while the salt tax was levied according to population, which was never counted, but was fixed by an order, which never varied. Finally, the conscription was enforced on anybody who could not bribe the Sheikh, the regulation price for exemption being £80, which an Egyptian fellah could no more raise than an English agricultural labourer could. These taxes were all levied by "moral pressure," the Inspector-General stated. This term in plain English meant, the Commissioners stated, the threat of torture. A final phrase from the report must be given. "In 1874 the Viceroy invited the natives to subscribe to a non-reimbursable loan (Rouynameh) of £5,000,000, the subscribers to receive a perpetual annuity at nine per cent. on their capital. The amount subscribed was £3,420,000. One coupon was paid and that only to some subscribers."

Some sweeping changes in the system of government were put forward by the Commission as being absolutely necessary in the interests of good government. They recommended that no tax should be levied save in virtue of a law which should be officially published, that the collection of taxes should be really, as well as nominally, under the Minister of Finance, that the Accounts Department should be reformed and a system of annual budgets introduced, that a judicial department should be organised which would protect the people from an arbitrary exercise of authority, that forced labour should be employed only on works of acknowledged utility, and that the terms of military service should be defined and limited, whilst at the same time some equitable system should be adopted for obtaining recruits for the army. The most important of all the reforms suggested by the Commissioners were that the principle of Ministerial responsibility should be enforced, and that the Khedive should be compelled to accept a Civil List. Practically what the Commissioners aimed at was the conversion of Egyptian rule from a purely despotic system to a constitutional government on rigidly defined lines. It was not so much reform as revolution that was foreshadowed in the findings of the Commissioners, and it is not remarkable that Ismael should have hesitated before he yielded his consent to them. Nubar Pasha, however, was at his elbow to offer him sound counsel, and point out the dangers which would attend an uncompromising attitude. So in the long run, with the best grace he could muster, the Khedive yielded. Having done so, he did his best to convey the impression that he almost enjoyed the renunciation he had to make. "My country," he told Sir Rivers Wilson, "is no longer African; we now form part of Europe. It is proper, therefore, to abandon our old ways, and to adopt a new system more in accordance with our social progress. . . . Above all we must not be satisfied with mere words, and for my own part I am determined to prove my intentions by my deeds and to show how thoroughly in earnest I am." Subsequently, on August 28th, the Khedive authorised Nubar Pasha to form a Ministry. He intimated that he would name the chief officials of state, acting in so doing on the advice of his Ministers. Nubar accepted office on the terms stipulated, taking for himself the direction of the Departments of Foreign Affairs and of Justice and leaving to Riaz Pasha the Ministry of the Interior. Sir Rivers Wilson was given an important place in the new Ministerial combination, the office of Minister of Finance being conferred upon him. This introduction of the British element into the Ministry led to some criticism in France, with the consequence that M. de Blignières was made Minister of Works with the control over all railways, canals, and ports, except Alexandria. It was further arranged that the two commissioners of the Public Debt should be a Frenchman and an Englishman, and that if the Khedive wished to get rid of either the British or French members of his Government, he should dismiss both. In accordance with the undertaking he had entered into, Ismael, on October 29th, issued a decree ceding to the State most of the properties, which had heretofore belonged to the Khedivial family, and authorised a loan of £8,500,000 to be raised on the security of those properties. It was agreed that the estates were to be administered by an Englishman and a Frenchman, to be selected by the British and French Governments respectively.

CHAPTER XVIII.

New Financial Difficulties—Ismael warned by Lord Salisbury as to the Consequences of Opposition to the New Régime—Meeting of Army Officers—Ismael's Dubious Conduct—Nubar dismissed—Parliamentary System introduced—New Ministry formed—Continued Unrest—Ismael's Financial Plan—He appoints Cherif Pasha President of the Council in the room of Prince Tewfik—Cherif Pasha charged with the Task of forming an Exclusively Egyptian Ministry—Withdrawal of the European Officials.

AT last Egypt seemed to be in sight of a period of moderately peaceable and prosperous administration. But in reality one group of difficulties had only been overcome to encounter another set equally formidable. The Ministry took office at an unfortunate time for itself. There was a failure of the Nile flood and this, combined with the exhausted condition of the country owing to the taxpayer's exactions, produced a very sombre outlook for the financiers. There was a heavy deficiency in the revenue, and it was necessary not only to suspend the sinking fund of the unified debt but to take a sum of £1,260,000 from the proceeds of the loan of eight and a half millions which had been negotiated with Messrs. Rothschild. Extraordinary as this expedient was it only helped to tide the financial officials over the coupon period. Soon the situation was as bad as ever. By the end of 1878 only £302,000 was in hand to meet a payment of nearly £2,000,000 falling due on May 1, 1879. Towards the sum of £443,000 on another coupon due on April 15, 1879, only £117,000 was received from the railway administration during the last two and a half months of 1878, although these months covered the busiest period of the year. Meanwhile Ismael, in spite of his protestations, was doing his best to upset the new régime. His attitude was so questionable that Lord Salisbury, on behalf of the British Government, and M. Godeaux, in the name of the French Government, addressed a serious warning to the Khedive on the consequences which would flow from his disregard of his

duties. "Her Majesty's Government," Lord Salisbury wrote, "have full confidence in the resources of the country and entertain no doubts as to the result of the new system if it is only allowed to have a fair trial. But if it be opposed by those in power, or should they even show a disposition to throw discredit upon it, the difficulties of Nubar Pasha and his advisers will be enormously increased and the responsibility for their failure will involve its promoters in the disastrous consequences that must result." Ismael received these warnings in a spirit which boded ill for the future. When Lord Salisbury's despatch was presented by Lord Vivian he "showed evident signs of great annoyance" and launched into a speech in which he disclaimed as a constitutional ruler any responsibility for the acts of his Ministers. Responsibility, he said, would only attach to him if he attempted to interfere in the government of the country, otherwise he must disclaim it. This speech showed very clearly the drift of Ismael's thoughts. His policy was one of passive resistance to the new order. He would oppose it not by force but by doing simply nothing. Nubar Pasha was for acting without the Khedive and if necessary in opposition to his wishes, but this course was opposed in various influential quarters, although it found an active supporter in Sir Rivers Wilson. Ismael finding what was Nubar's attitude towards him, commenced to actively intrigue against him. It was not long before the results were seen in the creation of "a certain amount of fermentation in the country" to adopt a phrase of Lord Vivian's. It only needed a spark to set the heather on fire and that spark was not long in coming. It emanated from what in itself was a very sensible and proper move on the part of the ministry—the payment of a part of the arrears of the army. But "by an unparalleled act of folly" the Minister of War summoned two thousand officers up to Cairo from various parts of the country to receive a portion of their arrears of pay and to deposit their arms with the authorities. In this fashion the Khedive, says Lord Vivian, "grouped together a seething mass of two thousand five hundred discontented officers, the garrison of Cairo, consisting only of two thousand six hundred troops, a large proportion of whom had undoubted sympathy with the grievances of the mutineers." Mischief in the circumstances was inevitable and the bolt was soon shot. As Nubar Pasha and Sir Rivers Wilson were driving together to their office on the morning of February 18th they were mobbed by a crowd of officers armed with swords, dragged from their carriages and conducted to the Ministry of Finance, where they were shut up, the mutineers finishing up their operations by severing the telegraph wires. Lord Vivian on hearing of the *emeute* went at once to the Khedive. What followed is described in Lord Vivian's despatch. "The Khedive," he said, "drove with me to the Ministry of Finance, which we found besieged by a large crowd, who, however, made way respectfully for the Khedive's carriage and cheered him. In a room on the upper floor, surrounded by the rioters, we found Nubar Pasha, Sir Rivers Wilson and Riaz Pasha, none of them really hurt, although the two former had received very rough treatment while they were being forced from the street into the building. The Khedive, having assured himself of their safety turned to the rioters and ordered them to leave the building on his promise that their just demands should be satisfied. 'If,' he said, 'you are my officers you are bound by your oath to obey me; if you refuse I will have you swept away.' They obeyed him, although reluctantly and with some murmuring, begging him to leave them to settle their accounts in their own way. There were also cries of 'Death to the dogs of Christians.' His Highness got them down the stairs and into and beyond the courtyard, where they fell back on the larger body who were besieging the gates. The Khedive commanded all of them to disperse and go to their homes, and on their refusal to do so he ordered up the troops. They fired in the air, but a few soldiers were wounded by the mutineers' revolvers and a few of the rioters received bayonet wounds. The Khedive's Chamberlain was wounded while at His Highness's side by a sabre cut from one of the mutineers and the Khedive himself ran considerable risk. The whole affair lasted about half an hour, and the Khedive, after providing for the safe escort of the Ministers, returned to the palace. Sir Rivers Wilson behaved well throughout the affair, which he might have avoided had he not gone to Nubar's assistance when he saw him surrounded by the mob."

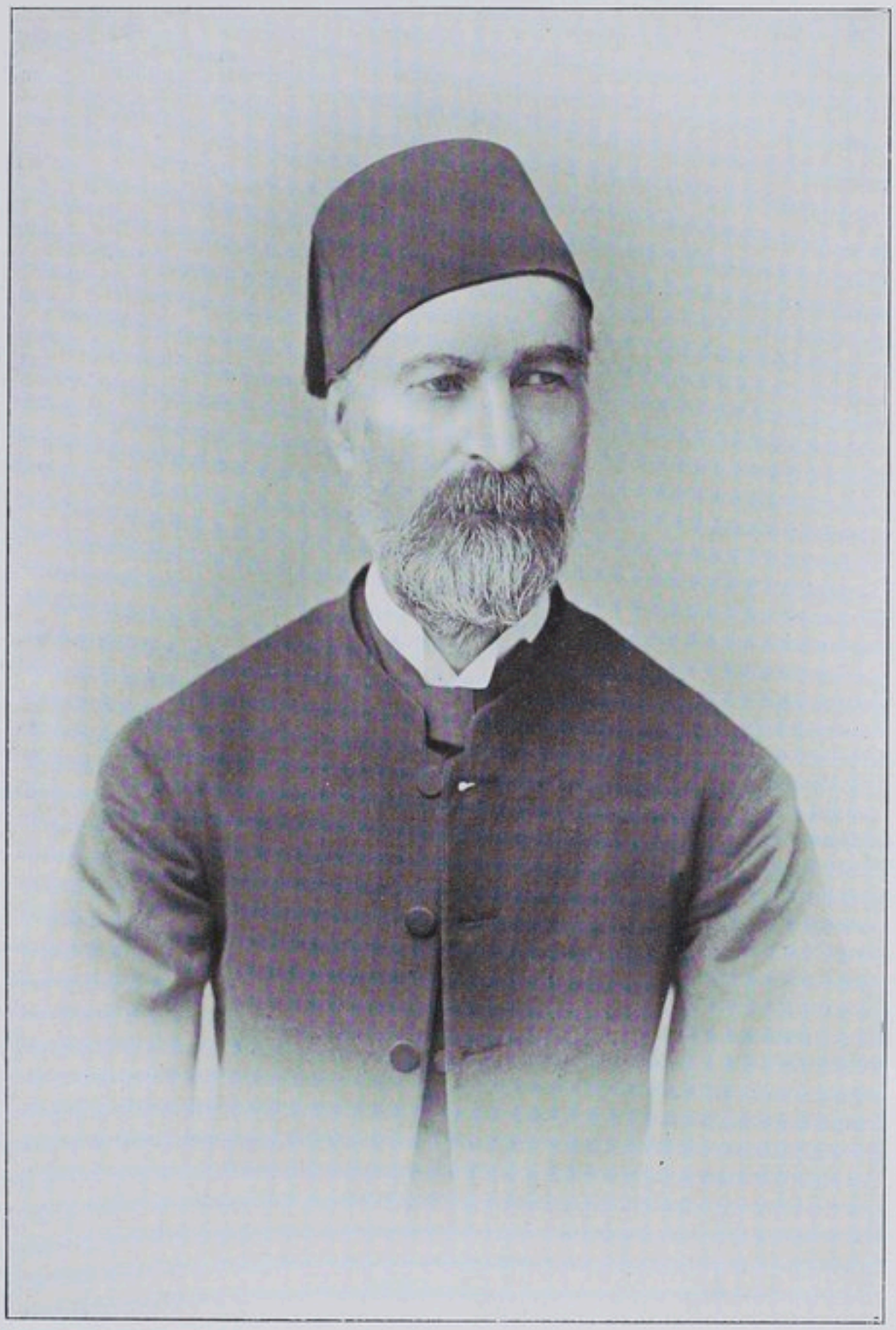
This startling incident created, as it was bound to do, a great sensation amongst the foreign community in Cairo. There were eager discussions of the degree of responsibility which attached to the Khedive for the outbreak. The general impression was, that though he may not have directly instigated the riot, he had yet by his conduct and bearing contributed to bring it about. His attitude at the council held in the palace on the morning following the outbreak goes to support this view. At that gathering, which was attended by Lord Vivian, M. Godeaux, Nubar Pasha, Sir Rivers Wilson, Lord Cromer and M. de Blignières, the Khedive declared "unequivocally that he would not be responsible for public tranquility unless he were given his proper share in the government of the country, and was allowed either to preside at the Council of Ministers himself or to select a president in whom he could have confidence. He further required, as a *sine qua non* condition, that Nubar Pasha, whom he accused of sapping and undermining his authority, should immediately retire from the ministry." Nubar, on being consulted by the Consuls General, declined to guarantee the public safety in the event of the Powers insisting on his continuance in office. His retirement, therefore, was inevitable, and his resignation was tendered to the Khedive through Lord Vivian and M. Godeaux. At his special request he was allowed to remain in Egypt as a private individual on the condition that he "did not intrigue or meddle in politics."

In this issue of the crisis Ismael scored an undeniable triumph. He not only wreaked his vengeance on a minister who was personally objectionable to him, but he flouted the Powers who had humiliated him by usurping his power. More than this, he re-established his ascendency amongst his people by showing them, to use a familiar term, that he was still master in his own household. The temporary rehabilitation of the Khedive, however, was not the only consequence which flowed from this episode. The practical success of the mutiny—for the mutineers were never punished—led to the birth of a new spirit in the army. "The most humble private soldier," says Lord Cromer, "discovered for the first time, probably to his own exceeding astonishment, that he and his comrades were masters of the situation, if, with muskets in their hands, they exerted themselves to coerce the civil elements of society. History affords abundant proofs of the ease with which this lesson is learnt. It was not to be unlearnt until a strong race of soldiers appeared on European soil. The mutiny of 1879 was the direct precursor of the Arabi revolt. It would be going too far to say that from this moment a foreign occupation became inevitable, but it is certainly a fact that the mutiny which led to the downfall of Nubar Pasha greatly increased the difficulties of governing the country, and brought the prospects of foreign intervention of a decisive nature appreciably nearer."

Elated at his success, Ismael proceeded to follow up his advantage by taking measures to reduce to a further point the foreign influence against which he chafed. His method of accomplishing this object was a characteristic one. He suddenly conceived a great liking for the constitutional machinery of Europe, and proceeded to set up a body which in outward form was a Parliament to settle the affairs of the country. The whole thing was a sham, a flimsy framework called temporarily into existence, as Lord Cromer has remarked, "as an instrument through whose agency he (Ismael) might regain his personal power, which was threatened by foreign interference." Before this point was reached there had been a long series of negotiations and discussions relative to the formation of a new ministry and the way in which the country should be governed. Generally it was agreed that there must be no modification in principle permitted of the political and financial arrangements recently introduced, and a joint communication to this effect was made by the British and French representatives at Cairo. But matters had not proceeded far before it became evident that serious differences of opinion existed as to the policy to be pursued in working out those arrangements. "The official world," Lord Cromer states, "was divided into two opposing camps, each honestly believing that its own system was the best. Lord Vivian supported the system which involved the country with Ismael's personal power. Sir Rivers Wilson supported the rival system, which involved the reduction of the Khedive to a political nullity." Ultimately the latter section triumphed, and while Sir Rivers Wilson remained to work out his system, Lord Vivian left Cairo and was succeeded at the Agency by Sir Frank Lascelles.

With considerable difficulty a Ministry was formed by March 10th. Prince Tewfik was appointed to the office of President of the Council, and later in the month the other posts in the Ministry were filled, Riaz Pasha being named Minister of the Interior and of Justice. Barely had the Ministry been formed than it got into troubled waters. The Commissioners at this time had not completed the framing of their scheme for the settlement of the financial situation, but it was known that they contemplated some drastic changes, amongst them the repeal of the law of the Moukábala—an enactment passed in 1872 by which all landowners could redeem one half of the land tax to which they were liable by the payment of six years' tax, either in one sum or in instalments spread over a period of twelve years. This measure was highly favourable to the wealthy landowners and they viewed with genuine alarm the possibility of its withdrawal. Astutely taking advantage of this unrest, Ismael caused it to be known that he was preparing a financial arrangement in opposition to the Commissioners' plan, and he covertly invited support for it from those interested. His call elicited the response that might have been expected, Sir Frank Lascelles reporting to Lord Salisbury on April 1st that considerable agitatio

existed at that period. "It appears," he wrote, "that the Sheikh-el-Bekir holds meetings with the notables and Ulemas with the object of exciting religious animosity against the European Ministers, and that Riaz Pasha has been denounced in the mosques as a friend of the Christians. There is danger that Riaz Pasha, who has



RIAZ PASHA.

been warned by the Prefect of the Police that his life is in peril, may be forced into resigning." Three days later Sir Frank Lascelles sent a further despatch, in which he stated that there were constant communications between the Khedive and the more influential persons who attended the meetings, and that the object of the intercourse was "to obtain support to the financial plan which the Khedive is preparing in opposition to that of Sir Rivers Wilson, and also to get up petitions to his Highness to put into force the Turkish Constitution which was promulgated here in 1877, but which has hitherto remained a dead letter." The bolt which Ismael was fashioning in this way was delivered on April 9th. On that day at a meeting of the diplomatic corps, and in the presence of a number of Egyptian notables, the Khedive addressed the gathering. "He said that the discontent in the country had reached such a pitch that he felt bound to allay it by adopting radical measures. A financial project, which expressed the true wishes of the country, had been submitted to him, signed by all classes of the population. In this project, copies of which would be at once communicated to the representatives of the Powers, 'the nation protested against the declaration of bankruptcy which was contemplated by Sir Rivers Wilson and demanded the formation of a purely Egyptian Ministry, which would be responsible to the Chamber of Deputies.' Prince Tewfik, 'yielding to the will of the nation,' had tendered his resignation. He would be replaced by Cherif Pasha. The Khedive would continue to govern in accordance with the Rescript of August 28th, which sanctioned the principle of ministerial responsibility. The decree of November 18, 1876, which had been negotiated by Messrs. Goschen and Joubert, would be strictly observed. Cherif Pasha then added a few words. 'The nation,' thought that the Ministers had behaved in a manner which was insulting to its representatives. A declaration of bankruptcy would be dishonourable. The country was determined to make any sacrifices to avoid it. The contemplated repeal of the law of Moukábala had given rise to great dissatisfaction. 'It would have been impossible for the Khedive to have put himself in opposition to the will of the nation which had been so positively expressed.'"

Subsequently the Consuls General were furnished with three documents intended to lend support to the Khedive's action. The first was an address from the Chamber of Notables complaining of the frequent violation of the rights of the Chamber by Ministers. The second was an address from a number of delegates, chosen from amongst the Ulema, the highest officials of the State, both civil and military, and other notables condemning the financial scheme prepared by Sir Rivers Wilson, expressing the opinion that the revenues of Egypt were sufficient to discharge all its debts, and submitting a counter project. The third and last document was the plan for the settlement of the financial situation referred to in the address. These documents were forwarded by the Consuls General to their respective Governments. At about the same time the Khedive notified Sir Rivers Wilson and M. de Blignières stating that "in obedience to the positive wishes of the nation, he had entrusted Cherif Pasha with the formation of a new Cabinet which was to be composed entirely of Egyptians." The next step was an invitation to Lord Cromer and his French colleague on the Commission of the debt to resume the offices of Controllers General of the receipts and expenditure. This offer was declined by both officials on the ground that they could not associate themselves with a financial plan which in their eyes was impracticable or with a change of system which was in contradiction to the engagements recently taken by the Khedive towards the British and French Governments. Upon this Cherif Pasha intimated to Sir Frank Lascelles that he considered the refusal freed the Egyptian Government from any responsibility as regards the immediate re-establishment of the control. The British and French Governments, were, however, asked to name Controllers. This probably was a mere matter of form. At all events the Government policy had become so inimical to all foreign influence at that time that Sir Gerald Fitzgerald, Blum Pasha, and Sir Auckland Colvin, the latter of whom at the time was at the head of the cadestral survey all resigned. At a somewhat later period, on May 24, 1879, Lord Cromer, finding that there was no hope of placing Egyptian financial affairs on a sound footing, also resigned. He handed over his duties as Commissioner of the Debt to Sir Auckland Colvin.

CHAPTER XIX.

Effects of Ismael's *coup d'etat*—Great Britain and France warn Ismael—Germany protests against Ismael's Violation of International Engagements—Deposition of Ismael—Prince Tewfik appointed Khedive—Ismael's Character.

CHERIF PASHA'S Ministry having been formed on the exclusively Egyptian lines laid down by the Khedive, the path was cleared for a spell of despotic government dressed out in the singular democratic trappings which Ismael had provided for it. Grotesque as the arrangement was in some of its aspects, Lord Cromer thinks that it might have been successful if the Khedive had not been weighed down by the financial incubus. At the outset his *coup d'etat* took the Powers by surprise. The thoroughness of the change puzzled and embarrassed them. With a partial reconstruction they could have dealt as they had dealt with similar moves before, but this complete transformation from a rigidly controlled foreign administration to a Government on aggressively frank Egyptian lines for the moment took their breath away, and they looked on with stupefied amazement while Ismael made good his moves in the game. There was the less disposition to move as no one knew exactly how his neighbour would regard his interference. International interests in Egypt, always complicated, had grown more intricate with each step in the direction of reform, and what suited one country was far from commending itself as advantageous to another. At length, after the matter had been discussed in London and Paris, the British and French Government agreed upon a joint line of action. The nature of this was unfolded in a despatch which Lord Salisbury addressed to Sir Frank Lascelles on April 25th. The statesman wrote that the British Government, in common with that of France, had hitherto considered the independence of the Khedive and the maintenance of his dynasty as important conditions for the furtherance of Egyptian interests. They, therefore, would rather assume that the decision he had taken, both with respect to the future conduct of the reform and the attitude he proposed to maintain towards the two governments, was not final. "But," proceeded Lord Salisbury, "if he continues to ignore the obligations imposed upon him by his past acts and assurances, and persists in declining the assistance of European ministers whom the two Powers may place at his disposal, we must conclude that the disregard of engagements that has marked his recent action was the result of a settled plan, and that he deliberately renounces all pretension to their friendship. In such a case it will only remain for the two Cabinets to reserve to themselves an entire liberty of appreciation and action in defending their interests in Egypt, and in seeking the arrangements best calculated to secure thé good government and prosperity of the country." On receiving this despatch Ismael disclaimed any intention of acting discourteously towards the Powers, but he declined to reinstate the European Ministers. It seemed that he had some intention at this period of taking up an entirely defiant attitude, but was driven by obvious discontent in the army to see that such a course would be disastrous. Matters drifted on for some little time longer. At length the German Government addressed to the Khedive a strongly worded protest against his "open and direct violation of the international engagements contracted at the institution of the judicial reform" and holding him responsible "for all the consequences of his unlawful proceedings." The other Powers followed suit with similarly minatory communications, and then on June 19th came the final stroke in the form of this communication from the British Government to the Khedive:—

"The French and English Governments are agreed to advise Your Highness officially to abdicate and to leave Egypt. Should Your Highness follow this advice, our Governments will act in concert in order that a suitable Civil List should be assigned to you, and that the order of succession, in virtue of which Prince Tewfik will succeed Your Highness, should not be disturbed. We must not conceal from Your Highness that if you refuse to abdicate, and if you compel the Cabinets of London and Paris to address themselves directly to the Sultan, you will not be able to count either upon obtaining the Civil List or upon the maintenance of the succession in favour of Prince Tewfik."

In a despatch forwarding this communication Lord Salisbury set out at some length the views which influenced the two Governments in the adoption of this course. He spoke of the dismissal of the European Ministers as an indication that the Khedive had never accepted the new *régime*, and recalled that he had had an opportunity of rescinding his hasty action but had failed to avail himself of it. Lord Salisbury then went on:—

"It is evident that the remedies for misgovernment hitherto proposed have been tried and have wholly failed. . . . Any further attempt on the part of the Powers to assist the Khedive in averting the consequences of his own misgovernment can have no other effect than to make them responsible for it in the future. His power to frustrate all projects of reform, and his resolve to use it, have been sufficiently demonstrated by events.

"If Egypt were a country in whose past history the Powers had no share, and to whose future destiny it was possible for them to be indifferent, their wisest course would be to renounce at this point all further concern with the relations between the Egyptian Ruler and his subjects. But, to England at least, this policy is impossible. The geographical situation of Egypt, as well as the responsibility which the English Government have in past times incurred for the actual conditions under which it exists as a State, make it impossible to leave it to its fate. They are bound, both by duty and interest, to do all that lies in their power to arrest misgovernment before it results in the material ruin and almost incurable disorder to which it is evident by other Oriental examples that such misgovernment will necessarily lead.

"In the case of Egypt, the evil has not yet gone so far but that it may be arrested by changes of small scope and immediate operation. The sole obstacle to reform appears to lie in the character of its Ruler. His financial embarrassments lead almost inevitably to oppression, and his bad faith frustrates all friendly efforts to apply a remedy. There seems to be no doubt that a change of policy can only be obtained by a change of Ruler.

"It may be the duty of the Western Powers to submit these considerations to the Sultan, to whose Firman the Khedive owes his power. But before taking a step so grave, and which, in its results, may possibly be disastrous not only to the Khedive but to his family, it is right, in the first instance, to intimate to the Khedive the conclusion at which the two Powers have arrived, and to give him the opportunity of withdrawing, under favourable and honourable conditions, from a position which his character and his past career have unfitted him to fill."

Ismael showed at first some disposition to resist the decree of the Powers. His hope was that the Sultan would go to his rescue, and there was some justification for it in the attitude of the Porte at the time. The Sultan, however, favoured Halim Pasha, who, according to Mahomedan law, was the rightful heir, and actually nominated him. The news reaching Cairo in the middle of the night of June 24th, was conveyed to the Khedive in dramatic fashion. "I have been informed," Sir Frank Lascelles wrote in his official history of the negotiations, "that when it was known in the harem that the Europeans demanded to see the Khedive at that hour of the night, there was an indescribable confusion. The Princess mother, fearing the existence of a plot to assassinate her son, implored His Highness not to receive us, but on hearing that the Europeans consisted of the representatives of Germany, France, and England, and were accompanied by Cherif Pasha, the Khedive himself pointed out that there could be no danger for his life and consented to receive us. His Highness, who was evidently in a state of great excitement, gave me the impression of scarcely knowing what was passing. He, however, remained perfectly firm in his intention not to abdicate." The next day wild rumours were current as to the Khedivial intentions, but to those with inside knowledge of what was passing, it was obvious that Ismael considered the game to be up. Twenty-four hours later a telegram from the Sultan to the ex-Khedive Ismael was delivered at Cairo, intimating that he was deposed, and that Prince Tewfik was appointed Khedive in his stead. At the same time Prince Tewfik was notified of his nomination. Bowing now to what he saw to be inevitable, Ismael sent for Prince Tewfik and invested him with power. The scene between father and son, which took place in the presence of a full gathering of ministers, is said to have been a touching one. Prince Tewfik was formally installed on June 26, 1879, and four days later Ismael quitted Egypt for Naples, which he had selected as a place of residence. He bore himself very well on taking what was to be his final leave of Egypt. Addressing the large crowd which had assembled to witness his departure, he confided his son, the new Khedive, to their care. He then embraced Prince Tewfik and entered his carriage. So affecting was the scene that there were few amongst the spectators who were not moved to tears.

Ismael, gauged by the standard of Eastern despots who have made history to their undoing, was not a bad man. His faults were those of temperament rather than of a vicious intention. He meant well by the country, and according to his lights strove to benefit it, but he was hopelessly unpractical and dissipated his energies and the nation's resources on a score of projects good in themselves but requiring close and intelligent direction, and the application in relation to them of a consistent policy. A conspicuous weakness of his was his vanity. He believed himself to be a born administrator—one who was destined to revive the glories of the period of his great predecessor, the founder of the line. Foreign adventurers played upon this failing with disastrous effect for the country. "It has often been said of Ismael," says Lord Milner in his work "England in Egypt," "that he liked to be cheated, that he had a positive partiality for rogues, even when they exercised their roguery at his expense. Whether it was owing to this idiosyncrasy, or simply owing to a sense of his own weakness, it is certain that he bore the extortion of European adventurers with remarkable patience, and consoled himself under it by a plentiful exercise of his gift of humorous cynicism." Lord Cromer, in an interesting summing up of Ismael's character, says that the conduct of these flatterers and panderers to whom Lord Milner refers cannot be too strongly condemned, and that as regards himself there were some extenuating circumstances. "He wished to introduce European civilisation into Egypt at a rapid rate, but he had little idea how to set about the work." Lord Cromer's personal relations with Ismael were of a friendly nature, "a fact which redounds to his credit, for if there was one person in Egypt against whom he had a right to bear a grudge it was myself." Ismael, concludes Lord Cromer, was a victim to the insolent abuse of power. "A great Nemesis fell upon the European Crœsus. He squandered his wealth, and when, finally, he was deposed at the behests of the Powers of Europe, there were not a dozen of his own countrymen, albeit they disliked the interference of the foreigners, who did not think that he merited his fate." With this impartial appreciation from the great regenerator of Modern Egypt we may leave Ismael. In all probability the verdict of history will not differ very widely from that he has passed upon the fallen despot.

CHAPTER XX.

Early Years of Prince Tewfik's Reign—Appointment of Lord Cromer and M. de Blignières as Controllers—Commission of Liquidation—Working of the Dual Control—Lord Cromer quits Egypt for India—Sir Auckland Colvin succeeds him—Discontent in the Army—Ahmed Arabi heads a Mutinous Movement—Increasing Danger of the Situation—Arabi and a Mutinous Body of Soldiers march to the Abdin Palace—Arabi is met by the Khedive and formulates his Demands—Cherif Pasha reluctantly assumes Office.

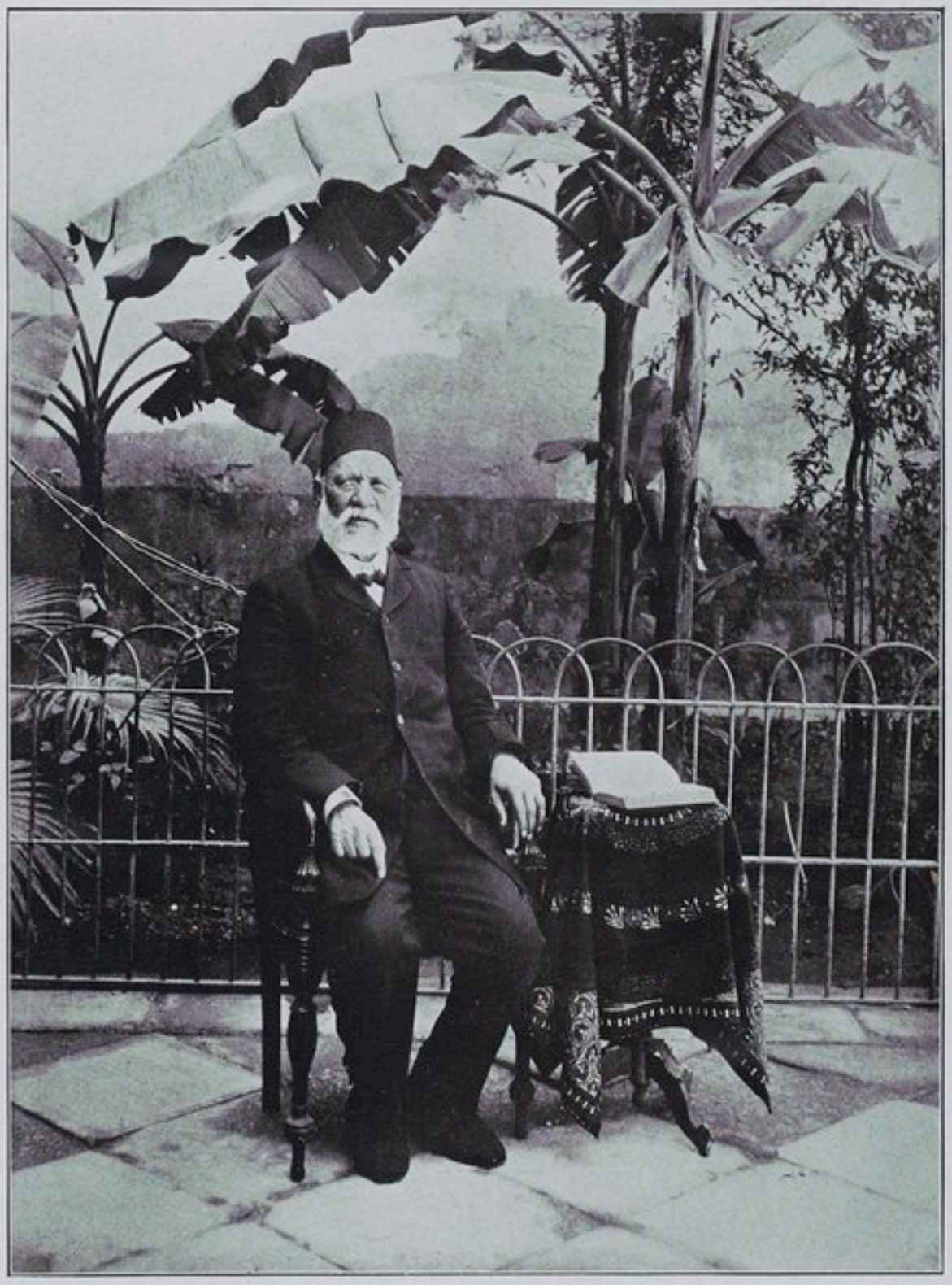
PRINCE TEWFIK'S accession ushered in a new era in Egyptian government—a period marked by great and dramatic events and by important developments in policy. It was the period of the country's regeneration, its lifting up from the abysses of bankruptcy and administrative anarchy to the heights of prosperity and civil contentment. How this great task was accomplished has recently been told in amplitude of detail and wealth of personal knowledge by the great statesman-administrator who was mainly responsible for its successful execution. Lord Cromer's work must become a classic of English literature and an authority on the era of which it treats of such transcendent weight as to leave it ever in a position of splendid isolation as far as books dealing with Egyptian history are concerned. In these concluding chapters we can but follow haltingly in the footsteps which the author has so firmly trodden through the tangle of the Egyptian labyrinth. Our historical summary of these eventful years will not be an extended one. It will be the less full because in special articles in this volume the most important phases of the modern Egyptian administration are exhaustively treated. The attempt, however, will be made to bring under review all the leading elements which tended to produce the beneficent revolution which has been worked in Egypt under British influence and with Lord Cromer's strong guiding hand at the helm.

Prince Tewfik mounted the throne with much in his favour. He was young, intelligent, and well intentioned, and had the good will of the Powers. Amongst the people he was popular. Above all, the clouds which had for so long a period overcast the Egyptian sky appeared to be passing away. One important drawback, however, existed — the Khedive lacked experience. This, always a serious shortcoming in a ruler, was an exceptionally grave failing in the case of Tewfik, since he had to fill a rôle of a peculiarly difficult character. The new reign, however, opened with a fair amount of promise. A ministry was formed at the outset under Cherif Pasha with the Khedive acting as President of the Council, but it lasted only a short time, giving place on September 22nd to a ministry of which Riaz Pasha was the head with the full dignity of President of the Council. The most important question of the many which had to be settled at this juncture was the nature and degree of the foreign control to be exercised over the administration. The Khedive was willing to have controllers appointed, but through Cherif Pasha he expressed the hope that their functions would be limited to investigation and verification and that they would not be invested with any administrative or executive powers. Ultimately Lord Cromer and M. de Blignières were appointed, the former as the British and the latter as the French representative. The conditions of their appointment were that they were to have most ample powers of investigation but were to exercise no administrative functions; they were to have seats on the Council of Ministers but were not to vote. Another stipulation made was that they were not to be dismissed without the consent of their respective Governments. Following upon the settlement of these important questions came, on April 2, 1880, the appointment under a Khedivial decree of a Commission of Liquidation to settle questions affecting the relations between the Egyptian Government and its creditors. Sir Rivers Thompson was appointed president of this body, and the four Commissioners of the Debt were made members, together with M. Liron D'Airolles, who was brought in so as to give France the same degree of representation as England. The machinery thus set in motion on the whole worked well. It was a fortunate circumstance that at this period the destinies of the Dual Control should have been committed to two such excellent representatives as Lord Cromer and M. de Blignières. Both had had intimate experience of Egyptian affairs; both had worked together amicably for a considerable period and were accustomed to dividing the duties which devolved upon them without those feelings of jealousy and pettiness which too often intervene where representatives of rival interests are united for the discharge of specific functions; most important of all, both were determined as far as in them lie to make the new régime a success. Directed in this spirit the Dual Control could hardly fail to work smoothly. The tactful manner in which, while keeping a vigilant eye on all the ramifications of Egyptian administration, the Controllers effaced themselves, leaving the Egyptian ministers the credit as well as the responsibility of carrying out measures calculated to promote the interests of the country, gained them a measure of good will from the native ministers which helped materially to consolidate the position which in other circumstances might easily have become precarious. But the real strength of the Control lie in the demonstration which it was able to give of its practical value to Egypt. It settled the Unified Debt on a guaranteed basis, substituting 4 per cent. for the 6 per cent. previously fixed, and practically cancelled arrears of debt amounting to a large sum; it framed a Budget on sound financial lines, and under its guidance the reforms proposed by the Commission of Inquiry were prosecuted. Amongst the changes carried out in the last connection was the repeal of the law of Moukabala, the abolition of the poll tax, octroi duties, highway, market and weighing dues were suppressed in the villages, while in the towns octroi duties were greatly modified, many petty and vexatious taxes were swept away altogether, the payment of land tax in kind was abolished, and, most important of all, changes were made which ensured the payment of the land tax at fixed dates and in a manner convenient to the cultivators. At

the close of 1880 the beneficial effects of the operation of the new system had become clearly marked. The British Consular officers reported from all quarters of the country that "a general feeling of satisfaction prevailed," that taxes were being regularly collected, that the rate of interest in the villages had fallen by 50 per cent., and that the value of land had risen in some cases by as much as 100 per cent. The new leaven, in fact, was working with extraordinary success. The Commission of Liquidation meanwhile had drafted a scheme settling the basis upon which the administration should proceed, and this was signed and became law on July 17, 1880. The main features of this arrangement were the fixing of the proportions of the revenue and expenditure in 1880 and 1881 and subsequent years, the fixing of the interest of the Unified Debt at 4 per cent., and the settlement of the claims of the Floating Debt creditors. Lord Cromer considers the scheme to have been on the whole a fair one, but he considers that too large a proportion of revenue (66 per cent.) was mortgaged to the bondholders, whilst the balance left at the disposal of the Government was insufficient.

Lord Cromer, shortly before this law was promulgated, received the appointment of Financial Member of the Governor General's Council in India, and his place in Egypt was taken by Sir Auckland Colvin. He called at Egypt on his way out to India in December, 1880, and circumstances brought to his notice caused him to give Riaz Pasha a warning as to the danger which existed from the lack of discipline in the army. Riaz Pasha treated the experienced ex-Controller's fears lightly, remarking that "not the smallest danger was to be apprehended from the army." Events soon showed how little ground there was for this optimism.

In point of fact, the army at this period was in a state bordering on revolt. From the time of the outbreak of February 18, 1879, the military position had been a most unsatisfactory one. The fatal lesson of the power of the military arm and the weakness of the civil had been taught to pupils who were only too ready to assimilate the teaching. The intriguing officers saw that they, and not the Ministers, were the real masters of the situation. They laid their plans accordingly, pushing their treasonable propaganda amongst the ignorant soldiery, who with serious grievances of their own unredressed, were not indisposed to join in a movement which seemed to promise to produce substantial material advantages. The first step taken was the presentation to Riaz Pasha on January 15, 1881, of a petition, setting forth in bold, and even defiant language, the claims of the discontented soldiery. Two specific demands were made, the mere presentation of which was an act of mutiny. In the first place, the petitioners required that Osman Pasha Rifki, the Minister of War, should be dismissed, because of his unjust treatment of the Egyptian officers of the army; and in the second place, that an inquiry should be held into the qualifications of those who had been promoted by this Minister. The presentation of the petition was entrusted to two colonels, who were subsequently to become famous in history. They were Achmed Arabi, the colonel of the 4th Regiment, and Ali Bey Fehmi, who commanded the 1st Regiment. At the outset, the latter was, perhaps, the more active of the two, from the fact that he was in command of the regiment which had guarded the palace, and had fallen into disgrace with the Khedive for some reason which was never made quite clear. Before long, however, we find Achmed Arabi coming more to the front and working his way to the position of undisputed leadership, to which position he eventually attained. He was of fellah origin, a dull, heavy man, extremely ignorant and fanatical—altogether a most unattractive person. But he had qualities which appealed to his own class, and he was endowed, moreover, with a certain astuteness—in some associations it would be said cunning—which was not a bad substitute for genius in the circumstances in which he found himself placed.



ACHMED ARABI PASHA.

After its presentation the petition remained in Riaz Pasha's hands for about a fortnight, during which time attempts were made to induce the colonels to withdraw their demands. At the palace, meanwhile, the delay was causing much dissatisfaction. The Khedive wanted the petitioners to be drastically dealt with, and he began to suspect that Riaz Pasha's inaction showed a hidden sympathy with the army reformers. Finding how matters stood at the palace, Riaz Pasha called a council to discuss the whole question. The meeting took place on January 30th under the presidency of the Khedive, and the outcome of the discussion was a decision to arrest the colonels and try them by Court-Martial. The necessary order requiring their attendance at the Ministry of War on February 1st, was drawn up and signed by the Khedive. It was not long before Arabi and his fellow conspirators knew the result of the meeting. They decided to respond to the summons, but they arranged that if they did not return within two hours the men of their regiments should proceed to the Ministry of War, and release them if they were under arrest. Events turned out very much as had been anticipated when this plan was made. Arabi and Ali Bey, on presenting themselves at the Ministry of War, were arrested and placed immediately upon their trial. The proceedings had not gone very far when the soldiers appeared in a disorderly mob, broke into the room where the Court-Martial was proceeding, and rescuing the colonels marched off with them to the Khedive's palace, and there demanded the dismissal of the Minister of War. It was an anxious moment for

Tewfik, and he was torn between conflicting opinions. On the one hand he was counselled to stand fast, arrest the leaders, and put down the movement with a strong hand; on the other he was advised to make the best terms he could with the disaffected. In the end, impressed by the hourly increasing dangers of the situation, the strengthening of the ranks of the mutineers, and the absence of any reliable force which he could use, he agreed to dismiss Osman Pasha Rifki and to appoint Mahmoud Pasha Baroudi, a *persona grata* to the troops, in his stead. The announcement was received with every sign of gratification by both officers and men. The leaders personally tendered their thanks to the Khedive, with an apology for their past misconduct and an expression of their fidelity to him. Order was thus restored, but it was an illusory calm that was established. It lasted, however, for some months —months of intrigue and uncertainty, during which Cairo was in a state of subdued excitement and unrest. At length, in September, the flame broke out afresh. The colonels, alarmed by a false story that the



VIEW OF THE ABDIN PALACE AND SQUARE.

Khedive had obtained a secret fetwa or decree from the Sheikh-ul-Islam condemning them to death for high treason, decided to force the situation by open mutiny. The excuse for the rising was found in the order issued on September 9th, directing the 3rd regiment of Infantry to proceed from Cairo to Alexandria. As soon as the instructions were received Arabi, mustering his supporters to the number of two thousand five hundred men with fifteen guns, marched with them to the square in front of the Abdin Palace. The Khedive, hearing of the movement, sent for Sir Auckland Colvin to the Ismailia Palace, where he was then staying. Sir Auckland Colvin advised the Khedive to take the initiative, to summon to his aid the two regiments which were said still to be faithful to him, and with these and all the military police he could muster to proceed to the square and personally arrest Arabi; Tewfik objected that Arabi had artillery and cavalry with him and that they might fire. Sir Auckland Colvin replied that they would not dare to, and that if he had the courage to take the initiative and to expose himself personally, he might succeed in overcoming the mutineers. These views were warmly supported by Stone Pasha, an American officer in the Egyptian Army, and the Khedive at length somewhat reluctantly acquiesced in the proposed step. Sir Auckland Colvin describes, in an interesting fashion, the subsequent course of events.

"I accompanied the Viceroy," he wrote, "in a separate carriage; the Ministers also, and some five or six native officers of rank, with Stone Pasha. We went first to the Abdin barracks, where the regiment of the guard turned out, and with the warmest protestations swore loyalty. Thence we drove to the Citadel, where the same occurred; but we learnt that this regiment, previous to our arrival, had been signalling to the regiment (Arabi Bey's) in the Abbassieh barrack. The Viceroy then announced his intention of going to the Abbassieh barrack. It was already 3.30; I urged him to return to the Abdin Square taking with him the Citadel Regiment, and when he arrived at the square to put himself at the head of that regiment, the regiment of the guard, and the military police. He drove off, however, to Abbassieh. It was a long drive, and when we got there about 4 (the Ministers having left us at the Citadel and returned direct) we found Arabi Bey had marched with the regiment to Cairo. We followed, and on entering the town the Viceroy took a long detour, and arrived at the Abdin Palace by a side door. I jumped out of my carriage, and urged him on no account to remain in the palace, but to come into the square. He agreed at once, and we went together, followed at a considerable distance by four or five of his native officers, Stone Pasha, and one or two other European officers. The square was entirely occupied by soldiers drawn up round it, and keeping all spectators at a distance. The Viceroy advanced firmly into the square towards a little group of officers and men (some mounted) in the centre. I said to him, 'When Arabi Bey presents himself, tell him to give you his sword, and to give them the order to disperse. Then go the round of the square and address each regiment separately, and give them the order to disperse.' Arabi Bey approached on horseback; the Viceroy called out to him to dismount. He did so, and came forward on foot, with several others and a guard with fixed bayonets, and saluted. I said to the Viceroy, 'Now is your moment.' He replied, 'We are between four fires.' I said, 'Have courage.' He took counsel of a native officer on his left, and repeated to me, 'What can I do? We are between four fires. We shall be killed.' He then told Arabi Bey to sheathe his sword. The order was obeyed; and he then asked Arabi Bey what all this meant. Arabi Bey replied by enumerating three points, adding that the army had come there on the part of the Egyptian people to enforce them, and would not retire till they were conceded. The Viceroy turned to me and said, 'You hear what he says.' I replied that it was not fitting for the Viceroy to discuss questions of this kind with Colonels, and suggested to him to retire into the Palace of Abdin, leaving me to speak to the Colonels. He did so, and I remained for about an hour till the arrival of Sir Charles Cookson, explaining to them the gravity of the situation for themselves, and urging them to retire the troops while there was yet time."

Arabi's famous three points were the dismissal of all ministers, the summoning of a Parliament, and the increase of the Egyptian army to eighteen thousand men. It was clear from these demands that something more than a military *emeute* had to be faced. Obviously what was contemplated was a constitutional revolution with a possible military dictatorship in the background. However, eventually an arrangement was patched up by Sir Charles Cookson (the acting British Consul-General), who conducted the negotiations with the mutineers that the ministers should be dismissed and that Cherif Pasha should be called upon to form a new Government. Cherif Pasha at the outset demurred to accepting office at the hands of a mutinous army. But eventually, on a strong representation being made to him by the Chamber of Notables, he agreed to serve on the understanding that they would give him their personal guarantee that the army should submit absolutely to his orders. Arabi and his fellow conspirators on their part intimated their willingness to accept their orders from Cherif Pasha, but they made two conditions: the first that Mahmoud Pasha Sami should be reinstated in office, and the second that the military law recommended by the Commission which had been recently sitting should be put into immediate execution. The conditions were accepted, but Cherif expressly reserved to himself the liberty of omitting the most important article, which proposed to raise the army to eighteen thousand men. These preliminaries having been settled, the new ministry entered office on September 14th. It did so with the goodwill of both Great Britain and France, and with a special assurance that in the event of the army proving itself submissive and obedient the Governments of the two countries would use their good offices to avert from Egypt an occupation by an Ottoman army. The Khedive, in completing his arrangements with Cherif Pasha, emphasised his personal opinion of the necessity of a perfect understanding between the Control and the Government. The Control, he said, "must be maintained and strengthened." Meanwhile Arabi took care that he should not be thrust into the background in the new régime. On September 9th a circular letter from him, signed "Colonel Ahmed Arabi," representing the Egyptian army, was sent to the Consuls-General assuring them that he and those acting with him would continue to protect the interests of friendly powers. A sovereign addressing the accredited foreign representatives in his country could not have taken a

higher line. The dominating feeling in the minds of Arabi and his fellow conspirators at this time, Lord Cromer considers, was one of fear. They were terrorised by the thought of a revenge which would be wreaked on them by the Khedive, and at one period even believed a story which had come to them—one of many floating about Cairo at that time—that three iron boxes had been prepared into which they were to be put and dropped into the Nile. It is improbable, Lord Cromer thinks, that the Khedive had any deliberate plan for wreaking vengeance on the mutineers. "It is certain that his humane nature would have revolted at any idea of assassination such as was attributed to him. At the same time, if he had considered himself sufficiently powerful to act, he would not improbably have made his displeasure felt in one form or another, in spite of the pardon which had been reluctantly wrung from him. Like Macbeth, he would not play false, but yet would wrongly win. It would be in harmony with the inconsistency of even an honest Oriental to pardon fully, and at the same time to make a mental reserve, which would enable him at some future time to act as though the pardon had only been partial. He allowed his surroundings, which almost always exercise a baneful influence in an Oriental court, to intrigue and to talk in a manner which was calculated to excite the fears and suspicions of the mutineers."

CHAPTER XXI.

Turkish Mission to Egypt—The Army Master of the Situation—Anti-European Agitation—Joint British and French Note to the Khedive—Lord Cromer's Views on the Note—Its Effect—Cherif Pasha Resigns—Ministry under Arabi's Influence formed—Gambetta proposes Intervention to the British Government—Second Joint Note—Arabi created a Pasha—Supposed Plot against Arabi's Life—The Accused Court-Martialled—Khedive Commutes the Sentences—A Crisis Precipitated.

It was in the atmosphere of doubt and suspicion described in the last chapter that the Cherif Ministry commenced its labours. Progress in such circumstances was impossible, and more and more the foreign element in the country became apprehensive. At this juncture the question of the intervention of the Porte was raised in a prominent fashion. The Sultan was anxious at the outset to take a very definite line to assert his supremacy, even going to the extent of wishing to occupy the country with Turkish troops. But the French Government very strongly objected to any measure of this kind and the British Government were also not eager to see a Turkish occupation of Egypt. In consequence the preparations which were made for the transport of the troops were abandoned. The Sultan now proposed that he should despatch a Turkish general to Cairo, but this suggestion was also vetoed by the two Powers. In the end two civil envoys were sent much against the wishes of Great Britain and France. They met with a very cool reception from the Khedive and his Ministers. Indeed, the main problem connected with the mission which occupied them was how to get rid of their unwelcome visitors. At length having inspected the troops and impressed upon the officers the duties of obedience the envoys, on October 18th, 1881, left Cairo on their return journey. Almost simultaneously a British and a French warship which had been sent to Alexandria to provide a place of refuge for Europeans in case of disturbance left Alexandria harbour in accordance with a prior arrangement that they should sail as soon as the Turkish Mission had quitted Egypt.

The Turkish Mission left matters very much in the state they were before their arrival. The sole visible outcome of the visit was the departure of Arabi to Suez with his regiment in accordance with orders which he had some time before received and disobeyed. But as the occasion was made one for a sort of triumphal progress for the mutinous leader the transfer did more harm than good. The Khedive, meanwhile, was brooding over the insults to his authority implied in the continued domination of the military leaders, and was allowing it to be widely understood that he considered that there would be no tranquility in the country until the combination had been broken up. Cherif Pasha sought, by convoking the Chamber of Notables, to give a more healthy direction to the legitimate aspirations of the Egyptians. It was a wise measure, and in other circumstances might have succeeded in restoring order to Egypt. But the power of the army by this time had increased to such an extent that it was practically master of the situation. Sir Auckland Colvin, in a memorandum written on September 19th, gave his views of the position in these words: "The arrangement we have been able to come to gives us a little breathing time during which we can take count of the forces that are at work around us and endeavour to guide or repress them. There should be no illusions on this point. That we are entering on a fresh period of order and regularity, there seems to be no ground for believing. The army is elated by what it has achieved and its leaders are penetrated with the conviction that their mission is to give Egypt liberty. The Notables, who are now in large numbers in Cairo, though they have taken into their hands the right to ask for an extension of civil liberties and deny the officers any right of petition or of interference in the matter, are at one with them in the desire to obtain some solid concessions. All is being done in an orderly and even exemplary manner; but the chance of any final settlement depends:—(1) On the Army dispersing to the several quarters assigned to it; (2) On the moderation shown by the Notables in their demands; (3) On the tact and firmness of the Ministers in dealing with the Army and the Notables." Sir Auckland Colvin went on to say that he did not think that it was at all his duty to oppose himself to the popular movement; but to try rather to guide and give it definite shape. It was an accurate and admirable survey of the situation that Sir Auckland Colvin made in this memorandum, and the context shows that he was entirely sympathetic to the liberalising movement which was associated with the agitation. In another despatch penned a few days later—on September 24th—the same friendly note is struck. "What," he said, "gives a show of justification to the recent conduct of the army and gives them support among great numbers of the respectable Egyptians, is that there is a great deal of truth in their complaints. They are sure of sympathy when they ask for justice, and protest against acts of arbitrary violence. The only way in which the Government can deprive them of the influence which they acquire by their appeal is by taking the game out of their hands." The Government were not in a position, unfortunately, to adopt Sir Auckland Colvin's advice. The situation had got beyond their control or was rapidly approaching that stage. Cherif nominally directed the ship of State, but the real head was Arabi who every day was strengthening his position as a national leader. In January, 1882, he was appointed Under Secretary for War as "it was thought better that he should belong to the Government than be outside of it." But this adoption of an old British Parliamentary device for silencing an awkward opponent came too late if ever it would have had any effect in reducing the elements of disorder. The country was ringing with Arabi's praises, and was looking more and more to him as its regenerator. Meanwhile, symptoms began to manifest themselves of a dangerous anti-European agitation. The tone of the vernacular press, in particular, was most unsatisfactory. Appeals to Mahomedan feeling were mingled with unmeasured denunciations of European control. The evident design was to increase the Nationalist movement by stirring up enmity against the foreigner.

A manifesto published in Europe at this period, and believed to emanate from Arabi, added fuel to the flames of foreign resentment. In this document it was averred that the army represented the people and was trusted by the people; that Egypt was sick of the European control and of its highly paid and often incompetent officials, and that Europeans should be replaced by Egyptians even were it deemed expedient to carry out the financial policy inaugurated by the control. In fine, Arabi preached the gospel of Egypt for the Egyptians in its nakedest form.

The profound alarm excited by this and other manifestations of the new spirit in Egypt led Great Britain and France to send to the Khedive a joint note in which they expressed their determination "to ward off by their united efforts the causes of external or internal complications which might menace the régime established in Egypt." Lord

Cromer considers that the presentation of this note was a profound mistake. "It is clear," he says, "that the British and French Governments were aiming at different objects. The French Government, whilst admitting the partnership with England as an unavoidable, though perhaps, unpleasant necessity, wished to tighten the hold of France over Egypt. The British Government, on the other hand, wished above all things to avoid the necessity of serious influence in Egypt. When, on January 6th, Lord Granville made a reservation agreeing to the joint note to the effect that he was 'not committed to any particular mode of action,' and when on January 7th, M. Gambetta replied 'c'est une réserve qui nous est commune,' they were in reality far from being agreed. Each interpreted his reservation in a different manner. Lord Granville meant that as a last resource he would fall back on Turkish armed intervention. M. Gambetta, on the other hand, was 'emphatically of opinion that any intervention of the Porte was wholly inadmissible.' On January 14th, *The Republiquè Francaise*, which was the recognised organ of M. Gambetta, declared that 'it would be a grave error to imagine that the two Powers were not firmly resolved to follow up their platonic demonstration in a suitable manner if order should be disturbed, or if the authority of the Khedive should again be placed in jeopardy.' In other words, M. Gambetta contemplated an Anglo-French occupation."

Further on, after an exhaustive and masterly analysis of the despatches which passed at the period, Lord Cromer sums up the position in these words:—"When carburetted hydrogen and air in certain proportions exist in a mine, no great harm is done so long as they are left alone. But if a miner enters with a lighted candle, an explosion at once takes place. This is what the French and British Governments did in Egypt when they issued the Joint Note. Previous to the issue of the Note, the National Party and the Military Party existed side by side. Cherif Pasha, aided by Sir Edward Malet and Sir Auckland Colvin, was laboriously and wisely endeavouring to keep the two parties separate. There was some hope that their united efforts would be successful, and that the National Party, which was the more healthy of the two elements, would eventually predominate over the Military Party, which constituted an element of obvious danger. At this moment the British and French Governments appeared, without any sufficient reason, on the scene. They offered a lighted candle to the inflammable material. In an instant the two elements combined with an explosion. The French Government possibly wished for an explosion. They were, at all events, callous whether an explosion occurred or not. But Lord Granville's action can only be explained on the assumption either that, in his desire to act with the French Government, he momentarily forgot the safety lamp of diplomatic prudence and reserve, or else that he did not sufficiently appreciate the fact that the mine was full of fire-damp. From the moment the Joint Note was issued, foreign intervention became an almost unavoidable necessity."

The effect of the delivery of the joint note on Egypt was very marked. To use Lord Morley's phrase, it "fell like a bombshell." A declaration of the kind was entirely unexpected and its distinct tone of menace produced a very disturbing and injurious effect on Egyptian opinion. As an immediate outcome of the note the military and national sections coalesced and threw down the gauntlet to the Powers by claiming the right of regulating the National Budget. The demand was immediately opposed by Cherif Pasha and the Controllers on the ground that, if the right claimed by the Chamber were accorded to them, the Council of Ministers, and therefore the Controllers, would lose their hold over the finances of the country. Lord Granville, on behalf of the British Government, was for making a partial concession to the demand. But M. Gambetta held that it was the duty of the two Powers to be firm, lest any appearance of vacillation on their part should encourage the pretensions of the Notables to lay their hands on the Budget. In the end the British Government yielded the point and a joint demand was preferred at Cairo that Cherif Pasha should absolutely reject the demands of the Notables "on the ground that they were incompatible with the state of things established in Egypt by international engagements with France and England." These protests, however, were of little avail, the back of the Chamber being stiffened at this particular juncture by the Sultan, who strongly expressed his approbation of the effort being made to put an end to the European control. Cherif Pasha strove gallantly to heal the breach which had been thus ominously opened, but all his efforts to effect a compromise were unsuccessful, and in the end Cherif Pasha, finding he could make no headway, handed in his resignation. The Khedive left to the Chamber the duty of forming a new administration. The outcome was the creation of a ministry nominally under the presidency of Mahmoud Pasha Sami, but in reality dominated by Arabi. Sir Edward Malet, the British Controller, was assured by the President on his assuming office that the new Government would faithfully observe all international obligations. But to the Assembly of Notables itself Mahmoud spoke in a different style, promising measures which would ensure the execution of the will of the majority.

M. Gambetta, as the spokesman of the French Government, was at this period all for active measures and submitted to Lord Granville a proposal for joint intervention to put an end to the anarchy. But Mr. Gladstone's Government were not disposed to assume this responsibility immediately for various reasons, the chief of which was that the question had in a measure become a party one at home, and a section, numerically small but individually extremely active, was working to secure a recognition of the nationalist aspirations embodied in the Arabi movement. Ministers hesitated, as they did frequently at this important juncture, and when they had made up their minds to accept the French offer M. Gambetta was on the eve of his fall from power and the British despatch was dealt with by M. de Freycinet, who was altogether opposed to intervention in the affairs of Egypt. It was afterwards insinuated in French quarters that Great Britain had held back at this juncture in order that she might afterwards intervene alone, but Lord Cromer emphatically repudiates this view. Having seen every despatch, whether published or unpublished, which is in the possession of the British Foreign Office bearing upon the question, and having also had ample opportunities of ascertaining by personal and verbal communications the views of the principal actors on the scene, he is "able to state with the utmost confidence that the insinuations are without a shadow of foundation."

While the negotiations were proceeding between Paris and London, Arabi in the Chamber was carrying out determinedly the policy he had marked out for the Ministry. The Chamber under his advice continued to discuss the measures, transferring to the Ministry the powers relative to the framing of the Budget which had hitherto been vested in the control. The two controllers, on finding the state of affairs with which they were confronted, made strong protests to their respective Governments, pointing out that the policy if persisted in would seriously prejudice the interests of the two countries and reduce to a minimum the influence of their representatives on the Council Board. Accepting these representations, Great Britain and France presented another joint note to the Khedive, but nothing further was done and for a time events took a peaceable course.

The firmness shown by Arabi and his party at this juncture was due no doubt in a considerable measure to the support that the national movement was at the time receiving in England, both in and out of Parliament. Prominent amongst those who came forward as enthusiastic believers in Arabi was Mr. Wilfrid Blunt, an English country gentleman, who, having visited Egypt during the winter of 1881–82 and mixed much with the national leaders, was greatly impressed with the strength of their cause and felt impelled to constitute himself its champion in the circles of his own countrymen. He was thoroughly well meaning and genuinely believed in himself as a missioner and ambassador, in both of which capacities he appeared. But, as Lord Cromer observes, "he failed to appreciate sufficiently the fact that the predominance of the military party would be fatal to the national character of the movement. . . . He worked earnestly and to the best of his abilities to prevent a foreign occupation of Egypt. But the impartial historian must perforce record his name amongst those who, by ill advised action at a critical moment, unwittingly contributed to bring about the solution which they most of all deplored."

Arabi was created a Pasha on March 15th, and it also appeared that as a further price of his support seventeen of his fellow conspirators had been promoted to colonelcies, while the Bedouins on whose support he leaned had been confirmed in all their privileges. Some little time afterwards the peace of Cairo was rudely broken by the news of a plot, or supposed plot, against the life of Arabi on the part of a number of Circassian officers. About forty of these were arrested and under Arabi's order placed on trial by a secret court-martial. The court found the prisoners guilty and condemned them to exile to the furthest limits of the Soudan. Amongst the prisoners so sentenced was Osman Pasha Rifki, the late Minister of War, who bore the title of Ferik or General conferred by the Sultan. On the facts of the court-martial becoming known the Porte claimed a right, on the ground of the conferment of Osman Pasha Rifki's title, to interfere, and claimed that the matter should be referred to Constantinople. The demand was defiantly repudiated by ministers, who intimated that if an order to cancel the sentences were sent it would not be obeyed and that if the Porte sent commissioners their landing would be opposed by force. The French Government, as a way out of the difficulty, suggested that the Khedive should himself pardon the condemned officers, and Great Britain acquiescing an identic note was presented recommending the adoption of this course. The Khedive, acting upon the advice, on May 9th signed a decree commuting the sentence of the courts-martial to simple exile from Egypt. The step precipitated a crisis. A few days later relations between Tewfik and his Ministers were broken off, and on May 19th Sir Edward Malet described the situation as having

become "most serious." "There appears to be little doubt," Lord Cromer says, "that the intention of the military party at this time was to depose the Khedive, to exile the family of Mehemet Ali, and to appoint Mahmoud Pasha Sami Governor General by the national will." After this the situation improved a little in consequence of the intervention of the Notables, who endeavoured to bring the Khedive and his Ministers together again. But the influence for peace was only transient and soon matters were worse than ever with Arabi installed in triumph as dictator.

CHAPTER XXII.

British and French Fleets despatched to Alexandria—Obstructive Policy of the Porte—Powers formulate their Demands—Resignation of Ministers—Reinstatement of Arabi and his Associates—Turkish Commissioners despatched to Egypt—Riots at Alexandria—Exodus of Europeans—Growing Unrest—Conference of the Powers at Constantinople—Arabi constructs Fortifications at Alexandria—British Ultimatum—Bombardment of Alexandria—Firing of the City—British restore Order.

In view of the growing dangers of the situation the British and French Governments towards the end of May agreed to send a joint squadron to Alexandria for the protection of European interests. It was also arranged between the two Powers that a request should be preferred to the Porte to abstain for the present from all intervention or interference in Egypt, and that the Consuls-General should be instructed to recognise as legal no other authority than that of Tewfik Pasha and not to enter into relations with any other *de facto* government, except for the purpose of securing the safety of their countrymen. A suggestion was made at the time by Lord Granville that the other great Powers should be invited to have their flags represented at Alexandria. But the French Government would not hear of this. "I am not of opinion," M. de Freycinet wrote, "that we should at present invite the other Powers to send ships by the side of ours. It is not, in my judgment, for our own interest that we should in this way take an initiative which would deprive the Anglo-French action of the directive character which Europe itself assigns to it, and appears desirous to leave to it in Egypt." The naval demonstration consequently went forward on exclusively Anglo-French lines. The Sultan, on hearing of it, was greatly irritated. An arrangement had been entered into between the British and French Governments that the Sultan's aid was to be called in if after the arrival of the squadrons at Alexandria it should be deemed advisable to land troops. But unfortunately no clear intimation was given of this intention at Constantinople, the Sultan being left to imagine that his authority was to be entirely disregarded. The consequence was that at this critical period, when the Powers needed all the support they could obtain to restore order, the Sultan was inimical to them, and actively intrigued against them. Some plain language was used at this time at Constantinople by Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador. The Turkish Foreign Secretary was told that "if instead of helping to terminate the crisis in the desired manner, the Porte complicates the situation by falsifying facts and running counter to our advice, we shall double the number of our ships at Alexandria, and their stay will be indefinitely prolonged." Notwithstanding this frank warning, the Sultan showed little disposition to change his obstructive policy. Very naturally the consequences



ALEXANDRIA BEFORE THE FAMOUS OBELISK WAS REMOVED.

were reflected in Cairo in a stiffening of the backs of the Arabists, who were singularly well informed during all this period of every move that was being made in the game. About the time that Lord Dufferin was delivering his minatory message in Constantinople, Sir Edward Malet in Cairo was endeavouring to alleviate the situation by negotiating with Arabi and his three principal colleagues with a view to their quitting the country. When this development of the policy of the dual Powers was unfolded, a Cabinet Council was held and a decision was come to at it to reply "to any official demands made upon them that they did not admit the right of the English and French Governments to interfere, and that they recognised no ultimate authority but that of the Sultan." At the same time advantage was taken of the incident to inflame the minds of the population against the dual control. In a document circulated amongst the officers of the army it was represented that the two Governments insisted that all Ministers should be exiled, that all the officers on the army list should leave Egypt, that the entire army should be disbanded, that Egypt should be occupied by foreign troops, and that the Chamber should be dissolved. To correct the bad impression produced by this extremely unveracious announcement, Sir Edward Malet and his colleague, acting on instructions from their respective Governments on May 25th issued a joint note setting forth the true demands of the Powers as follows:—1, the temporary retirement from Egypt of Arabi Pasha, with the maintenance of his rank and pay; 2, the retirement into the interior of Egypt of Ali Pasha Fehmi and Abdul-al-Pasha, who will also retain their rank and pay; 3, the resignation of the present Ministry." The note added "that the intervention of the two Powers being divested of all character of vengeance and reprisal, they will use their good offices to obtain from the Khedive a general amnesty and will watch over its strict observance." Upon receipt of this note, ministers resigned. The brief lull which followed was thought to herald a return to happier conditions. But soon the crisis was as acute as ever, Cherif Pasha having declined to form a Ministry on the ground that no government was possible as long as the military chiefs remained in the country. Extreme pressure was now put upon the Khedive to reinstate Arabi. Sultan Pasha and other deputies told him in the presence of the British and French Controllers that if he did not yield his life would not be safe. Other messages of the same terms came from military officers stationed at Alexandria. Nevertheless Tewfik declined to yield until May 28th, when the chiefs of religion, including the Patriarch and the Chief Rabbi, having waited on him and urged in the strongest terms his submission, he gave a reluctant consent to the restoration of Arabi and his party to office. An extremely bad effect was produced, as might have been anticipated by the humiliation of the Khedive. By the Arabists it was regarded as sounding the death knell of European domination, and there were extravagant expectations entertained that all land bought or mortgaged by Christians would be occupied by Egyptians and that the National Debt would be cancelled. At Alexandria, where the proximity of the foreign fleets acted, it seemed, as an exciting factor, the situation became very bad. Sir Charles Cookson, the British Consul, reported on May 30th that every day increased the dangerous temper of the soldiery and their growing defiance of discipline, and he further mentioned that officers of the Army were obtaining by threats signatures to a petition praying for the deposition of the Khedive. On May 31st Sir Edward Malet, greatly impressed by the critical state of the country, telegraphed warning the British Government that "a collision might at any moment occur between the Moslems and the Christians." In their difficulty at this juncture the Powers turned to the idea of an International Conference, but on the Porte declining to send representatives to such a gathering, the project was abandoned, and instead it was agreed that the Sultan should send a Commissioner to Egypt to examine into the situation. Two delegates were chosen for the duty—Dervish Pasha and Essad Effendi. They left with instructions highly characteristic of the tortuous Turkish diplomacy. Whilst Dervish Pasha was to act generally on lines favourable to the Khedive and hostile to Arabi, the latter was to attach himself to the Arabists, and labour for their advantage by fomenting dissensions between the Powers. In these mutually contradictory rôles the two envoys appeared upon the political stage in Cairo early in June. Their advent did nothing



SIR EDWARD MALET, P.C., G.C.M.G.

beyond aggravating a sufficiently grave situation already. It was followed almost immediately by grave rioting at Alexandria, in which some fifty Europeans were slaughtered by a fanatical mob in circumstances of inconceivable brutality. Sir Charles Cookson, the British Consul, was dragged out of his carriage and severely wounded, as were also a number of other residents. The temper of the mob was such, indeed, that no European life for the moment was safe. "Whenever a European appeared in sight," said the official report on the disturbances, "the mob cried out: 'O Moslems! Kill him! Kill the Christian!'" There was a strong suspicion entertained at the time that both the Khedive and Arabi were concerned in the massacres. But this was not the view of Sir Edward Malet, who considers that the outbreak was the natural outcome of the political effervescence of the time. A considerable moral responsibility, however, Lord Cromer thinks, rested on Arabi and his colleagues for the bloodshed. "For a long time past they had done their best to arouse the race hatred and fanaticism of the cowardly mob at Alexandria. The natural result ensued."

The Powers, on hearing of the disturbances at Alexandria, invoked the aid of Dervish Pasha to ensure the security of Europeans. But the Turkish Commissioner was quite helpless in the matter, and naturally declined in the absence of troops to make himself responsible for the preservation of order. Arabi was then appealed to, and agreed to see to the execution of the Khedive's orders for the suppression of disorder. The European community, however, had absolutely no confidence in these guarantees, and a great exodus followed. In the course of a few days several thousand foreigners quitted the country, and others only awaited the means of transport to leave. Business in the circumstances was completely paralysed. About this time, acting on the suggestion of Germany and Austria, the Khedive entrusted Ragheb Pasha with the duty of forming a ministry. In the list of ministers submitted by this individual, who is described by Lord Cromer as "an effete old man," Arabi's name figured against the office of War Minister. This attempt to control the situation by ordinary constitutional methods was as complete a failure as those which preceded it. Ragheb Pasha was treated as a nonentity by his aspiring military colleagues, who, according to an official despatch forwarded from Cairo at the time, "were too much occupied with warlike designs and preparations to pay any serious attention to reassuring measures, or to the need of serious steps with a view to the establishment of order, and a more normal state of affairs."

As they were well calculated to do, the outrages at Alexandria, with the general symptoms of unrest, opened the eyes of the most purblind of people to the dangers which menaced civilised society in Egypt. Still the diplomats who had been playing with the situation for months had not yet been brought to see that the time had gone for words. A proposal was made on June 13th by the British and French Governments to the effect that the Sultan should be invited to send troops to Egypt to maintain the Khedive's authority, on the distinct understanding that they should only be used for the maintenance of the *status quo*, that there should be no interference with the liberties of Egypt, and that the troops should only remain in Egypt a month, except at the request of the Khedive and with the assent of the Powers. The Powers approved this project, but the Sultan declined to give it his sanction. Nevertheless the conference was held at Constantinople, the delegates assembling on June 23rd. A number of sittings were held, but small progress was made until July 6th, when a decision was come to to invite the Sultan to send troops on certain specified conditions. The discussions were continuing in deliberate fashion, when an event occurred which rendered the whole business abortive. This was the bombardment of Alexandria. The inaction of the Powers after the massacre at Alexandria had produced a very bad impression in many ways, but notably in adding to the truculence of the military party, who now reigned supreme. Not content with a resistance to the will of the Powers in the diplomatic sphere, Arabi and his colleagues proceeded to offer open defiance to them by increasing the garrison of Alexandria and commencing the construction of batteries commanding the approaches to the city from the sea. The British Government, on being appealed to for instructions by Sir Beauchamp Seymour (afterwards Lord Alcester), the British Admiral, gave orders on July 3rd to prevent the construction of the works, and to destroy the earthworks, and silence the batteries if they opened fire. The French Government were invited to join in

this action, but M. de Freycinet declined to allow the French fleet to participate, urging as a reason that a measure of the kind could not be undertaken without violating the constitution which prohibited the Government from making war without the assent of the Chamber. Acting on his instructions, Lord Alcester on July 6th sent a note to the commandant of the Alexandria garrison demanding that work on the fortifications should cease. He received a reply to the effect that no guns had been recently added to the forts or military preparations made, and as this assertion was supported by Dervish Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, the British admiral had to rest content. On the 9th of July, however, there were unmistakeable evidences of new work upon the fortifications, and Lord Alcester recognised that the time had come for action. The next morning at daybreak he gave notice to the foreign consuls at Alexandria that he would "commence action twenty-four hours after unless the forts on the isthmus and those commanding the entrance to the harbour were surrendered." The Sultan, on hearing of the proposed action, sought to arrest it by a belated offer to present "a satisfactory solution of the Egyptian question." But the British Government told him that the sands had run out and that matters must take their course. On the night of the 10th the British squadron steamed out of the inner harbour and took up their positions outside ready cleared for action on the morrow. One division of the fleet, consisting of the *Monarch* (8,320 tons, seven guns), the *Invincible* (6,010 tons, fourteen guns), and the *Penelope* (4,470 tons, eleven guns), remained in the outer harbour to deal with Fort Meks and the recently erected earthworks at Marsa-el-Kanal. Another division, consisting of the *Alexandra* (9,490 tons, twelve guns), the *Sultan* (9,290 tons, twelve guns), and the *Superb* (9,100 tons, sixteen guns), was told off to a position outside the harbour to silence Fort Aidr, Pharos Castle, and the Ras-el-Tin works. A reserve, composed of the *Inflexible* (11,400 tons and four turret guns) and the *Téméraire* (8,540 tons, eight guns), was left for general supporting service either inside or outside the harbour as the exigencies of the fight demanded. The gunboats were left to undertake miscellaneous duties which the larger ships could not so well discharge. The force employed numbered altogether thirteen vessels, and was manned by 3,500 men. A gun fired from the *Alexandra* at 7 a.m. on July 11th signalled the commencement of the bombardment. It was at once replied to by the forts and soon the action became general. At the outset the Egyptians stood well to their guns and their fire was commendably accurate, though it had little effect on the armour protected vessels which bore the brunt of the attack. The grounding of the *Téméraire* created some anxiety for a time, but the vessel was eventually got off and continued the fight. At about 8.30 the fort at Marsa-el-Kanal was blown up, and the neighbouring Meks Fort was shortly afterwards completely destroyed, a landing party giving the finishing touch by spiking the few guns left in position. The lighthouse batteries were effectually dealt with by the Second Division, but Fort Aidr held out until the *Inflexible* brought her eighty-ton guns into play and gave her the quietus. The best fight was made by Fort Pharos, which held out until 4 p.m. At 5.30 p.m. the order to cease fire was given from the Admiral's flagship. One of the episodes of the day which attracted widespread comment and admiration was the plucky conduct of a little gunboat, the *Condor*, commanded by Lord Charles Beresford, which, running close in shore, engaged the Marabout Fort, and aided materially in its reduction by dismounting several of her guns by short range fire.

As there was no sign of submission on the part of the city the bombardment was renewed on the morning of July 12th, although only in an intermittent fashion. It had not continued long before a flag of truce was displayed. This token was taken to mean that Arabi desired to surrender, but before the day had advanced to its close it was discovered that the white flag had been shown merely to enable Arabi to withdraw his troops in safety. In the absence of troops no effective steps could be taken to occupy the city, and Lord Alcester, after satisfying himself that the forts were deserted, withdrew his men to await events. He had perhaps not anticipated what was to follow. For two days the city was given up to plunder by a fanatical mob. Wherever Europeans were encountered they were ruthlessly murdered, shops and houses were broken into, and property wantonly destroyed. Fires broke out in various quarters to add to the general confusion. The whole place in fact was a sea of anarchy. For two days this state of affairs continued, and then the British admiral, acting on instructions from home, moved. He landed strong parties of bluejackets and marines and these soon evolved something like order out of the general chaos by drastic methods which have to be resorted to on such occasions. The Khedive, who during the bombardment had been at the Ras-el-Tin palace, now placed himself under British protection, and was conveyed back to his palace and guarded there by seven hundred marines. It was stated at the time by those hostile to the British action that the city was set on fire by shells from the ironclads, but there is no reasonable doubt that the conflagrations were the work of incendiaries. Whether Arabi was responsible for them is a moot question, but it was strongly suspected at the time that he was, and his action in this respect constituted one of the most formidable counts in the indictment against him at his trial.

CHAPTER XXIII.

British Expeditionary Force despatched under the Command of Lord Wolseley—Battle of Tel-el-Kebir—Occupation of Cairo, and Surrender of Arabi—Trial of Arabi and his Chief Associates—Lord Dufferin's Mission—Break up of the Dual Control—Arabi exiled to Ceylon—Courts-Martial on Rioters guilty of Heinous Crimes—Controversy as to the Character of the British Occupation—Lord Dufferin's Report—Commencement of Reforms.

THE die was now cast, whether Great Britian liked it or not she was committed to armed intervention to restore order in Egypt. The necessity was recognised even before the bombardment by the great bulk of the nation, in common with the public of Europe. But a small and active section of politicians in favour of the Egyptian national movement continued to hold out, and they were now reinforced by no less a personality than Mr. John Bright, who, after the attack on Alexandria, resigned his seat in the Ministry. But the opposition from this section only served as a stimulus to the determination of the country to put an end, once and for all, to the reign of disorder in Egypt. Preparations were made on an adequate scale to ensure the success of the Government policy. From the Mediterranean stations troops were immediately sent to Lord Alcester's assistance to provide for the effectual occupation of Alexandria. Meanwhile, the arrangements were sketched out for the despatch of a joint British and Indian expeditionary force to cope with the rebellious Egyptian Army and re-establish the Khedive upon the throne. It was considered that a force of not less than 40,000 men would be necessary to cope with Arabi's troops. The necessary transport for a body of this size was procured, and within a few weeks the entire expeditionary force was upon the water. From home stations, 1,010 officers and 21,200 non-commissioned officers, with 54 field guns, 5,600 horses, and 500 pack animals were despatched at the outset, and they were subsequently reinforced by 280 officers and 10,800 men. From India were sent 170 officers and 7,100 men. Altogether, therefore, the expeditionary force consisted of 40,560 officers and men of all rank. It was commanded by Sir Garnet (afterwards Lord) Wolseley, who had as his chief of staff, Sir John Adye, while the Duke of Connaught accompanied the army as a volunteer.

By the second week in August the troops commenced to arrive at Alexandria. The Brigade of Guards were amongst the first to land and they were followed on August 15th by Sir Garnet Wolseley. On his arrival the Khedive at once issued decrees, giving full powers to the British to undertake operations and occupy the country. All was now in proper order for the opening of the ball. But what was the plan of campaign to be? Reconnaissances made prior to Sir Garnet Wolseley's arrival by Sir Archibald Alison, had shown that Arabi with 20,000 men was entrenched at Kafr el Dawar. The assumption was that he would be directly attacked. The British Commander-in-Chief himself, allowed it to be understood that the destination of the troops was the Bay of

Aboukir, where they would land after the ships had silenced the guns. The ships of war, with the transports carrying the First Division which had been re-embarked, sailed out of harbour on the 14th, as if to carry out this programme. But when night fell the whole fleet took an eastward course and when morning broke were off Port Said. The First Division were immediately landed and occupied Port Said. Almost simultaneously Kantara and Ismailia were seized, and the Seaforth Highlanders, who had arrived from India, by a rapid march occupied Chalouf, and so saved the Fresh Water Canal. By August 22nd the whole of the troops forming the First Division had been landed. Two days later a composite force consisting of household cavalry, infantry, mounted infantry, marines, and horse artillery, came in touch with a strong body of the enemy posted at Tel el Mahuta. A brisk engagement took place with the result that the Arabists were compelled to evacuate their position under cover of the night. Encouraged by the evidences of demoralisation which existed amongst the Egyptian forces, Sir Garnet Wolseley decided immediately to push forward and if possible occupy Kassassin Lock, so as to ensure a supply of fresh water. Another brisk skirmish took place which resulted as the previous one in the retreat of the enemy thoroughly demoralised. A brief pause now ensued prior to the decisive engagement which was to follow. While Lord Wolseley was awaiting the arrival of troops from India, Arabi was engaged in entrenching himself at Tel-el-Kebir. On September 9th Arabi, with eight thousand men and twenty-four guns emerged from the fortifications, and an artillery duel ensued. There was a brisk interchange of shots, but it soon appeared that the Arabists had little real stomach for the fight, and they ultimately retired, leaving several of their guns on the field. By this time Lord Wolseley's plans were ripe for execution. They resolved themselves into a night attack delivered against the enemy's entrenchments by a force comprised of eleven thousand bayonets, two thousand sabres, and sixty guns. In pursuance of the project at nightfall on September 12th the tents were struck and packed and the force moved silently forward. When they had advanced a short distance a halt was called, and the men rested on their arms until about 1.30 a.m., when the order to advance was given. The line was made up of two batteries of horse artillery, and the cavalry brigade on the extreme right ; next came an infantry brigade commanded by General Graham, and supported by the guards under the Duke of Connaught ; then forty-two guns of the field artillery under Colonel Goodenough, supported by a brigade of infantry, and finally, between the guns and canal and railway, was the highland brigade, under Sir Archibald Alison. An ironclad train, manned by two hundred and fifty blue jackets occupied the railway, and on the south side of the canal on the extreme left was the Indian brigade. The assault was delivered by the highland brigade and the infantry brigade under General Graham. The Egyptians scarcely made a pretence of standing to await the attack from the advancing troops. Casting down their arms the Arabists fled, spreading over the country in all directions. The Indian contingent, which had taken little part in the assault on the entrenchments now took up the running, and by a brilliant forced march reached Cairo on the evening of September 14th. Arabi, who had left the battlefield early in the day and taken train for the capital, surrendered without a struggle, and other leaders also tendered their submission. The next day Lord Wolseley with the headquarters staff and detachments of the guards, highlanders, and marines entered the capital. There was a flicker of resentment shown by the turbulent and fanatical classes, but it was soon dissipated by a little firmness on the part of the British commander, and speedily the city settled down, taking the new situation with the philosophic calm of the East. In the operations which were thus brought to a brilliant culmination, the British losses were only 54 killed and 342 wounded. Unhappily, a serious addition had to be made to the losses arising out of the warfare by the inclusion amongst the killed of Professor Palmer, Captain Gill, R.E., and Lieut. Charrington, R.N., who were murdered by Bedouins in the desert not far from Suez whither they had gone on a mission from the Government. Salutary justice was subsequently meted out to the murderers by the authorities, but the fact afforded poor



THE MARQUESS OF DUFFERIN.

consolation for the loss of Professor Palmer, who was one of the most brilliant Arabic scholars of his time.

The downfall of Arabi, so far from simplifying matters, only added to the political difficulties with which the question of the restoration of authority in Egypt was hedged around. As far as the British Government was concerned, having got into Egypt, its chief anxiety was to get out again with all despatch. But the move was not so easy to make as was hoped and believed at the time by Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues in the Ministry. However, a beginning was made by the immediate despatch from the country of the greater part of the expeditionary force. Meanwhile, Arabi and his fellow conspirators were placed upon their trial on various charges associated with the rebellion, the principal of which was that they had been directly responsible for the firing of Alexandria. The wish of the Khedive and his advisers was that the trial should take place in private so that there should be no further opportunity afforded for the stirring up of strife. But Mr. Wilfrid Blunt and a number of Arabi's other English sympathisers championed his cause so effectively that a public trial was ordered, and English counsel (Mr. A. M. Broadley) assigned to the defeated leader. The proceedings dragged on for many weeks, during which various sensational disclosures were made implicating high personages in Arabi's actions. Meanwhile, Lord Dufferin had appeared on the scene charged with the duty of formulating some plan for the future government of Egypt. Shortly after his arrival in Cairo on November 7, he received a request addressed by the Egyptian Government to the British and French Governments asking that the dual control should cease. The British Government gave its acquiescence to the course proposed ; but the French Government declined to accept the inevitable on the ground that the contract was one which could not be annulled without the assent of all parties to it. Attempts were made to bring France into line by the offer of various concessions. The close of the year, however, found the Paris Cabinet still unyielding, and Lord Dufferin, therefore, proceeded to frame his proposals on independent lines. The question of Arabi's fate all the time was a subject of earnest consideration on the part of the British Commissioner. The trial was dragging along in a tortuous way, exciting the public mind and keeping open by its revelations of intrigue and turpitude controversies which were best laid at rest. In the circumstances Lord Dufferin decided to intervene to put an end to the proceedings, and he did so with such good effect that Arabi and his fellow conspirators on December 3 pleaded guilty to the charge of rebellion and received the next day the doubtless prearranged sentence of exile. There was some discussion as to the place of residence of the prisoners, but ultimately Colombo in Ceylon was settled on, and thither the party proceeded in a specially chartered steamer which sailed from Suez on December 26th. For nineteen years Arabi remained in exile chafing under the restraint of his gilded captivity. In 1901 he was permitted to return to Egypt and took up his residence in Cairo amongst a population which had grown almost out of recollection of him.

Though the exiling of Arabi and his associates did much to clear the way for the reconstruction of the Civil Government on reformed lines, which was involved by the British occupation, there was still a good deal of judicial work necessary before the last vestiges of the revolt were removed. Hundreds of persons were in confinement charged with murder, arson, pillage, and other heinous crimes in connection with the rising. Commissions were appointed to make preliminary investigations and send for trial by a court-martial all prisoners against whom a *prima facie* case existed. The work was not carried through without a further display of the humanitarian zeal of a section of British politicians which had been displayed at other periods of the Egyptian crisis. But Lord Dufferin pointed out very clearly in his despatches that the anxiety shown was without adequate ground. "The persons dealt with by the Commissioners and the Court-Martial," he said, "were Mussulman Egyptians accused of murdering and pillaging Christians, principally European Christians. My experience of the East has long since convinced me that an Oriental court of justice may be safely trusted not to strain either law or evidence when the cause lies between a Mussulman culprit and his Christian victim. During all the time I was in Egypt Major MacDonald (afterwards Sir Claude MacDonald) was principally preoccupied in noting the tendency of the Court to unduly favour the prisoners and your

lordship may rest assured that whatever miscarriages of justice may have occurred have been occasioned by the escape of the guilty and not by the condemnation of any innocent persons." In spite of the ill-advised attempts of home politicians to interfere with the course of justice, the courts continued their work, apportioning punishment in each case as the guilt of the prisoner was determined. Capital sentences were passed in a few instances where the gravity of the offence demanded it, but the great majority of the prisoners were condemned to various terms of penal servitude and imprisonment. The special Commissions and the Court-Martial were finally abolished by a decree of the Government, dated October 9, 1883.

Prior to this a vigorous controversy had been raging as to the precise character of the British occupation. Very early after the Battle of Tel-el-Kebir the French Government had put forward a polite request to the British Government to name a day for the withdrawal of the British troops. In reply the authorities in Paris had been informed that though the British Government had no desire to prolong the occupation, it could not leave Egypt until it had fulfilled its task of restoring order. The British position was formally stated in a diplomatic note which Lord Granville, the then Foreign Secretary, sent to the Powers. This communication was as follows :—"Although for the present a British force remains in Egypt for the preservation of public tranquility, Her Majesty's Government are desirous of withdrawing it as soon as the state of the country and the organisation of proper means for the maintenance of the Khedive's authority will admit of it. In the meanwhile, the position in which Her Majesty's Government are placed towards His Highness imposes upon them the duty of giving advice with the object of securing that the order of things to be established shall be of a satisfactory character, and possess the elements of stability and progress." From this position the Government steadily declined to recede, though strong pressure was put upon them to fix a definite date for the evacuation, not only by the French Government but by an important body of publicists in Great Britain.

Beyond doubt ministers were strongly influenced in the attitude they assumed by the information sent to them from time to time by Lord Dufferin, as to the impossibility of leaving Egypt to work out its destinies unaided. Lord Dufferin's final proposals were set forth in a long despatch from Cairo, dated February 6, 1883. After sketching in brilliant fashion the weakness and corruption of the Egyptian Government, which had paved the way for Arabi's rebellion, the British Commissioner detailed the measures which he deemed necessary to "erect an Egypt, peaceful, prosperous and contented, able to pay its debts, capable of maintaining order along the canal, and offering no excuse in the troubled condition of its affairs for interference outside." He suggested the establishment of an Egyptian army of 6,000 men, a semi-military constabulary numbering 5,600, both officered to a small extent, at first, by Europeans, and the provision of an urban police of some 1,600 constables to maintain order in the large towns of the Delta. In association with these measures Lord Dufferin recommended the setting up of a representative system comprising (1) the Village System, (2) Provincial Councils, (3) the Legislative Council, (4) a General Assembly, and (5) Eight Ministers responsible to the Khedive. Further, Lord Dufferin proposed that there should be a thorough revision of the codes, and the organisation of new judicial tribunals upon the lines of the best European model, and to be presided over for a time by European judges. Sweeping as these changes were, they did not by any means exhaust the list of reforms which Lord Dufferin deemed to be essential. He urged that irrigation works should be put in hand, the carrying out of a cadestral survey with the view to an equitable assessment of the land tax, the setting up of a national system of education, a reform of the civil service, the abolition of forced labour, the abandonment of some of the more distant Soudan provinces, the gradual abolition of domestic slavery, the suppression of the slave trade, and the equal taxation of foreigners and natives.

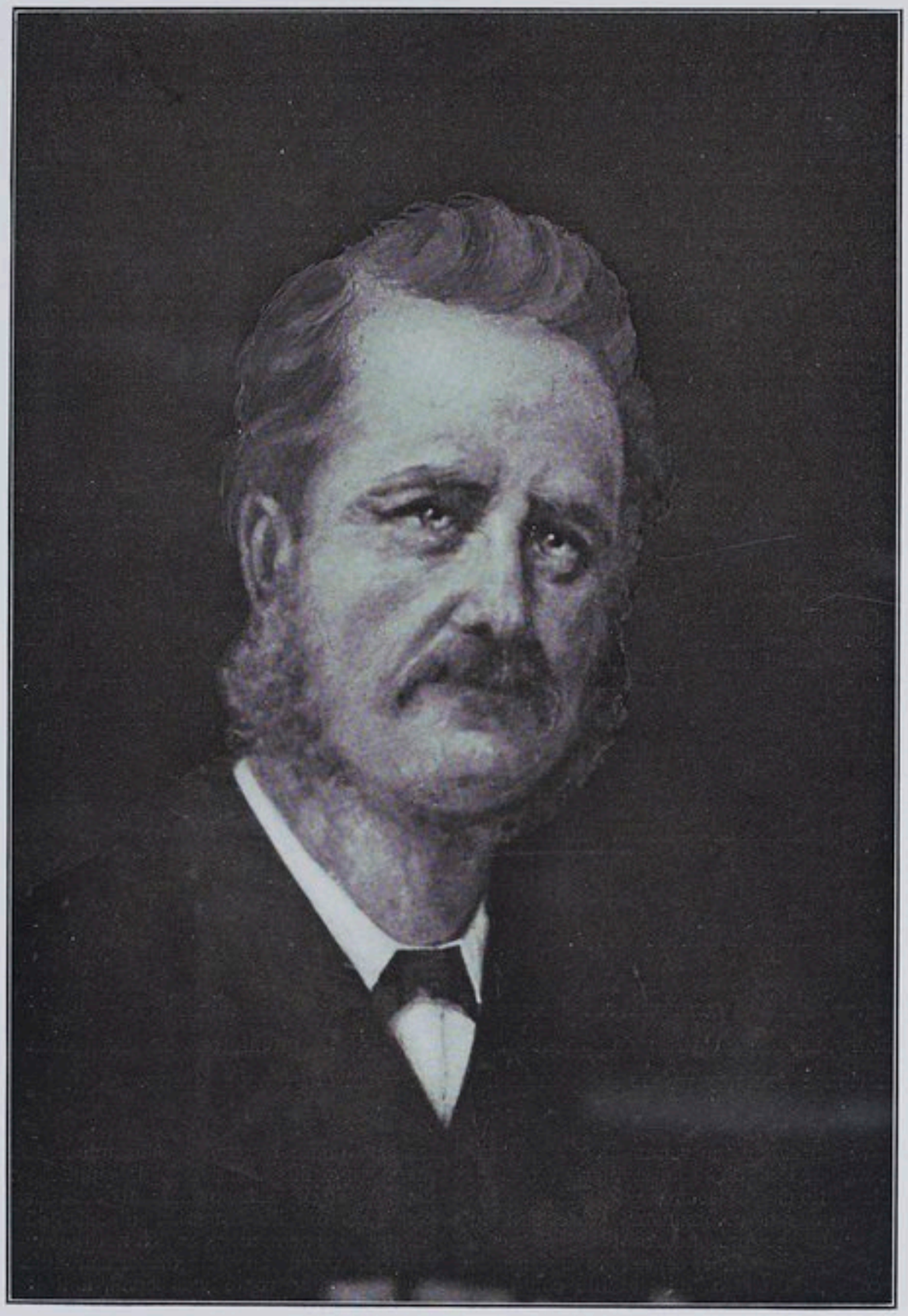
Lord Dufferin's recommendations were in the main accepted, and steps were immediately taken to give them effect, while Mr. Clifford Lloyd's peculiar talents were employed in raising an urban police and grappling with the worst abuses of the prison system. For the prosecution of the irrigation works contemplated the services of Colonel (afterwards Sir) Scott Moncrieff were secured, in the *rôle* of head of the Public Works Department. Under the title of Procureur-General of the Native Tribunals, Sir Benson Maxwell was invited to superintend the needful reforms in the administration of justice. Most important of all the appointments was that of Sir Evelyn Baring (now Lord Cromer) to succeed Sir Edward Malet, who had been promoted to be minister at Brussels. The eminent Pro-Consul arrived in Cairo on September 11, 1883, to enter upon what was to prove one of the most remarkable careers which had fallen to the lot of a British official in recent times. A lamentable outbreak of cholera towards the end of June, involving no fewer than thirty thousand victims, for a time interrupted the proce-s of reconstruction. But towards the end of the year, thanks to the energetic measures taken by the authorities, the disease practically disappeared, and the normal course of administration was resumed.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Outbreak of the Mahdist Revolt in the Soudan—British Government recommends Evacuation within Certain Limits—Cherif Pasha Resigns—Nubar Pasha forms a Ministry Pledged to Abandonment of the Soudan—Appointment of Gordon to supervise the Evacuation—The Khartoum Tragedy—The Responsibility for it—Lord Cromer's Views.

At this time a greater evil than disease and pestilence was overshadowing Egypt. In the Soudan the standard of revolt had been raised by the Mahdi, and Egyptian authority in that remote region was being swept out of existence by a movement into which the religious and fanatical element largely entered. In the section of the book relating to the Soudan a full account is given of the genesis and development of this rising, and it will not be necessary here to do more than notice those phases of the question which peculiarly affected the course of events in Lower Egypt. An essential point which came into prominence very early in the Soudan trouble was the question of the future of the country. Lord Dufferin, as we have seen, had recommended the abandonment of some of the more distant provinces of the Soudan, but that was a policy which it was soon clear did not go far enough. When Hicks Pasha's army had been destroyed in November, 1883, the Egyptian power was practically wiped out. At Khartoum the remnants of a government wielded a phantom authority, and at remote stations garrisons of Egyptian troops under European commanders were still in being. But the presence of these elements in the country rather served to accentuate the collapse than to indicate the continued existence of Egyptian power. The British Government, from the outset of the imbroglio, studiously held aloof from interference. The view it took was that the restoration of Egyptian authority in the Soudan was the business of Egypt exclusively. Consequently it declined to lend either British or Indian troops to operate against the Mahdi, and though it did not prohibit the employment of Turkish troops for the purpose, it did not consider that it would be to the advantage of Egypt for a force of the kind to go to the Soudan. Actually, it thought, Egypt would be the stronger if it got rid of its troublesome and expensive appanage, and it recommended the abandonment of the Soudan within certain limits. There were very substantial grounds for urging this course. All supplies were cut off from Khartoum, and the garrison consisted of the dregs of a defeated and demoralised army upon which not the smallest reliance could be placed. Meanwhile the Berber-Suakin route was open, and it was possible to withdraw the garrison without any very serious difficulty. The Egyptian Government was extremely unwilling to accept the idea of abandonment, and struggled hard for a time to obtain a revision of the decision. The British Government, however, held with great tenacity to its point, and, finding that it was not possible to move it, Cherif Pasha tendered his resignation to the Khedive. Lord Cromer had very great difficulty in securing the appointment of a new ministry, so unpopular was the policy of withdrawal. The crisis at length became so acute that Lord Cromer had to seriously consider whether he should not take the Government into his own hands preparatory

to the appointment of British ministers. It was at this point that the Khedive announced that he cordially accepted the policy of abandonment, and had sent for Nubar Pasha to form a new ministry. On January 8th matters had advanced so far that Lord Cromer was able to telegraph to London the intimation that Nubar Pasha had consented to form a ministry, and that "he entirely concurred



GENERAL CHARLES G. GORDON, C.B., R.E.
(From the Picture in the National Portrait Gallery.)
(Painted at Cairo in 1884 by Leo Diet.)

in the wisdom of abandoning the Soudan, retaining possession of Suakin."

Thus the policy of evacuation became a settled matter. But as events proved, the decision was only the starting point of a fresh and more serious set of difficulties. As their agent for the carrying out of the necessary measures for the withdrawal of the troops, the British Government, driven by the force of a powerful public sentiment, appointed General Charles Gordon, a soldier of unblemished reputation, who had won a great name, first as the organiser of the Ever Victorious Army in China, and later as Sir Samuel Baker's successor in the Soudan. When the proposal to employ Gordon was first made on December 1, 1883, the Egyptian Government urged strong objections to the course on the general ground of the undesirability of employing a Christian in high command in the Soudan. For a time the proposal was allowed to remain in abeyance; but when Nubar Pasha took office, on January 7th, as the avowed supporter of the policy of evacuation, the British Government put forward a suggestion that either Gordon or Sir Charles Wilson should be despatched to Khartoum. Lord Cromer, in reply to this, intimated that, after consultation with Nubar Pasha, he did not think that the services of one or the other could be utilised with advantage. The Egyptian Government at the time had an idea of despatching Abdul-Kader Pasha, the new Minister of War, to Khartoum. But this official, after accepting the appointment, withdrew, and the British Government having a third time proposed the despatch of Gordon, Lord Cromer assented on the understanding that he was to take his instructions from the British representative in Egypt, and reported to him. "I would rather have him than any one else," telegraphed Lord Cromer, "provided there is a perfectly clear understanding with him as to what his position is to be, and what line of policy he is to carry out. Otherwise, not." The die was now cast. Gordon, amid the acclamations of the home public, and with the good will of every one, went to the Soudan to meet his doom in the circumstances related elsewhere.

This is no place to discuss at length the much vexed question of the responsibility for this great Soudan tragedy, which so profoundly moved the public of the time, and the memory of which still lingers as one of the most inspiring, if touching, episodes in the history of the British Empire. Lord Cromer, in his book, deals very fully with the subject, and though his conclusions have not passed without challenge, they represent, there can be little reasonable doubt, a fair view of the circumstances of that eventful period. In Lord Cromer's opinion, Gordon ought never to have been despatched on his mission. His personal qualities were such as to render him absolutely unfit for the difficult and delicate task which was involved in the execution of the Government's policy in the Soudan. Lord Cromer says that he yielded to the clamorous demand for the despatch of Gordon, because he believed that he stood alone in opposing the General's despatch, and because with this army of opinion against him he mistrusted his own judgment. "I gave," he says, "a reluctant consent, in reality against my own judgment and inclination, because I thought that as everybody differed from me I must be wrong. I also thought that I might be unconsciously prejudiced against General Gordon from the fact that his habits of thought and modes of action in dealing with public affairs differed widely from mine. In yielding, I made a mistake which I shall never cease to regret. It may well be that, had I not yielded, the result would have been the same. The public feeling in favour of sending General Gordon was so strong as to be almost irresistible. But this consideration does not constitute any consolation to me. By yielding, I rendered myself in some degree responsible for all the valuable lives which were lost, and the treasure which was subsequently expended in the Soudan."

On the larger and graver question of the withholding of support from Gordon at Khartoum until too late, Lord Cromer is equally frank in his acknowledgment of error. But while making free admission of mistakes committed in the handling of the complicated issues involved in the then situation in the Soudan, the eminent ex-British Agent considers that blame attached also in other directions. Summing up the whole matter after an exhaustive and impartial review of the facts, he says: "I believe that the final catastrophe at Khartoum might possibly have been averted if Zobeir Pasha had been employed. If I am right in this conjecture, the main responsibility must naturally devolve on Mr. Gladstone's Government. But it must in fairness be added that the responsibility must be shared by the British Parliament and by the people generally, notably by the Anti-Slavery Society. The ministers who objected to the employment

of Zobeir Pasha were perhaps in some degree wanting in imagination and elasticity of mind. They could not transport themselves in spirit from Westminster to Khartoum and Cairo. They do not appear to have shown the versatility necessary to deal with the rapidly shifting scenes in the drama which was being unfolded in the Soudan. The arguments which they applied against General Gordon and myself appear to me to be rather those of debaters trained in the art of dialectics than of statesmen whose reason and imagination enable them to grasp in an instant the true situation of affairs in a distant country widely differing from their own. Nevertheless, even supposing my appreciation of the facts to be correct, it must be admitted that in a matter of such difficulty an error of judgment is, to say the least, pardonable."

The delay in the despatch of an expedition to relieve General Gordon, Lord Cromer deems to have been the least excusable of all the melancholy blunders perpetrated at this period. "The facts," he says, "were at the time sufficiently clear to any one who wished to understand them, and the conclusions to be drawn from them were obvious. Those conclusions were: (1) that unless a military expedition was sent to Khartoum, General Gordon and his companions must sooner or later fall into the hands of the Mahdi; and (2) that prompt action was needed, all the more so because it was only during the short period while the Nile was high that rapidity of movement was possible. If Mr. Gladstone had said that the expenditure of blood and money which would be involved in an expedition to Khartoum was incommensurate with the objects to be obtained, the argument would, in my opinion, at all events, have been unworthy of the leader of a great nation, and to none of Mr. Gladstone's arguments does a censure of this description in any degree apply. Moreover, the adoption of this attitude would have probably sealed the fate of the ministry in forty-eight hours. But such a statement would have had the merit of being comprehensible. The argument that no expedition was necessary because General Gordon was not proved to be in danger was so totally at variance with facts, which were patent to all the world, as to be wellnigh incomprehensible. . . . 'If,' General Gordon wrote on November 8th, 'it is right to send up an expedition now, why was it not right to send it up before?' The fact that General Gordon's pathetic question admits of no satisfactory answer must for ever stand as a blot on Mr. Gladstone's political escutcheon." And in this view it may be confidently expected history will concur.

CHAPTER XXV.

Financial Re-organisation under Sir Auckland Colvin—Judicial Reforms—Sir Evelyn Wood re-organises the Egyptian Army—Irrigation works and other Reforms—The Political Discussion relative to the British Occupation—Conference of the Powers in London—Lord Northbrook's Mission—His Report—Sir Henry Drummond Wolff's Mission to Constantinople and Cairo—Anglo-Turkish Convention—Neutralisation of the Suez Canal—Anglo-French Agreement—The Sinai Peninsula Incident—Egyptian Nationalism—Lord Cromer's Retirement—Conclusion.

Long ere the military operations in the Soudan had reached the final stage in which a combined British and Egyptian force was left on the frontier to repel Dervish attacks, the machinery of the new administration had been set in motion on the lines indicated in the previous chapter. Finance now, more than ever, was the basis of the scheme of regeneration. Before an advance could be made in any direction the country had to be rescued from its embarrassments, which had been greatly increased by Arabi's rebellion and the military events which accompanied and followed it. The decision was come to to establish an entirely new department under European control. At the head of this department was placed Sir Auckland Colvin, an official who went to Egypt with a considerable reputation as a financier made in India, where he occupied a high position in the Civil Service. Sir Auckland was replaced in 1883 by Sir Edgar Vincent, a young official of considerable promise. Upon his shoulders fell the burden of the work of organisation, and he rose to his opportunities with the zealous devotion of the public-spirited British official of the best type. Lord Cromer pays him an exceedingly high compliment in his book. "He was eminently resourceful," says the able writer, "he never despaired during the blackest period of the Egyptian financial chaos. He was sanguine of ultimate success, and as at every turn new and unexpected difficulties had to be encountered, he was always ready with some ingenious device to stave off the evil day of bankruptcy, and thus to gain breathing time during which the financial ship would, at all events, have a chance of righting herself. He stayed long enough to see that his labours had not been in vain. The rehabilitation of Egyptian finance is in a large degree the work of Sir Edgar Vincent." The various stages through which the administration passed are treated in detail in other pages. Here it is only necessary to notice that Sir Edgar Vincent remained in office until October, 1889, when he was succeeded by Sir Elwin Palmer. This gentleman served until 1898, when he handed over his duties to Sir Eldon Gorst. Six years later Sir Vincent Corbett took over the duties of the post, and there was another change in 1907, when Mr. Harvey assumed charge. Apart from the influence directly exercised by the Financial Adviser the financial administration had the steadying influence of a European official in the executive post of Financial Secretary. In the few years after the British occupation Blum Pasha, an Austrian, filled the appointment. His retirement in 1889 brought into the field of Egyptian administration Lord Milner, who in another part of Africa at a later period was to win a great reputation for statesmanship.

The Judicial Department was taken in hand simultaneously with the reorganisation of the Financial administration. Before Lord Cromer's arrival sanction had been given to a scheme of Native Tribunals based on a French model, with Sir Benson Maxwell at the head with the designation of Procureur-Général. But this arrangement was not deemed to be satisfactory, and Mr. (afterwards Sir) Raymond West, a distinguished judge of the Bombay High Court, was called in to recast the system. Sir Raymond West applied himself assiduously to the task to which he was called. He made the most exhaustive inquiries into the subject in all its branches, and brought to bear upon the problem the resources of a well-stored intellect. The result was a lengthy report giving an extremely interesting history of the administration of justice in Egypt and making certain proposals with a view to reform. His suggestions in several instances were adopted, but his report generally proved to be distasteful to Nubar Pasha, and in 1885 Sir Raymond West returned to India. It was not deemed advisable to appoint a British successor to the talented Bombay judge. The belief was that this was a province in which the Egyptians might be left to work out their own destinies without direct British guidance. Acting on their own initiative the Egyptian Government appointed M. Le Grelle, a Belgian, to the office of Procureur-Général. This functionary had not been long at his post before he discovered that the judicial system which he had to administer was rotten to the core. The regular courts of justice were overshadowed by irresponsible tribunals known as Commissioners of Brigandage, which, under the direction of the Mudirs, perpetrated the most hideous injustice. An inquiry instituted soon after M. Le Grelle's appointment into the working of the commissions brought to light the most flagrant abuses. Unfortunate prisoners were convicted on the flimsiest evidence or no evidence at all. "It was sufficient," says Mr. Morice, an official who was appointed to investigate the matter, "for one man whose guilt was fully established, either by recognition on the part of the victim of the assault or robbery, or by the finding of stolen property in his possession, to accuse another, for this latter to be sent to a very severe term of imprisonment. I have been told the most pitiful stories by convicts I have interrogated concerning the horrible treatment they received when in prison—a treatment which, it is needless to say, invariably ended in a confession being obtained." The inevitable result of these disclosures was the disbandment of the Commissions of Brigandage. The mistake was made of destroying this machinery without substituting any new or reforming the old courts. It followed almost

as a natural consequence that there was a great increase of serious crime in the years following the suppression of the commissions. Pressure was brought to bear upon the Egyptian Government to take measures to remove this evil, and eventually the assent of the authorities was given to the appointment of Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Scott, a colleague of Sir Raymond West, on the Bench of the Bombay High Court, to act as judicial adviser with a view to the thorough overhauling of the entire system of administering justice. The selection was not at all palatable to the Ministry, and Riaz Pasha's resignation, which took place at this time, Lord Cromer states, "was in some measure due to his dislike to Sir John Scott's nomination." Sir John Scott was an official of broad-minded sympathies and high intellectual attainments, and he possessed what



LORD MILNER.

was, in the circumstances, the conspicuous advantage of possessing an intimate knowledge of the French judicial system. In a very short time he had obtained a complete grip of the situation, and evolved a set of arrangements which gave real efficiency to the Egyptian courts for the first time.

As the indiscipline of the army had been the source of Egypt's recent troubles, military reorganisation naturally occupied a conspicuous place in the programme of reform introduced after Arabi's rebellion. The position in which things were left is well described by Lord Milner in his book, "England and Egypt." "'The Egyptian army is disbanded,' said the laconic and oft quoted decree of December 20, 1882; and so far at least everybody concerned was cordially unanimous. But what was to take its place? Ninety-nine men out of a hundred would certainly have answered that it could not be a new army composed of the same materials as the old one. It is greatly to the honour of Lord Dufferin that amid the wildest suggestions crowding in upon him, suggestions of Turkish battalions of every possible combination of riff-raff from all quarters of the globe, he adhered firmly to the principle of entrusting the defence of the country to its own inhabitants." Sir Evelyn Wood, as has already been noted, was called in to supervise the work of reconstruction. As a full account is given elsewhere of the development of the modern Egyptian army there is no necessity to enter into details concerning the measures which resulted in the creation of the fine fighting machine which Egypt now possesses. It is sufficient to note that the work was carried through with the aid of British officers carefully selected with a view to their special aptitude for the duty of converting the raw material provided by the fellaheen into efficient soldiers. The original twenty-six assistants of Sir Evelyn Wood included several officers who were subsequently destined to win a high reputation on the stricken field, notably Lord Kitchener, Lord Grenfell, General Chermside, and General Rundle. Sir Evelyn Wood quitted Egypt in 1885, the duties of Sirdar, as the head of the Egyptian army is officially known, being transferred to Major-General Grenfell. This officer, with praiseworthy zeal, carried forward the great work begun by his predecessor. At the end of the year the qualities of the new army were put to the test in the engagement with the Mahdists at Ginnis. It came splendidly out of the ordeal, as is shown in the account of the battle which appears in the Soudan section of this work. Such was the confidence inspired by the behaviour of the Egyptian troops on this occasion, that when new arrangements for frontier defence were made in the early part of 1886, the entire responsibility for the safeguarding of Lower Egypt from invasion was cast upon the Egyptian army. Thereafter there was no looking back. Step by step the Egyptian army advanced along the road of improvement until it finally came to be reckoned amongst the soundest and most valuable of the institutions of the new Egypt.

In the domain of education the new administration displayed much activity as the years went on, and large funds became available for the development of purely domestic institutions. The Civil Service also received its quota of attention, and well devised measures were adopted for improving the personnel, while at the same time the purely Egyptian element was given a larger share in the work of government. Simultaneously sanitary reforms were pushed through, one of the most important of the measures taken being the introduction of an improved drainage system into Cairo at a cost of £500,000. The system of internal administration, too, was dealt with on judicious lines by the creation, under Mr. (now Sir) Eldon Gorst, of a new system of supervision by which the ministers or local officials were controlled without any excessive interference with their prerogatives. Of all the work, however, executed in the quarter century covered by the British occupation that of the Irrigation Department easily takes precedence. It is no exaggeration to say that the splendid achievements of the officials of this department have given new life to Egypt and brought to her people a degree of prosperity the like of which has never been equalled in the whole course of Egyptian history.

During all this period that the British officials were working out the destinies of Egypt on the lines of modern progress, the political question was casting its malign spell over the country. From the moment that the Dual Control was finally ruptured and it was made evident that Great Britain intended to shoulder her task unaided, France assumed an attitude of hostility to the British occupation. There was continuous trouble and friction, and every weapon available—and there were many provided by the anomalous conditions under which the British authority was exercised—was used to thwart and impede the administration. The difficulties were undoubtedly aggravated by the vacillations of Mr. Gladstone's Government. Their policy from first to last was wanting in definiteness, and still more in consistency. They were ever halting between two opinions and shivering on the brink of an inevitable decision. At the very outset the question of declaring a protectorate was forced upon their view by the presentation to them of a highly important petition signed by two thousand European residents of Alexandria. But this proposal never came within the scope of the practical politics of the period. The desire of the Government was not to tighten its grip on Egypt, but to get out of the country at the earliest possible day. The history of the negotiations which were conducted with a view to the determination of the British occupation constitutes one of the most interesting portions of Lord Cromer's book. Lord Cromer not only supplies a careful excerpt of the despatches which passed at this juncture, but he fills in the blanks left in the official narrative, and so supplies for the first time a clear picture of the events which led step by step to the seating of the

British in Egypt in a more or less permanent position. The story opens with the despatch on September 6, 1882, by Lord Granville to Lord Cromer of an inquiry as to the probable date of the evacuation. In reply to this Lord Cromer, on October 9th, forwarded to London a despatch stating that after consultation with Sir Frederick Stephenson, who was in command of the army of occupation, he had come to the conclusion that the British garrison could be safely withdrawn from Cairo and that the total force in Egypt might be reduced to about three thousand men, who should be concentrated at Alexandria. The Home Government accepted this proposal, but before measures could be taken to give effect to the arrangement news arrived of the annihilation of Hicks Pasha's force, and this necessarily led to a reconsideration of the whole question. After consultation with Lord Cromer, the Home Government decided, in view of the dangers of the withdrawal of troops in the face of the successes of the Mahdi, to postpone the evacuation. "The postponement," says Lord Cromer in his book, with grim humour, "has lasted until the day on which I am writing." Discussing the question of the evacuation in the light of recent events, the ex-British agent says: "It may be doubted whether, even if the Hicks disaster had not occurred, it would have been possible within a short while to have withdrawn the whole of the British troops. This, however, is mere conjecture. What is more certain is that when the military power in Egypt was crushed the last chance of immediate or nearly immediate evacuation disappeared. Moreover, it is historically interesting to note that the deathblow to the policy of speedy evacuation was dealt by a statesman who was earnestly desirous to withdraw the British troops. If Lord Granville had not been so fearful of incurring any responsibility in respect to the Soudan on the ground that in doing so he might prolong the British occupation of Egypt, and if he had placed a veto on the Hicks expedition, it is conceivable that the British garrison might have been withdrawn after a short time. As it was, Lord Granville, in his desire to shorten the occupation, contributed by his action to its prolongation." The truth is that the Gladstone Government themselves were the greatest promoters of the policy of a continuing occupation. Nervously anxious to quit the country, they fastened still tighter the bonds of the British connection by their desperate efforts to extricate themselves.

At the period in 1884, when the Soudan troubles were approaching their most serious stage, a conference of the Powers met in London to consider the then ominous financial situation. While some decisions were taken which were of value, notably one to sanction a grant for irrigation purposes, the gathering did not greatly advance the question of the form which the future government of Egypt should take. Mr. Gladstone characteristically attempted to solve the problem by despatching Lord Northbrook to Cairo on a special mission "to report, and advise Her Majesty's Government touching the counsel which it might be fitting to offer the Egyptian Government in the present situation of affairs in Egypt, and as to the measures which should be taken in connection with them." It is impossible to regard the mission otherwise than as another effort on the part of Mr. Gladstone's cabinet to evade responsibility. As Lord Cromer reminds us, the main facts were patent to all the world. "Only a year previously a special commissioner of great experience and ability had compiled an elaborate report on the condition of Egypt. Since then a detailed report on the financial situation had been prepared by a committee of experts sitting in London. The subject had also been thoroughly discussed at the conference." In fact, the field of investigation had been completely exhausted, and the situation demanded not inquiry but action. Nevertheless, Lord Northbrook, during a stay of six weeks in Egypt, conducted a most exhaustive survey into the entire field of Egyptian administration, and formed certain conclusions which he embodied in a draft report. It soon became evident, however, that some of his views did not commend themselves to Mr. Gladstone. He therefore recast his opinions, and submitted his proposals afresh in two reports, both dated November 20, 1884. In the first of the reports Lord Northbrook submitted a number of proposals relative to finance. He suggested that adequate provision should be made for irrigation, that the *corvée* should be abolished, that the Egyptian Government should have greater



SIR SAMUEL WHITE BAKER.
(An early administrator of the Soudan.)

freedom in the matter of taxing foreigners, that the dual administration of the daira, domains and railways should be abolished, that the land tax and taxes on the export and transit of produce should be reduced, and that a loan of about £9,000,000 should be issued under the guarantee of the British Government. The second report dealt with general affairs. In it Lord Northbrook expressed a very decided opinion that it would not be safe or wise to fix any definite time for the entire withdrawal of the British army of occupation. It is easy to understand that this very decided pronouncement, coupled with the proposal as to the guaranteeing of an Egyptian loan by the British Government, were not palatable to Mr. Gladstone. What he had looked for was a report which would cover his policy of withdrawal, and instead he had one which proposed to make yet closer the connection between Great Britain and Egypt. In consequence Lord Northbrook's reports were pigeon-holed. "His mission was a failure" is the terse comment upon it by Lord Cromer.

When Lord Salisbury took office in 1885 he received the Egyptian question as a melancholy legacy from his predecessor in office. He had to deal with it in some fashion, and in his handling of it he showed little more ingenuity than Mr. Gladstone had done. He followed the worn out precedent of appointing a commissioner to investigate. The only variation of a monotonous practice was that his envoy, instead of going simply to Cairo, was commissioned to discharge functions both at the Egyptian capital and at Constantinople. In fact, the most important functions of the Commissioner had to be discharged not in Egypt at all but in the latter city, for he was instructed to invite the co-operation of the Sultan in the settlement of the Egyptian question, more especially with a view to the establishment of settled order and good government in the Soudan. The duties of the mission devolved upon Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, who had made a considerable political reputation in the period of office of the Gladstone Government as a member of the political combination popularly known as the Fourth Party. The Commissioner first visited Constantinople, and his mission there was so far successful that on October 24 a convention was signed with the Turkish Minister for Foreign Affairs. Under this arrangement the British and Turkish Governments each appointed a special Commissioner who, in concert with the Khedive, were to reorganise the Egyptian army and also to "examine all the branches of the Egyptian administration, and introduce into them the modifications which they considered necessary within the limits of the Imperial Firmans." It was further agreed that "so soon as the two High Commissioners shall have established that the security of the frontiers and the good working and stability of the Egyptian Government are assured, they shall present a report to their respective Governments, who will consult as to the conclusion of a convention regulating the withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt in a convenient period." The arrangement looked well on paper, but it soon became evident that little good was to be expected from it. Sir Henry Drummond Wolff proceeded to Cairo on October 29, and he was followed thither after a somewhat long interval by his Turkish colleague, Moukhtar Pasha. At the outset the special Commissioners addressed themselves to the task of pacifying the Soudan by invoking the authority of the Sultan as Caliph. But inasmuch as the Mahdists included both Turks and Christians in one general anathema nothing came of their intervention. The envoys were not more successful in the execution of that part of their mission which concerned the reorganisation of the army. There were proposals to recruit soldiers in Turkey, and to import a certain number of Turkish officers as organisers; but they were vetoed, the former by the Sultan, who had suspicions as to the use to which a body of trained Turkish troops not under his control might be put to. Ultimately the matter was left in the hands of the British officers, whose services were engaged in a manner described in an earlier part of this chapter. After a time it was found that the convention of 1885 was not sufficiently comprehensive, and on May 22, 1887, a new convention was signed at Constantinople between Sir Henry Drummond Wolff and two Turkish plenipotentiaries acting on behalf of the Sultan. A notable provision of this convention was Article V., which laid down that "at the expiration of three years from the date of the present convention Her Britannic Majesty's Government will withdraw troops from Egypt."

It was, however, stipulated in a subsequent article that the British troops were not to be withdrawn if there was any "appearance of danger in the interior or from without." Moreover, it was proclaimed that "if at the expiration of the three years stipulated in the Convention for the withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt, one of the great Mediterranean Powers shall not have accepted it, Her Britannic Majesty's Government would consider this refusal as the appearance of a danger from without, provided against by Article V. of the Convention, and the means of executing the aforesaid Convention shall be again discussed and settled between the Imperial Ottoman Government and Her Britannic Majesty's Government." Finally, there was an important provision giving the British and Ottoman Governments the right of re-entry after the evacuation if "order and security in the interior were disturbed, or if the Khedivate of Egypt refused to execute its duties towards the Sovereign Court, or its international obligations." Both the Russian and French Governments strongly opposed the convention, and brought pressure to bear upon the Sultan with the consequence that the ratification of the convention was delayed from time to time until Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, despairing of ever being able to put the business through, left Constantinople. An attempt was subsequently made, through the Turkish Ambassador in London, to renew the negotiations. But Lord Salisbury declined the overtures with the frigid intimation "that so long as the Sultan was so much under the influence of other advisers as to repudiate an agreement which he had himself so recently sanctioned, any fresh agreement would obviously be liable to meet with the same fate as the late convention." Practically this marked the end of the period of active Turkish intervention in Egyptian affairs. Moukhtar Pasha remained in Egypt, and from time to time his presence was made rather unpleasantly felt. But there was no further talk of any Anglo-Turkish combination for the settlement of Egyptian affairs.

During the period covered by the protracted discussions relative to the Anglo-Turkish convention, important negotiations were proceeding concerning the neutralisation of the Suez Canal. Early in 1885, at the instance of the French Government, a Commission was assembled in Paris, charged with the duty of establishing "by a conventional act a definite system for guaranteeing at all times and to all Powers the free use of the Suez Canal." The proceedings were of a protracted character, and they led to no practical result owing to serious differences of opinion as to the method by which the end sought should be achieved. The subject, however, was afterwards revived, and on April 29, 1888, a convention was concluded providing for the neutralisation of the Canal. Subsequently the arrangement was embodied in the Anglo-French agreement of 1904.

Probably the great instrument mentioned in the concluding sentence of the previous paragraph was the most important event in the modern history of Egypt. It brought to an end the destructive rivalry between the French and the British Governments which, since the bombardment of Alexandria, had exercised a malign spell not only over Egypt but over the entire field of international relations. At the same time it gave, in the words of Lord Cromer, "a practically valid sanction to a position which was previously, to some extent, irregular." The negotiations in connection with the agreement were commenced in the summer of 1903, and continued until April 8, 1904, when three conventions were signed on behalf of the British and French Governments respectively. The conventions provided for a general settlement of outstanding difficulties between the two Governments in Egypt, Newfoundland, Nigeria, Siam, Madagascar, and the New Hebrides. The convention relating to Egypt freed the Egyptian Government from the financial fetters which had impeded its progress and gave force to the Suez Canal convention of 1888. A declaration embodied in the agreement contained these essential clauses:

"His Britannic Majesty's Government declare that they have no intention of altering the political status of Egypt.

"The Government of the French Republic, for their part, declare that they will not obstruct the action of Great Britain in that country by asking that a limit of time be fixed for the British occupation or in any other manner."

Thus the long feud which had obstructed administrative progress in Egypt and poisoned the relations of the two Powers for two decades was laid at rest. The completion of the understanding was hailed with the utmost satisfaction in both Great Britain and France, and it received the seal of formal international approval by the adhesion of the Governments of Germany, Austria, and Italy.



SIR GERALD FITZGERALD, K.C.M.G.

In 1906 the harmony which the Anglo-French agreement established in Egyptian affairs seemed likely to be broken by an ugly incident which occurred in the Sinai Peninsula. The circumstances under which the affair arose may be briefly related. Owing to disturbances which had arisen in the Sinai Peninsula early in 1905 the Egyptian Government sent Mr. Jennings Bramly, a police official, on a special mission to restore order. He was given full control of the affairs of the Peninsula, and was provided with a well equipped police force mounted on camels. The Turkish Government appears to have imagined that these measures foreshadowed an aggressive movement against its authority in this quarter and sent troops to the Peninsula. In course of time Taba, which is well within the limits of Egyptian territory as laid down by a telegram from the Grand Vizier at Constantinople to the Khedive on April 8, 1892, was occupied, and on an Egyptian force attempting to enter the place subsequently they were told that if they persisted they would be repulsed with force. Matters for a time assumed an ugly complexion, but the British Government took up a strong line on the subject, and ultimately forced the Ottoman Government to withdraw its troops and assent to a delimitation of the frontier. A joint Commission was subsequently appointed to carry out this work, and on October 1, 1906, an agreement was signed between the Turkish Commissioners, on the one hand, and the Egyptian Commissioners (Captain Owen and Ibrahim Fathi Pasha) on the other hand, which finally settled all outstanding questions. As a corollary to this agreement, a decision was come to by the Egyptian Ministry to put the whole of the Sinai Peninsula under the War Department with a British officer to act as Mudir and Commandant. In this way was removed a difficulty which at one time threatened to lead to an open rupture between Great Britain and Turkey.

The growth of Egyptian nationalism is a factor which claims some notice in this concluding chapter of our history, though the subject is too controversial to be dealt with exhaustively in a volume such as this, which has no concern with politics. Arabi's revolt was in a sense the beginning of the modern nationalist movement in Egypt, but it differed strikingly in some respects from the most recent political manifestations. The Arabist aims were largely anti-Turk, while the present-day nationalists, though disclaiming any desire to draw closer the bonds which unite Egypt and Turkey, have shown a marked and at times active sympathy with the Sultan. Lord Cromer describes the movements as being "deeply tinged with Pan-Islamism," and it is impossible to deny the accuracy of this characterisation. The unity of Mahomedan peoples and their emancipation from European control have been two of the leading watchwords of the party. But however the Egyptian nationalists may be labelled there is no doubt as to their programme. On the one hand they wish Egyptians to hold all the higher administrative posts at present filled by Europeans, and on the other they demand a system of constitutional government analogous to that in existence in western countries. Their aspirations under the latter head received endorsement at the meeting of the General Assembly in the early part of 1907, when a resolution was passed to the effect that "Egyptians be granted a constitution, and, as a temporary measure, that the powers of the Provincial Councils, the Legislative Council, and the General Assembly be increased." Lord Cromer, in a despatch to Sir Edward Grey, the Foreign Secretary, commenting on the demand, remarked: "I think it would be altogether premature to take any very decisive and rapid steps in the direction of the introduction of full Parliamentary institutions in Egypt." At this point we leave the matter. The constitutional future of Egypt is a mystery which it would be unprofitable to attempt to penetrate. Suffice it to know that in any advance that may be made towards complete self-government on reasonable and cautious lines the Egyptians will have the sympathies and the goodwill of the great body of British opinion all the world over.

It is a coincidence, not altogether of unhappy significance that the period at which this historical survey necessarily ends, marked the close of Lord Cromer's service in Egypt. His retirement terminated an era—probably the greatest in the history of modern Egypt—and there is a dramatic fitness in the curtain falling as he says his farewell to the land to which he devoted the best years of his busy and useful career. The time has not yet come when Lord Cromer's work can be seen in proper prospective. But it may be said with the utmost confidence that the verdict of history will raise Lord Cromer to a pedestal of the loftiest eminence amongst the administrators of his time. He found Egypt in the depths of financial difficulty,

with her inhabitants groaning under all kinds of abuses, and her government "a byeword and a shaking of head to the nations," and he left her with her credit in the money market high, her people prosperous and contented, and her administration in many respects a model for imitation by other Oriental countries. From his own countrymen and from leading representatives of continental opinion Lord Cromer has received unstinted praise for his splendid work. But perhaps the sincerest panegyric ever pronounced upon him was that contained in a letter anonymously forwarded to him at the time of the Sinai Peninsula imbroglio, and subsequently published amongst the other documents relating to this matter. "At the head of this letter," observed the writer, "I call you by the name of 'the Reformer of Egypt,' and by this name you are known between the seas and the deserts; also many, but not all, of the English who serve under you have followed in your footsteps as wise children carry on the traditions of their father. He must be blind who sees not what the English have wrought in Egypt: the gates of justice stand open to the poor; the streams flow through the land and are not stopped at the order of the strong; the poor man is lifted up, and the rich man pulled down; the hand of the oppressor and the briber is struck when outstretched to do evil. Our eyes see these things, and we know from whom they come." What finer epitaph could be written on Lord Cromer's administration than these picturesque sentences of the unknown native scribe? It is a tribute that obviously came from the heart, and that it represents more than a fleeting individual opinion admits of no question. In centuries to come the name of Cromer will be revered and honoured by successive generations of Egyptians who will profit by his wise direction of the destinies of Egypt at a critical period in her history.

Our long survey now reaches its conclusion. It is a chequered history—is that with which we have dealt—a moving panorama in which great men and great episodes figure against a unique background provided by a deathless past. But Father Time, with his many changes, has brought no nearer the solution of the inscrutable mystery of Egypt's future. Whither will her destinies carry her? Is she again to be the seat of one of the great empires of the world and of a splendid civilization, or is she to sink once more into the slough of an effete Orientalism? These are matters in the lap of the gods. But however the future may answer the questions, it cannot fail to take account of the great work done by Great Britain in infusing new life into the dry bones of the Khedivial administration.

THE PRESENT DAY.

EGYPT, perhaps more than any other country, is a land of change. Its many thousand years of history is a record of violent transitions—religious, dynastic, commercial, administrative, and even ethnological. In its latest phase of development, an independent principality under the protecting ægis of Great Britain, Egypt possesses elements of stability which have long been lacking in its constitution. But it would be idle to suppose that its institutions have yet reached even that comparative permanence which is the characteristic of the great European powers. The *Pax Britannica* reigns throughout the land; a popular prince sits upon the *musnud*; justice is administered by impartial officials; commerce and agriculture were never more flourishing, and the people have rarely attained to a higher degree of prosperity. Yet he would be a bold prophet who would say that the era of startling change has passed. The wave of unrest which is sweeping over the world has not escaped the Land of the Khedives. It has eddied about the Delta in gusts of varying strength, gathering up on the way the political flotsam and jetsam which at no period of the modern history of Egypt has been lacking to give a colouring to local events. On one or two occasions these disturbing blasts have been of such force as to excite some anxiety amongst those who are responsible for the maintenance of order. But the firmness and tact of the police authorities, and the good judgment of the Government, have served to reduce to harmless proportions the ebullitions which have arisen.

If regard be had to the present condition of the Eastern world, and more particularly to affairs in Turkey, the wonder is not that there is political effervescence in Egypt, but that a really dangerous movement has not arisen. The replacement of the old arbitrary régime by a constitutional government on popular lines, the dethronement of Abdul Hamid at the dictation of a triumphant reform party, the elevation to the throne of a new Sultan under conditions which reduce his right of personal interference to the smallest proportions, the introduction of progressive ideas into every department of the administration—these are all matters which were calculated to have a profound influence upon Egypt, bound as it is by so many strong ties to the Turkish Empire. That the outward effects have been so comparatively slight is due, no doubt, as Sir Eldon Gorst points out in his report for 1908, to the conspicuous coldness shown by the Young Turk party for the nationalist movement in Egypt, the violent racial propaganda of which, under the direction of the late Mustapha Pasha Kamel, differed so conspicuously from its own policy of harmonious co-operation between all the elements of the population. In public declarations the members of the Committee of Union and Progress have been at pains to demonstrate their friendliness to the British occupation, which they regard as absolutely indispensable at the present stage of Egyptian development. For the present these views do not appear to be popular in Egyptian society. But as time goes on, and the difficulties of an unsupported independent government are more realised, there can be little doubt they will commend themselves to that solid section of the native community which has most to lose.

As far as the British Government and the British people are concerned, it may be said with confidence that their only desire is to promote the political education of the Egyptian people, and to pave the way for the time when Egypt will be able to govern itself without foreign assistance. While, however, this is the position, it is indispensable that the foundations of the existing régime shall not be undermined by reckless and violent appeals to the fanatical instincts of the youngest and most irresponsible section of the community. Of late in Egypt some native newspapers have allowed themselves a licence which transcends anything which is to be found in any other country—certainly in Asia. To adopt Sir Eldon Gorst's words: "False news and misleading comments on the actions and motives of the Government are spread broadcast," and articles are published "calculated to arouse the passions of the mass of the people, who are, and must remain for years to come, far too ignorant to appreciate the absurdities and the falseness of the diatribes which are read out to them daily in the villages." Vividly impressed with the dangers of permitting this condition of affairs to continue unchecked, the Government, in the early part of 1909, decided upon the reintroduction of the old press law, under which the registration of newspapers is made obligatory, and the power is given to the Government to suspend or suppress after due warning publication of newspapers "in the interest of public order, of religion, or of morality." Amongst certain classes the reintroduction of these regulations gave rise to considerable irritation, and this culminated in the riotous demonstration at Cairo to which allusion has been made. But by the respectable section of the community the action of the authorities was hailed with satisfaction as tending to suppress a growing evil which touched many of them in their private lives. It is true, no doubt, as Sir Eldon Gorst says, that there need be no apprehension that the regulations "will be used to check legitimate criticism on the acts and proposals of the administration, or that freedom of discussion of all topics of public interest will be in any way restricted." In point of fact, "except as regards giving security and complying with the formality of registration, administrative measures almost universal throughout the civilised world, the higher class Arabic papers, and the local European press will be in no way affected."

The slight overclouding of the political sky which is a feature of the existing situation in Egypt is happily not accompanied by any untoward symptoms of commercial disturbance. On the contrary the trade barometer is once more steadily rising. The depression caused by extravagant speculation is passing away, and though the process of recovery is not so rapid as some could wish, it is considered by financial experts to be quite satisfactory. Indeed, they go so far as to say that the economic situation is now sounder than it has been for some years past. One circumstance which has tended to restore the commercial equilibrium has been the great extension of irrigation rendered possible by the completion of the colossal works undertaken by the irrigation department. These splendid monuments of the constructive ability of the band of British engineers, of whom Sir William Garstin

was until recently the head, have done more for the prosperity of Egypt than any works carried out there since the time of the Pharaohs, and their beneficent effect is being increasingly felt as time goes on, and the area brought within their scope is enlarged. The most recent experience attests the value of the projects. In 1908 the summer supply was the worst ever known, and yet the flood levels were the best that have occurred for ten years. Cotton cultivation especially has profited enormously by the extension of irrigation. In upper Egypt the area given over to the plant has more than trebled since the conversion works were taken in hand. In 1908 there were 1,640,415 feddans occupied by the cultivation, or 37,191 in excess of the area of the previous year. It is unnecessary to enlarge here upon the effect that this extension of the great staple industry is likely to have upon the general prosperity of the country. The factor is one of supreme importance, and it must powerfully enhance the spending power of the people. For the moment, however, Egyptian trade does not figure well in statistical returns. The imports and exports in 1908 amounted to £E46,416,000 as against £E54,134,000 in the previous year, a decrease being thus shown of £E7,718,000 or 14·3 per cent. British trade was naturally affected by the trade depression thus revealed; but of a total import of £25,100,397 in 1908, Great Britain had 38 per cent. as against a percentage of 37·5 in 1907. No other foreign country comes within approachable distance of her. France, who stands next on the list has but 12·1 per cent., while Germany can only claim 5·3 per cent.

If we turn to the population test we find further eloquent testimony to the growing prosperity of Egypt. A census carried through in 1907 enables us to bring up to the latest moment the figures relative to this important matter. Including 97,381 nomad Arabs the total population of the country enumerated and estimated amounts to 11,287,359, divided into 5,667,074 males and 5,620,285 females. This population, according to the latest surveys is located on an area (excluding desert tracts and other areas of which the limits are ill defined) of 31,140 square kilometres, or 12,026 square miles. The density of the population, therefore, is 362 persons per square kilometre, or 939 per square mile. Belgium, which of all European countries is the most thickly populated, shows a density of 588·7 per square mile, so that Egypt still easily outdistances all European countries and probably has a denser non-industrial population than any other part of the world, excepting perhaps Bengal. Compared with the figures of the last census taken in 1897 the population shows an increase of 1,570,131 or 16 per cent. In the same period the number of houses has increased from 1,418,891 in 1897 to 1,927,352 in 1907. In the decennium Cairo increased by 84,414 persons and Alexandria (with Ramleh) by 50,243. Coming to races we find that Mahomedans number 10,269,445 or 91·8 per cent. of the population, and Copts 706,322 or 6·31 per cent. Of foreign nationalities the Greeks are easily the first with 62,974. Next come the Italians with 34,926, then the British with 20,653, and after them the French with 14,891. The rates of increase since the last census are as follows: Greek, 65 per cent.; Italian, 43 per cent.; British, 5 per cent.; and French 3 per cent. The German population has grown by 44 per cent. in the period, but the total is small compared with that of the nationalities at the head of the list, amounting to no more than 1,847.

In the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan the process of introducing civilised government is being steadily carried on. There was a slight check in the year 1908 due to an outbreak in the Blue Nile Province which resulted in the loss of several valuable lives, including that of Mr. C. S. Scott Moncrieff, Deputy Inspector of the province. But this proved to be only a purely local rising and it was suppressed without serious difficulty. Apart from this the latest report of the Soudan administration offers much encouragement though progress is necessarily slow owing to the lack of population on the one hand and the undeveloped condition of the country on the other. The improvement of communications, by the opening of the Red Sea Railway and the increase of the service of Nile steamers is having the best effect and there is every prospect of a great agricultural future for selected parts of the vast territory. Meanwhile it must be expected that the country will continue for some time yet to require assistance from the Egyptian Treasury both in the shape of subsidies to make up deficits and capital to prosecute new undertakings. But the investment will be the best possible one that Egypt can make since it will inevitably share in the prosperity which will attend the Soudan when the developments of her public works have reached a paying stage.

Thus, though the future of Egypt is difficult to forecast, there are in the existing situation elements which encourage the hope that the era of prosperity which was experienced, and the continuance of which was made possible, by the British control will be extended idenfinitely. Much depends upon the Egyptian people themselves. If they are properly alive to their responsibilities and decline to be led into dubious paths by political will o' the wisps they have a fairly assured prospect of a dignified national life as one of the leading Mahomedan powers.



H.H. THE KHEDIVE'S PALACE AT KOUBBEH.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.

By C. H. Perrott, Barrister-at-Law and Avocat à la Cour, Cairo.

ALTHOUGH Egypt enjoys a large measure of autonomy, she still remains an integral part of the Turkish Empire. The Khedive is the recognised political head of the State, but is not an independent sovereign. His position is defined by the Sultan in the Khedivial Firman of Investiture of 1892 (27 Chaaban 1309), whence he derives his authority. He is, strictly speaking, the representative of His Imperial Majesty in Egypt. This Firman follows, with a slight alteration, that conferring the Khediviat on Tewfik, the father of the present Khedive. It is addressed to "my enlightened Vizier, Abbas Hilmy Pasha," and, after reciting that the growth of the prosperity of Egypt and the welfare of its people are matters of the greatest moment to its author, proceeds to invest the Khedive with the civil, financial, and judicial administration of the country, and with the power to make all such internal laws or regulations as may be deemed necessary or proper. By this Firman, His Highness is also empowered to conclude conventions with foreign Governments as regards customs and commerce and as regards the internal administration of Egypt, provided that there is no derogation from political treaties or rights of the Sultan. Such conventions must, however, be communicated to the Sublime Porte before promulgation. But under no circumstances whatever is His Highness permitted to cede any territory to third parties. The Egyptian Administration is to pay an annual tribute of £750,000 to Turkey. Money is to be coined, and the taxes are to be levied in the name of the Sultan. The army is not to exceed eighteen thousand men in time of peace. This number may be increased, however, if the Sublime Porte is engaged in hostilities. The flags of Egypt and Turkey, as well as the badges of officers, are to be the same. The Khedive may confer military ranks up to and including that of Miralai, and civil grades to that of Sanieh. Higher civil or military titles require confirmation from the Sultan. Finally, the Khedive may not construct armoured vessels of war without express authorisation from his Suzerain.

As a matter of fact several of these restrictions are no longer observed, notably those relating to the army and the collection of taxes. The figure limiting the peace footing of the Egyptian army largely exceeds that mentioned in the Firman, and the taxes have long since ceased to be collected in the Sultan's name. Neither does His Imperial Majesty interfere in the civil or military appointments, with the exception of that of Grand Kadi, or Chief Judge of the Mahomedan Courts of Egypt. This post, which is one of the most lucrative and influential in the country, is always reserved for a nominee of the Sultan.

To appreciate the position of the Khedive it is necessary to consider the unique and curious situation created by the modern development of the country. Although it is true that the Khedive derives his authority from the Sultan of Turkey, the Imperial Firmans, while carefully referring to Egypt as "our province," are in effect international in character. Events in Syria in the middle of the last century caused the intervention of the Great Powers, and the Sultan was forced at their instance to issue a Firman to Mehemet Ali, in 1840, appointing him Pasha of Egypt and generally giving him the same authority as subsequent Firmans of Investiture have conferred upon his descendants.

The Convention which preceded this Firman was signed by the representatives of Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia and the Porte. Since this date the Powers have considered that the Imperial Firmans require their assent, and on more than one occasion they have insisted that this rule should be observed. In spite of Turkey never having given her formal assent to this principle, the precedents are sufficient to warrant it being taken as having the force of law.

Lord Cromer, at the time of the accession of the present Khedive, Abbas II., reaffirmed this proposition in a letter addressed to Tigrane Pasha, the Egyptian Minister for Foreign Affairs. A question had arisen as to the interpretation of a passage in the Firman of Investiture defining the Egyptian frontier, and, in the course of the correspondence which ensued, the British Agent stated the views of the Government in the following significant words: "Your Excellency is aware that no alteration can be made in the Firmans regulating the relations between the Sublime Porte and Egypt without the consent of Her Majesty's Government. I am to add that Her Majesty's Government cannot admit that any existing territorial rights or claims are in any degree affected by changes which have been introduced into the language of the Firman or by their acceptance thereof."

The Pashalic of Egypt was secured to the family of Mehemet Ali in 1841, and in 1866 the right of primogeniture was recognised for the first time. Prior to that date the succession had been agnate. A year later the title of Khedive was granted to Ismael Pasha.

The present Khedive is, then, the hereditary ruler of a vassal state. He is vested with the attributes of a sovereign so far as the internal administration of the country is concerned, but he holds his position at the pleasure of his Suzerain, the Sultan of Turkey. The Sultan, in his turn, is controlled by the Great Powers and especially by Great Britain, whose influence in Egypt, since the Anglo-French Agreement of 1904, is admitted to be paramount.

The British Occupation in no way affects the sovereignty of the Khedive, nor does the right of British advisers appointed, as their name implies, to tender their advice to the

Egyptian Government necessarily diminish his authority.

It is the Imperial Firmans which regulate the Khedive's tenure of office. It is the political relationship which exists between the Sultan and the Khedive which prevents Egypt from being represented separately at foreign courts and which restricts the Khedivial Government from entering into international conventions other than those already specified. Egypt is therefore represented diplomatically by the envoys of the Porte. Nevertheless, Egyptian delegates were permitted to attend the London Conference of 1884 dealing with the finances of the country. They were not allowed, however, to take part in the discussion. Delegates appointed to the Quarantine Conference held at Venice in 1892 and to the Sanitary Conference held in Paris in 1904 were accorded the right to speak and even to vote in Committee—a considerable step forward.

The Constitution of Egypt is not contained in a single document bearing that title. Nor has the country any fundamental laws in the sense that the expression is understood on the Continent of Europe, in the United States of America, or, for that matter, in Turkey itself. The Constitutional law of the country is to be found among numberless Firmans, Rescripts, Laws, Decrees, and Conventions scattered through the pages of modern Egyptian history. Among the most important of these are the Organic Law of 1883 and the Rescript of 1878.

Lord Cromer describes the Government of Egypt in his work in the following notable words: "In Europe, we know what a despotism means, and we know what constitutional government means. The words absolute monarchy, limited monarchy, republic, parliamentary government, federal council, and others of a like nature, when applied to the government of any country, will readily convey to an educated European a general idea of how the government of the particular country in question is conducted. But the political dictionary may be ransacked in vain for any terse description of the government of Egypt. In the first place, that Government is, in reality, not a Government at all. Nubar Pasha frequently said: 'Ce n'est pas un Gouvernement; c'est une administration.' This is quite true. The Khedive is deprived by the Egyptian constitutional charter of all rights of external sovereignty, neither does he possess to the full those rights of internal sovereignty which are inherent in the rulers of all independent, and even of some semi-independent, states.

"In the second place, the manner in which the legislative power is exercised in the Ottoman dominions, of which Egypt forms a part, is unique. We readily understand what an Ukase issued by the Czar of Russia means. An intelligent foreigner will at once seize on what is meant when it is said that the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has given his assent to a bill which has passed through both Houses of Parliament. But the Khedive's power is dissimilar to that of either a despotic or a constitutional ruler. He cannot, on his own authority, issue any Decree the provisions of which will be binding on all the inhabitants of Egypt. Legislation has to be conducted by diplomacy. The President of the United States and the King of Sweden have to give their consent before the provisions of any law can be applied to the subjects of the Emperor of Austria or the King of the Belgians, for in legislation by diplomacy unanimity amongst the diplomatic legislators is required; otherwise no legislation can take place. The system, as Lord Salisbury once wrote to me, 'is like the *liberum veto* of the Polish Diet, without the resource of cutting off the dissentient's head.'

"In the third place, the executive power is so disseminated as to render it impossible to say where it resides. In certain matters the Khedive and his Ministers are practically vested with despotic power. In others their hands are tied to a greater extent than those of the Governors of the most democratic States. Moreover, it often happens that, although the text of the document which confers some special power may be clear, it will be found, on closer inspection, that some international or other ligament exists which is apparently so flimsy as to be only visible to the eye of a trained diplomatist, but which is in reality of so tough a texture as to place an effectual obstacle in the way of the practical exercise of the power.

"In the fourth place, the judicial system is a tangle of conflicting jurisdictions. The law is at times applied by a body of foreign judges, who, being free from the restraints of any legislature, are practically a law unto themselves. At times, again, the law is administered by Egyptian judges. Each Consul judges his own countrymen for criminal offences according to the laws of his own country, whilst, close by, the Kadi is endeavouring to settle some dispute over a will according to the rusty principles laid down thirteen centuries ago by Mahommed."

Nevertheless, the Constitution of Egypt resembles in one sense that of Great Britain. It is what is known to jurists as a "flexible" constitution, insomuch as no particular method is prescribed for the repeal or modification of any of those rules which affect the distribution of the sovereign power in the State. There is no enactment which requires that a constitutional law should be made or changed by a special machinery. Legislation which may turn out to be part of the law of the Constitution must be effected in the ordinary way. Egypt, then, has a Constitution in the sense that, like every country with any pretence at civilisation, she is possessed of laws or rules which have received legal sanction defining the form of government. But in the popular meaning of the term, "Constitution" connotes a single piece of legislation setting out a number of laws which are declared to be fundamental and unalterable except by means of some process different from that by which the other laws of the State are changed. This sort of Constitution, of which Turkey is the latest illustration, Egypt does not possess. Egypt, although she owns to no written or "rigid" Constitution, nevertheless possesses a body of law professing to regulate State institutions, or the finances and administration of the country.

The Egyptian legislature has full power to legislate for all natives, and consists of:—

1. The Khedive;
2. The Council of Ministers;
3. The Legislative Council;
4. The General Assembly.

The Khedive governs with and through his Council of Ministers, over whose deliberations he does not preside. The principle of ministerial responsibility was forced upon Ismael by pressure from France and England in 1878. His letter to Nubar Pasha authorising him to form a Ministry contains the following phrase:—"Les Members du Conseil des Ministres devront être tous solidaires les uns des autres; ce point est essentiel."

It is not within the province of this article to trace the desperate and injurious efforts of Ismael to throw off the yoke of constitutionalism which had been placed upon his unwilling neck. He had been compelled to accept a system intensely distasteful to a monarch who had always regarded Egypt as his private estate and the people as his slaves. But neither his extraordinary capacity for intrigue, nor the prestige of a great personality, nor the awe his name invoked, saved him from a relentless fate. The fall of Ismael saw the European principle of ministerial responsibility firmly established in Egypt.

The Council of Ministers is a political institution of the first importance. It is a legislative as well as executive body, and in other respects it differs from the modern European conceptions of a cabinet. The decisions are taken by majority, and the Prime Minister has a casting vote. Its executive functions require but little explanation to those familiar with the theory underlying the modern conception of an administration. It is, however, somewhat remarkable as a part of the legislative machinery. The Council of Ministers consists of the heads of the Departments of State, which are seven in number, namely:—

1. Foreign Affairs;
2. Finance;
3. War and Marine;
4. Public Instruction and Wakfs;
5. Interior;
6. Justice;
7. Public Works.

The heads of these Departments are chosen by the Khedive, who is advised, however, in his selection by the Prime Minister. Great Britain, which remains responsible to the great Powers for the maintenance of public order in Egypt, has also an unofficial voice in the matter. His Majesty's Government would also, it is assumed, intervene, if necessary, to prevent the dismissal of a Minister unpopular with the reigning monarch.

The Council of Ministers initiates practically all the legislation (apart from that relating to foreigners) in the country. There is, however, one important exception. The Khedive still retains the right to legislate directly in regard to the Wakfs (a department dealing with trusts and endowments for religious purposes such as the building of mosques, somewhat akin to the English Board of Ecclesiastical Commissioners). This particular form of legislation is known under the name of Amr el Aly, or Superior Orders, so called to distinguish them from Decrees. Not only does the Ministerial Council initiate the legislation of the country, but, acting in conjunction with the Khedive, it may almost be said to form the Egyptian Legislature.

The Legislative Council and the General Assembly play a very secondary part, and are, as a general rule, only consulted in respect of those laws which relate to the administration or to the imposition of new taxation. A law or decree applicable to natives and not necessarily concerned with taxation or the Administration comes into force in the following manner:

In the first place, the project is introduced to his colleagues by the Minister whose department is concerned. It then goes to the Consultative Committee or Legislature for drafting. This Consultative Committee was substituted for the Conseil d'Etat, which, although provided for by the Organic Law, was never created. It is composed of the Minister of Justice, the Judicial Adviser, the Under Secretary of State for the department responsible for the project, the Director for the time being of the School of Law at Cairo, and a Khedivial Councillor. The duty of the

Committee is to examine the proposed law, to draft it in proper form, and to see that it does not clash with the existing legislation. Those laws which do not require to be submitted to the Legislative Assembly are submitted to the Khedive after having been approved of by the majority of the Council. The Ministers have, of course, the right to modify, amend, or alter the proposed law in any way they think fit after it has been drafted by the Consultative Committee. If the proposed legislation requires to be submitted to the Legislative Council, it is so submitted by the Ministerial Council after consideration by that body. Should the Legislative Council desire to amend the approved draft, the project as amended must again be submitted to the Council of Ministers, who may or may not accept the amendments contained therein. After the proposed law thus amended has been discussed by the Ministers, it is finally put into shape and presented to the Khedive for signature. The practice is that, in addition to receiving the signature of the Khedive, the law should also be signed by the Minister in charge of the measure and countersigned by the President of the Council of Ministers. It is, of course, a well-known principle of constitutional government that the signature of the head of the State under such circumstances should never be refused. Neither can the Khedive, it is submitted, withhold his assent from any projected measure which has already received the sanction of his advisers. After the Khedive has signed the projected law, it is promulgated in the *Journal Officiel d'Egypte* and becomes the law of the land.

The Financial Adviser is sometimes present at the deliberations of the Council, and by a decision taken in 1893, the Judicial Adviser, the Sirdar of the Egyptian Army, and the Under-Secretary for Public Works may attend the meetings of the Council, if the subject to be discussed is one which affects the department to which they are attached. They will also be allowed to express their views on the matter before the Council.

Besides legislating by means of decrees or laws, the Ministerial Council have also, under certain conditions, the power to legislate by "decisions." It should, perhaps, here be explained that the distinction between law and a decree made by French jurisprudence does not exist in Egypt. The terms are practically synonymous, though the term law is apparently applied to those measures which are considered of exceptional importance. But in other respects the French system is adopted. The general practice is that the principle of the law is laid down and the details are then worked out and incorporated in Ministerial Orders, which are signed by the Minister whose department is responsible for the proposed measure. This system is not without its advantages, but it sometimes happens that the Legislature thinks it desirable that the final settling of the Order instead of being allocated to a particular department should be considered by the members of the Ministerial Council collectively. In this case the Council itself is responsible for the interpretation of the law, and such interpretation is known as a "decision." The original law or decree, however, must have authorised the reference to the Council. Many important rules of procedure are made in this way, and certain portions of the Commercial Code have been greatly modified by means of these decisions. In fact, on more than one occasion, the system has been used in order to impose conditions upon Europeans which, if supposed to be an alteration to the law, would have required the assent of the Powers.

The Legislative Council and the General Assembly were the outcome of Lord Dufferin's famous Report of 1883, which is, in fact, the basis of the Egyptian Constitution as well as of the existing administrative system. The great diplomatist stated in memorable words the method in which the British intervention in Egypt should secure, or endeavour to secure, for its people, "whom we have undertaken to rescue from anarchy," the principles of justice and liberty. "A paper constitution," says the report, "is a proverbially unsatisfactory device. Few institutions have succeeded that have not been the outcome of slow growth and gradual development; but in the East, even the germs of Constitutional freedom are non-existent. Despotism not only destroys the seeds of liberty, but renders the soil on which it has trampled incapable of bearing the plant. A long enslaved nation instinctively craves the strong hand of a master rather than a lax Constitutional régime. . . . Though hitherto Eastern society has only been held together by the coercive force of absolutism, it must be remembered that on the one hand the Mahomedan religion is essentially democratic, and, on the other, that the primitive idea of the rulers of the land assembling in Council round their chief has never altogether faded out of the traditions of the people. Even the elective principle has been to some degree preserved among the village communities; if, therefore, we confine ourselves to what already exists and endeavour to expand it to such proportion as may seem commensurate with the needs and aptitudes of the country, we may succeed in creating a vitalised and self-existent organism instinct with evolutionary force. In order to attain our ends we must lay the foundations broad and deep." Lord Dufferin goes on to discuss the lines of reform. His suggestions, with very slight modifications, have been adopted by the framers of the Organic and Electoral Laws of 1883. In addition to the institutions we have already considered in detail it was proposed to establish or maintain :—

1. The Village Constituency, to be composed of representatives of each circumscription, chosen by manhood suffrage, who are the depositaries of the village vote.
2. The Provincial Council.
3. The Legislative Council.
4. The General Assembly.

To understand the composition of the two last-named bodies, which, as has been stated already, form part of the Egyptian Legislature, it is necessary to describe the Provincial Council.

The Provincial Councils — one in each Mudirieh or province—are created by Article 1 of the Organic Law of 1883. The number of councillors is fixed, by Article 13, at 70. The figure is arrived at as follows :—Gharbieh, 8; Menufieh, 6; Dakahlieh, 6; Sharkia, 6; Beheireh, 5; Gizeh, 4; Gallioubieh, 4; Beni Souef, 4; Fayoum, 3; Minieh, 4; Assiout, 7; Girgeh, 5; Keneh, 4; and Esneh, 4.

The Council may vote "extraordinary contributions" with a view to expenses incurred in matters of public utility affecting the Mudirieh. The conclusions of the Council are conclusive in their point after having received the sanction of the Government. On the following questions the Provincial Councils *must* express an opinion before legislation is effected, namely :—

1. Changes in the limits defining the Mudirieh or village.
2. Means of communication and irrigation works.
3. The conditions under which fairs or markets should be held within the Mudirieh.

They are entitled to give advice on "*objets d'utilité publique*" concerning the particular Mudirieh. The Councils may also interest themselves in questions relating to education and agriculture. In fact, the Provincial Council is a kind of Local Government Board, and was intended by Lord Dufferin to be the cradle of representative institutions in Egypt. As a matter of fact, little is discussed at the Council Meetings, apart from the ever-present question of water supply. Mr. James Harry Scott, the author of "The Law Affecting Foreigners in Egypt," and a keen observer and critic of the prevailing conditions in the country, writing in 1907, makes the following remarks about the Provincial Councils :—

"In actual practice the Provincial Councillors take no interest in local affairs unless they chance to affect their local or private interests. The Council must be convened at least once a year, and this meeting generally takes place in November or December. Other meetings are very exceptional. The Moudir presides, and, in addition to the elected members, the Irrigation Inspector of the Circle and a representative of the Ministry of Public Works attend. The chief questions submitted for consideration are proposals for irrigation works, new bridges, and new agricultural wads. The actual form the proceedings take is to consider a large number of petitions presented by persons living within the province for channels, for water drains, wads, &c. All these petitions are personal and are read by the Moudir and handed to the representative of the Department of Irrigation or Ministry of Public Works, according to the tenure of the demand. The elected members of the Council take no active part in the proceedings unless any particular member chance to have a personal interest either in favour of, or in opposition to, a petition. There is practically no public spirit or any sign of a desire to benefit the Province as a whole—all is personal." The best criticism of the petitions is that they are seldom, if ever, found practical, because they are so personal, and if carried out, would only benefit one person or one village. No one is eligible to sit in a Provincial Council unless he is thirty years of age at least, pays an annual land tax of 500 piastres to the Mudirieh, and has been inscribed on the electoral list for at least five years. One important duty which devolves upon the Provincial Councillors is that of electing fourteen of their number to the Legislative Council. As this latter institution in the future may play an important part in Egyptian politics its working and composition may be described in some detail.

Article 18 of the Organic Laws runs thus: "Aucune loi, aucun décret, portant réglement d'Administration publique, ne sera promulgué, sans avoir été préalablement présenté pour avis au Conseil Législatif. Si le gouvernement ne s'arrête pas à cet avis, il notifiera au Conseil les motifs de sa décision. L'exposition de ses motifs ne peut donner lieu à aucune discussion." A difference of opinion arising as to the questions which, under the article, ought to be submitted to the Legislative Council was referred to the Contentieux d'Etat. The decision given on March 18, 1897, limited the legislative power of the Council in a manner which is, perhaps, to be regretted. The Contentieux came to the conclusion that the legislative measures on which the Government was *obliged* to consult the Legislative Council were those which not only concerned the mass of the people, but which also introduced some new principle. Thus the Government need not submit to the Legislative Council decrees within the domain of the executive and having for their object the due execution of the law; decrees supplementing or subsidiary to some other decree; neither in the decision of the

Contentieux is the sanction of the Council required for measures concerning the internal organisation of the public services or for decrees purporting to make general regulation, always providing, as above stated, that no new theory or principle is introduced in the legislation. The Committee of the Contentieux further expressed their opinion that the Government are entitled to consult the Council on any legislative proposals they elect. It does not follow, however, that such a proposal, if modified, need be again submitted in its new form to the Council.

Ministers are permitted to attend the sessions of the Council and have *voix consultatives*. The Council Meetings are convened five times a year—in February, April, June, August, and December.

Although the functions of the Legislative Council are limited to advice and criticism, it



A FEW OF THE MEMBERS OF THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

is an organisation which might at any given time be endowed with the legislative power of any of the Chambers of a modern Parliamentary State. Besides the legislative powers of the Council, restricted as they are at present, the Organic Law provides that the Budget should also be submitted to the Council, but here again the members of the Council have merely a right to be consulted and to express an opinion, which may or may not be heeded by the Government. Indeed, it often happens that the Budget is duly promulgated as a decree (the date of promulgation is fixed for December 25th) while the Legislative Council is still examining its terms. Moreover, by Article 23 of the Organic Law, the Legislative Council is expressly forbidden to consider that part of the Budget which deals with the Tribute and Public Debt and generally all those obligations which result from the Law of Liquidation or of other International Conventions. The annual accounts, also, are submitted under the same conditions for the consideration of the Council at least four months prior to the date of the pre-sentation of the new Budget.

There is still one other matter with which the Legislative Council is concerned. It is the duty of examining all petitions to the Khedive, which should be sent to the President of the Council. Those which are not rejected by the Council, on inquiry, are referred to the Minister competent in the particular matter in question, who must inform the Council of what he has done in the matter.

So much for the working of the Legislative Council. Now as to its composition. It has been seen that fourteen members are chosen from the Provincial Councils—one from each of the fourteen provinces. In addition, the electors-delegate of Cairo elect one member and those of the following large towns Alexandria, Damietta, Rosetta, Suez, Port Said, Ismailia, and El Arish one between them.

The Government nominate fourteen councillors, including the President, who are permanent members of the Council. The Vice-President is also chosen by the Government from those elected by the Provincial Councils, and the townships bring the total up to thirty. Non-government candidates sit for six years and may be re-elected.

Under the present arrangement fifteen members of the Legislative Council are to reside in Cairo and receive £90 a year for cab fares. The remaining fifteen, who are from the provinces, are entitled to an annual sum of £250 towards out-of-pocket expenses incurred in travelling and so forth.

The fourth and last section of the Egyptian Legislature is the General Assembly. Lord Milner, in "England in Egypt," tersely describes the General Assembly as "the Legislative Council over again, with the addition of six Ministers and forty-six members popularly elected." To be strictly accurate, the General Assembly consists of the seven Ministers, the President, Vice-President, and Members of the Legislative Council, and the delegates, who must be notables. The property qualification for the notables is the payment of an annual land or house tax of not less than 2,000 piastres. They must also have been on the electoral list for five years at least, and must have attained the age of thirty. Of the forty-six notables elected to the General Assembly, eleven are chosen by the chief towns or by the village electors. The numerical representation of the following towns is:—Cairo 4, Alexandria 3, Damietta and Rosetta 1 each, Port Said and Suez 2 between them, and Ismailia and El Arish 1 between them. The remaining thirty-five are elected by the Mudiriehs. The most important of these is Gharbieh, which sends four notables to the Assembly. The notables, it will be observed, are all chosen by the electors-delegate, who form, in fact, an electoral college, and not, as in the case of certain of the members of the Legislative Council, by the Provincial Councils. This is the nearest approach to popular government considered safe. The system, though complicated, is ingeniously devised with the object of acting as a check on the individual elector and being readily adaptable at the same time to the advancing political education of the Egyptian population.

The General Assembly is for almost all purposes a consultative body, although, unlike the Legislative Council, it has the right to raise any question it likes. It differs from the Legislative Council in one other important respect—it has a right of veto. No new taxation of any description can be imposed without its consent. The General Assembly also has the right to give advice on any subject it may choose, and if the Government refuse to accept such advice they must state their reasons. It should be consulted on questions relating to public loans, canals or railways, and the classification of lands for the purposes of assessment. But, as a matter of fact, practice and theory differ, and the Government have on more than one occasion legislated on these subjects without first submitting their proposals to the Assembly, as they were bound by law to do. The General Assembly has never up to now had an opportunity of exercising a veto on any proposed legislation, because the Government have not had occasion to increase the burden of taxation since 1883. On the contrary, many taxes have been remitted since the General Assembly was first called into existence. Lord Cromer criticises the institution adversely and considers it the least useful of Lord Dufferin's suggestions. "No harm would be done," he writes, "if it were simply abolished, and, indeed, the cause of representative government would, I believe, benefit if, simultaneously with its abolition, the Legislative Council were re-organised, and its power somewhat increased."

The General Assembly must be convoked once at least in every two years (Article 39 of the Organic Law). Those most competent to judge agree that the long intervals between the sittings militate against the utility of the institution. A quorum of the Provincial or Legislative Councils, or of the General Assembly, consists of two-thirds of the members. A necessary qualification for a seat on any of these bodies is the ability to read and write.

Having discussed the composition and the mechanism of the Legislature, it is now desirable to consider the somewhat peculiar manner in which the delegates are elected. The method is disclosed in the Electoral Law of 1883. Universal manhood suffrage is the foundation upon which the system is built. Every male Egyptian local subject of twenty

years of age who has not been convicted of a criminal offence, and who is not a soldier or in the service of the Government, or is not what is equivalent to being an undischarged bankrupt, has a right to vote. The term "Egyptian local subject" requires some explanation. It has been held to include all persons "domiciled" in Egypt before January 1, 1848, Ottoman subjects born of persons domiciled in Egypt (who have not lost their Egyptian domicile), Ottoman subjects born in Egypt who have served in the Egyptian Army or paid an indemnity in lieu of such service, and persons born in Egypt of unknown parents. The electoral list is to be posted in some public place in every town or village, and at the Mudirieh on January 31st each year. Although there is no party Government in Egypt, Commissioners, to some extent, take the place of the English Revising Barrister. There is said to be a right of appeal by a party aggrieved. It is the duty of the Mudirs, Prefect of Police, and Governors to state if the election has been conducted in accordance with the law, and, if it has not, at once to order another one to be held.

Such is the nature of the system by which laws and regulations are made applicable to the native section of the population. But the power of legislation for other than local subjects cannot be exercised by the Egyptian Legislature. To explain how it happened that the European communities in Egypt are not amenable to the decrees of the law-making bodies in Egypt would be to write the history of the Capitulations, or those special privileges originally granted by the kings of Jerusalem to traders within the boundaries of their kingdom, and subsequently accorded, for their own purposes, by the Mahomedan Sultans of Turkey to the influential body of Venetians resident on the banks of the Bosphorus, and finally extended, with the decline of the Turkish Empire, to the subjects of all Christian Powers found within the dominions of the Sublime Ottoman Porte. The privileges secured to the European States as well as to America are: the right to enter Ottoman territory and to carry on commerce; religious liberty; exemption from taxation, except, of course, the customs dues created by treaty; inviolability of domicile; and exemption from both jurisdiction and the application of laws. "The most favoured nation clause" was included in the later capitulations, thus placing all foreigners on the same footing.

As regards legislation for all other than local subjects, the following "cumbersome and unworkable system" exists:—When it is proposed to make a law apply to a European resident in Egypt, fifteen Powers have to be approached by the Egyptian Government through their respective diplomatic agents in Cairo. Each of these Powers must then give its assent to the measure, not only in principle, but also in detail. In effect, this means that legislation for foreigners is practically impossible. Even the simplest and most obvious and necessary measures, which are the only proposals the Egyptian Government ever dreams of submitting to the Powers in question, take an interminable time before complete agreement as to the ultimate form the measure should take is arrived at. Even the most urgent sanitary reforms about which everybody is agreed, such, for instance, as the drainage of Cairo, take years to settle. It is hardly a matter for surprise that Lord Cromer should express the opinion that so long as such a system exists it will be "impossible to adapt the laws of Egypt to the growing requirements of the country" ("Egypt," Vol. 1905). It is always open to any single Power, under this system, to block any measure which, for some reason or other, is considered not to be in the interests of the subjects of that particular Power by the home government. Unfortunately, the system lends itself to another more serious abuse. A question may have to be settled without more delay that is absolutely necessary. It may be a matter of the greatest urgency. Yet it often happens that the measure is blocked by some European Government in the hope that favoured treatment may be meted out in some other respect as the price of giving their adherence to the measure.

Legislation by diplomacy is, undoubtedly, one of the great evils from which Egypt suffers. It leads, in the words of one of the greatest authorities on Egyptian questions, to "hideous administrative confusion." There are, however, two exceptions to this method of legislation. The first applies to immoveables. In 1867, an Ottoman law was promulgated allowing foreigners to acquire real property within the dominions of the Porte, and the Powers thereupon agreed that foreign owners should be bound by the local law in regard to such property. Disputes concerning immoveables are within the jurisdiction of the Mixed Tribunals. The second exception is the authority given to the judges of the Mixed Courts to make certain laws in the nature of police regulations. This power was conferred by a Khedivial Decree of January 31, 1889, to the provisions of which the Powers had previously given their assent. Articles 1 and 2 of the Decree run as follows:

Article 1. "A partir du 1er février 1889 les tribunaux égyptiens mixtes appliqueront les ordonnances actuellement en vigueur ou qui seront édictées à l'avenir par notre Gouvernement concernant le régime des terres, digues, et canaux; la conservation des antiquités; la voirie (Tanzim); l'hygiène et la salubrité publiques; la police des établissements publics, tels que, hôtels, cafés, maisons meublées, cabarets, maisons de tolérance, etc.; l'introduction, la vente, et le port d'armes et de matières explosibles ou dangereuses; le droit de chasse; le réglement des voitures et autres moyens de transport; la police des ports de navigation et des ponts; la mendicité, le vagabondage, le colportage, etc.; les établissements incommodes, insalubres, et dangereux, et, en général, tous réglements permanents et généraux de police et de sûreté publique."

Article 2. "Les ordonnances à édicter en ces matières seront promulguées à la suite d'une délibération de l'assemblée générale de la Cour qui se bornera à s'assurer:

"1° Que les lois et réglements proposés sont communs à tous les habitants du territoire sans distinction;

"2° Qu'ils ne contiennent aucune disposition contraire au texte des traités et conventions, et, enfin, que dans leurs dispositions ils ne contiennent aucune peine supérieure aux peines de simple police."

Notwithstanding the unambiguous wording of the Decree, considerable discussion has taken place as to the limit of the authority conferred on the judges. Without going into the question, it suffices to say that the principle was established that the Powers reserve a right to refuse their sanction to the regulations made by the General Assembly of the Mixed Courts. Nevertheless, if the Powers do not exercise their right of veto within a reasonable time, they must be taken to have approved the regulation.

The practice as regards legislation for foreigners in Egypt is for the Egyptian Government to submit their proposals to the quinquennial meetings of the representatives of the Powers which are assembled to decide whether the Mixed Courts are to be continued. This International Commission then appoints a sub-commission, generally consisting entirely of judges of the Mixed Courts, who report on the proposed legislation to the Plenary Commission. An example of the working of this system is given in a recent report by Sir Malcolm McIlwraith, the Judicial Adviser. He describes how for two years the sub-commission had sat without interruption, and at the end of the period only five reforms had been accepted, and of these, only one was of any moment. And even in this case, "the project had undergone such important modifications at the hands of the sub-commission that grave fears are entertained lest its practical utility may have been found materially impaired." Mr. J. H. Scott sums up the legislative system as it applies to all those Egyptian residents who are not Ottoman subjects in the following passage: "The privileges of legislation now enjoyed by foreigners resident in Egypt is, therefore, in the first place, that their own national law applies in all questions of personal statute, in the case of crimes and delicts committed by them, or of which they are accused, and in civil or commercial cases where both parties are of the same nationality; and, secondly, that no new Egyptian law can be made to apply to them unless it has received the express consent of their Government. This power of consent has, however, been partially delegated to the General Assembly of the Mixed Courts, which may approve police regulations which fulfil the conditions laid down in the Decree of 1889 as defined by the negotiations of 1891."

The village organisation is simple. It consists of an official called Omdeh, who is, in effect, a mayor possessed of considerable powers, although Sir Auckland Colvin classes him among the squirearchy of Egypt. He is held responsible for the maintenance of order in the circumscription, and is an executive officer. He must own at least 150 feddans (roughly a feddan equals an acre) of land to be eligible to hold the position. The benefits are slight. A certain amount of taxation is remitted, and both he and his sons are exempt from military service. It is not on this account, however, that the post is sought after, many of the Omdehs being men of great wealth. Neither is it on account of social prestige, which is almost non-existent in Egypt as we understand it in England and the Colonies. Presumably, the reason why candidates are always to be found for a vacancy (except in certain districts in lower Egypt) is because of the power and superior administrative position possessed by the Omdeh. That there should be so little difficulty experienced throughout upper Egypt in filling a vacancy is all the more remarkable when the most monstrous accusations of corruption and other crimes are generally imputed to the occupant of the office. Rival and disappointed candidates for the post intrigue against him, whilst those aggrieved by his administration petition for his removal. On investigation not more than about 12 per cent. of the petitions annually presented for the removal of various Omdehs have been found to have any real foundation. There are individual Omdehs about whom there are annually three hundred or four hundred petitions to the Government, alleging incompetence or dishonesty, frequently without justification. On the other hand, in a country so saturated with bribery and corruption as Egypt, many of the Omdehs must find their position a very lucrative one.

One of the many curious results of Egypt's cosmopolitan population is the existence of

mixed municipalities. There are six of these curious organisations, viz., at Alexandria, Mansourah, Tantah, Fayoum, Zagazig, and Damanhour. By far the most important of these is the municipality at Alexandria. This municipality was formed in 1890 by Khedivial decree, to the provisions of which the consent of the Powers had previously been obtained.

For electoral purposes the town of Alexandria is split up into "kisms" or wards, from each of which a member is chosen. The Alexandria Municipality consists of twenty-eight members. Only six of these are chosen by the electorate of Alexandria, which consists for municipal purposes of all persons possessing a sub-tantial property qualification. There are the usual provisions disqualifying certain officials and others. The remaining twenty-two members are either nominated by the Government or chosen by the great commercial houses in that town. The system is based to some extent on the Napoleonic idea of trade representation introduced in the Levant. Of the elected members not more than three may be of the same nationality. The administrator of the municipality was formerly a Government delegate, but he is now the servant of the municipality. No expenditure is allowed except that provided by the Budget. The municipality must furnish the Government with a monthly financial statement, and the accounts of the municipality are audited by the Government.

Cairo has for some time been agitating for a municipality on the same lines as that of Alexandria, but there is no sign on the part of the authorities that one is likely to be established at present. Lord Cromer, in criticising these institutions, expresses the opinion that political questions, like those of nationality, should give way to local questions. With such an object in view he is in favour of the franchise being based on some qualification other than that of nationality.

In addition to the mixed municipalities there are certain international institutions that were established in the time of the Khedive Ismael. Of these the Caisse de Dette Publique has played the most important part in modern Egyptian history. Until the Anglo-French Agreement of 1904 the Commission of the Public Debt was a dominating factor in Egyptian affairs. Prior to that date there were no fewer than fifty-two decrees defining the position and duties of the Commissioners. The disputes as to the powers of the Commissioners and the functions of the Caisse were re-arranged in that year. The Commissioners originally were four in number, Great Britain, Austria, France, and Italy each claiming to be represented. Later, Germany and Russia succeeded, after prolonged diplomatic discussion, in also nominating their representatives on the Board of Control. The Commissioners acted on behalf of, and in the interests of, the international bondholders whose security Ismael Pasha had put in jeopardy. The powers of the Commissioners, as defined by the Law of Liquidation, 1880, were considerable. At one moment, indeed, it appeared that the fate of the country was in their hands. No fresh loan could be raised without their consent. Their business was to see that the revenues allocated to the Funded Debt were duly received. They were entitled to demand the Minister of Finance to make up any deficiency which might occur, and, moreover, they were specially authorised to sue the Egyptian Government in the Mixed Courts. They had, in fact, a most important voice in the administrations of the country. The Commissioners can now no longer veto the action of the Government. They are merely receivers for the bondholders. The finances of Egypt are on a sound basis, and the prosperity of the country, in spite of Stock Exchange scares and occasional reactions, must continue to increase. The Egyptian Government may, if it pleases, convert the whole of the debt. "If this takes place," says Lord Cromer, "the Commission of the Debt will, presumably, disappear altogether."

The Railway Administration is also international in character, and by a Decree dated 1876 the Telegraphs and the Port of Alexandria were placed under the same Board. Receipts from these sources were payable to the Caisse de la Dette and were allocated to the Privileged Debt. Great Britain, France, and Egypt were represented on the Board, but since the Anglo-French Agreement of 1904 the Egyptian Government have authority to deal with the railways as they may think desirable.

The Daira Sanieh is another administration the outcome of Ismael's extravagance. Money was lent on these lands which the Khedive considered, or pretended to consider, as his own property. Large sums were borrowed on the security of this land, and a Board composed of an Egyptian, a Frenchman, and an Englishman were duly appointed as legal representatives of the bondholders. The Daira Sanieh revenues, as well as those of the Domains, were also secured to the Commissioners. The former estate is now in the hands of a company. From the sale the Government have received £3,280,000.

The Domains Administration is somewhat similar to the Daira Sanieh. It administers land once the private property of Ismael, who had borrowed £8,500,000 on this property. The Board in this case also consisted of an Englishman, a Frenchman, and an Egyptian. The estate has been gradually liquidated.

It is probable that within a few years there will be no more mixed administrations in Egypt. Their chief object, as Lord Cromer has remarked, seems to be to provide three men to do the work of one. When each member of the Board represents a different country, and when the interests of those countries are divergent, the difficulty of obtaining the same answer to any given question is enormous.

Another institution standing alone is the Wakfs Administration. This is a department existing for the purpose of administering Mahomedan public or private religious endowments. Wakf land has been defined as "land which has been made the object of a transaction whereby the original owner transfers the right of *proprietas* to a *universitas*, while the revenues are used in a particular manner specified in the agreement of transfer." A deed is drawn up before a Kadi, or judge, constituting the Wakf; and a Nazir, who is a sort of inspector, is appointed. The maxim, "Once a priest always a priest" can well be applied to Wakfs. Property dedicated by deed in the manner described is inalienable. The Wakfs administration, however, can substitute one piece of land for another, and grave scandals have occurred in this way. It sometimes happens that Wakfs are created with the object of checking the extravagance of an heir and for other purposes not strictly of a religious or charitable character. The method of attaining the end is somewhat curious. The owner of the property appoints his son Nazir with a right of succession in the family to this office. Now the Nazir, or administrator, is really supposed to be unpaid, but, as a matter of fact, if the revenues exceed the particular sum required to fulfil the object of the Wakf the balance, instead of being credited to the estate, goes into the pockets of the Nazir. If, therefore, the owner of the property wishes to prevent a spendthrift son from dissipating the property he can convert the land into a Wakf and appoint the son to administrate. The amount to be spent yearly for religious purposes can be fixed at a sum far inferior to the annual receipts, and in this way the estate can be preserved. The system had one other great advantage. No Khedive could confiscate the land when once dedicated to the building of a mosque or to one of the objects which enables the grantor to create a Wakf. No ruler, however arbitrary, would dare to interfere with the richest and most powerful corporation in the country.

The seven great administrative departments with Secretaries of State at their head have already been enumerated. They do not differ greatly in form or organisation from those of modern European States. British advisers are attached to each department, and are largely responsible for the working of the administrative machine. The Finance Ministry possesses two British Under Secretaries for State, as well as a British Director-General. The Chief Secretaries of State are, of course, Ottoman subjects, and belong to the governing classes.

HIS HIGHNESS THE KHEDIVE.—In every country where monarchical rule holds sway, be it autocratic, bureaucratic, or constitutional, the ruler invariably impresses the mark of his personality upon its social life and its domestic and foreign policy. The influence of the monarch may be small or great, according to the times in which he lives and the opportunities afforded him, but even in the most democratic states, like France and the United States, where the first citizen is called to the chair of honour by the votes of his fellow countrymen, examples have not been lacking in recent years of presidential pressure on the political life of the country.

Constitutionalism is in the ascendant. In Eastern Europe, Turkey, Persia, and even far-distant China, we see the gropings of a people to share with the monarch in the affairs of state. It is not astonishing, therefore, that in Egypt the flower of constitutionalism should have shown its head above the soil. That flower needs careful culture before the full blossom can be attained; but no one doubts that the day will dawn when, as the result of the beneficent paternal rule of the past quarter of a century, the native Egyptian will be able to fulfil his most elevated political aspirations, and Egypt will once more take her place among the world-powers. No other policy has ever been professed in England. All the efforts of British statesmanship have been directed to this end, gradually to train and educate the native of the soil of sunny Egypt to a sense of his own worth and to raise him to the happy state in which independence may be assumed with safety and a corresponding sense of responsibility.

Wonder need not be expressed, therefore, if the Khedive should share in the aspirations of his people, or that, when he ascended the throne in 1892, he should have found the restrictions placed upon him by the British authorities irksome and derogatory to his kingship.

His Highness Abbas Hilmy II. was born on July 14, 1874, and is the great-great-grandson of Mehemet Ali, that valiant Albanian who founded the present Egyptian dynasty. He succeeded his father, the late Tewfik Pasha,

at the age of eighteen. To prepare him for the exalted position destined for him, the young prince was sent for an extended tour of travel in Europe. He was educated at Lausanne and afterwards at the Theresianum Academy at Vienna. During his stay in Austria he was received at court and treated with the dignity and respect of royalty. When he came to the throne he soon exhibited those qualities which are the outstanding features of his mature character. His charm of manner is natural, and readily wins the confidence of those who have the honour of his friendship. He is an accomplished linguist, speaking Arabic, Turkish, English, French, and German with ready facility. His excellent memory enables him to make his receptions at the Abdin Palace something more than mere formalities for the presentation of notabilities. A word here and a phrase there reveal the diversity of his interests and his personal knowledge of the people presented to him and their special attainments or the distinguishing episodes in their careers. As a man of business His Highness shows great capacity. He takes a particular interest in agriculture and horse-breeding. His model farms at Koubbeh, Montazah, and Mariout are laid down and conducted on scientific principles. He has large poultry establishments, well-stocked kennels, and his stud of Arab and English thoroughbred horses is an exceptionally fine one. Desirous of effecting reforms in the housing of his people, he has constructed model dwellings on his estate. For these he makes no charge for rent. All he stipulates is that the houses shall be kept clean, and that the children under ten years of age be sent to the free school he has established for their education. In engineering, more especially mechanical engineering, the Khedive takes the keenest interest. He is constructing from Mariout along the coast a railway line which it is hoped will be extended to Tripoli, and on the occasions when he makes personal inspection of the progress of the work he has donned overalls, got upon the footplate and driven the engine himself.

His Highness espoused the Khedivah (Princess Ikbal Hanem), and of this union there are two sons and four daughters, the hereditary prince being His Highness Prince Mohammed Abdul Mounein, born in the Palace of Montazah, near Alexandria, on February 20, 1899.

During his youth the Khedive made his first visit to England. He has revisited that country repeatedly since his accession. In 1900 he was the guest of the late Queen Victoria at Windsor Castle, and again in 1905 and in 1908 was the guest of King Edward. His Highness was created a G.C.M.G. by the late Queen Victoria, who also conferred the G.C.B. upon him on his accession in 1892, and the Grand Cross of the Royal Victorian Order during his visit in 1900. Of King Edward His Highness entertains the highest esteem.

His visits to England have enlarged His Highness's appreciation of British institutions. We have already stated that the Khedive, upon his accession to power, was inclined to resent the interference of the British authorities with his prerogatives. To a certain extent, in those early days, he had to rely upon the advice of the courtiers who surrounded him, men still unreconciled to the methods adopted by the British in their efforts to introduce reforms in the internal administration of the country. The natural desire of the Khedive to participate more intimately in these reforms led for a short period to some friction, but so soon as His Highness realised the necessity for co-operation for the benefit of his subjects he put aside all personal considerations, and has proved a loyal ally in the work of regeneration which is rapidly placing Egypt on the path of progress and prosperity. In an interview with M. Puaux, the representative of *Le Temps*, His Highness is reported to have said, "I am willing to work with anybody for the good of my country." He is assiduous in his application to State affairs, driving into Cairo in the winter months from his estate at Koubbeh to the Abdin Palace, and his equipage is therefore a frequent sight to tourists from the terraces of Shepheard's and the Continental Hotel during the season. Whatever the future may have in store for Egypt, her people may rest happy in the assurance that they have a ruler who takes more than a superficial interest in all that pertains to the material prosperity and well-being of the country. Experience has broadened his view of life, and intimate acquaintance with State affairs has matured his judgment,



A. B. BREWSTER BEY.
(Private Secretary to H.H. The Khedive.)

and with the prospect of a long reign before him, Abbas Hilmy II. may look forward to leaving behind him a record capable of favourable comparison with those of the reigning monarchs of the day.

H.E. ALFRED BERRY BREWSTER BEY, the Private Secretary to His Highness the Khedive, has had a long and distinguished career in Egypt and the Soudan. Born in London on November 7, 1856, he belongs to an old Essex family, William Brewster, one of his ancestors, having been a ruling elder and chief pastor of the Pilgrim Fathers in 1620.

His first appointment in Egypt was made in 1877, when he entered the Customs Administration and Coastguard Service. Two years later the late General Gordon appointed him Director of Customs at Suakin. In the Egyptian campaign of 1882 he served on the Commissariat staff, receiving the medal and bronze star. Returning to Suakin in 1883, he served in the Intelligence Department under General Valentine Baker Pasha in 1884, and in addition to discharging his duties in the Customs acted as Sub-Governor of Suakin. In the following year he was lent by the Egyptian Government to the Intelligence Staff of General Graham's expeditionary force. It was during this expedition that Brewster Bey had an extraordinary adventure. Preparations were being made to attack Suakin, and Brewster Bey went out to the Dervish camp and induced some thousands of Arabs to cross over to the British force. These men fought most loyally under General Kitchener, and helped materially in capturing Tamai from the Dervishes. Brewster Bey took part in several engagements, and was mentioned in despatches. He retained his appointment as Director of Customs at Suakin till 1890, and in 1891 became Secretary and Controller of the Coastguard Service at Alexandria. The Khedive Mohammed Tewfik appointed him as Private Secretary in 1891, and in that capacity he has served the present Khedive since he came to the throne. Brewster Bey is a Bey of the first class. He is a Grand Officer of the Imperial Order of the Mejidieh, Commander of the Imperial Order of Osmanieh (Turkey), and the gold medal of the Liakat, and has also received the Orders of Francis Joseph (Austria), and Imptiaz (Turkey). He also wears the British war medal, 1882 (two clasps), and the Khedivial bronze star. In 1886 he married Marie Cécile, widow of Monsieur Paul Sudreau.

H.E. BOUTROS PASHA GHALI, Prime Minister of Egypt, was born in Cairo on May 11, 1849. His father was a well-known landed proprietor in Upper Egypt, where the family have been established for many generations. He was educated at the Coptic School, and later at the school founded by Prince Mustapha Pasha Fasil at Darb el Gamamiz; and after passing his examinations he was appointed, in 1867, Secretary-Interpreter of the Mixed Court of Commerce at Alexandria. In 1873 he was placed at the head of the native part of the Ministry of Justice, then under the leadership of Cherif Pasha, and in 1877 he was promoted to the rank of Secretary-General in the same Ministry. Four years later he was appointed Secretary to the Council of Ministers, from which position, in the same year, he was promoted to be Under Secretary of State in the Ministry of Justice, remaining as such until January 14, 1893, when he accepted the portfolio of Minister of Finance. He was created Mirmiran, which carries with it the title of Pasha, in February, 1889. On April 16, 1894, he took up the duties of Minister of Foreign Affairs. His Highness the Khedive charged him with the formation of the present Ministry on November 12, 1908, and he retained the portfolio of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as well as the Presidency of the Council of Ministers. The Pasha has received the Orders of the Osmanieh and Mejidieh set in brilliants. H.E. Boutros Pasha Ghali is in reality the first purely Egyptian Prime Minister, his predecessors having been of Armenian, Turkish, or Circassian nationality. His great ability, high integrity, and well-known natural gifts eminently qualified him for the highest position in the Government of Egypt. He has gained the confidence, trust, and respect of all those who have come in contact with his intellectual and versatile personality, and it is this fact that has led in troublous times to the peaceful solution of many a tangled political problem. No greater mark of Egyptian appreciation of his appointment as Prime Minister can be found than the

fact that, even among the most intolerant journals of an unchecked press, hardly a dissentient voice was heard. A further attestation to the popularity of his nomination is shown by the absence of protests from any religious bodies, in a Mahomedan, and so-called fanatical country, against a Christian prime minister. Foreigners resident in Egypt united with the Egyptians themselves in claiming that the right man has been called to the right place.

H.E. ISMAIL SIRRY PASHA, who in 1908 was appointed Minister of Public Works and War, was born in Minieh in 1861, and was educated privately and at the Government Secondary and Polytechnical Schools in Cairo. He continued his studies in France at St. Louis' School and at the Central Engineering School, where he gained his diploma; and he was then asked by the head of the Egyptian Mission in France to undertake the translation into Arabic of Mr. Réné le Blanc's book on "Chemical Experiments," a work afterwards used as a text-book in the Cairo schools. In order to gain some practical knowledge of engineering, he entered the workshops of Key & Co., a Parisian firm of engineers; and he was then for a short period in the service of the French Government. At the end of 1884 he was appointed to a post in the Public Works Department, Cairo, and was transferred to the Second Circle of Irrigation Inspection at the Barrage as assistant engineer. He was transferred to Minieh as sub-inspector in 1888, and whilst there produced a valuable engineer's memoranda book. In 1892 he was appointed Director of Irrigation for Gizeh and the south of the province of Assiout; and later in the same year he was appointed Inspector of the Second Circle, which embraced the provinces of Gharbieh and Menufieh, one of the most important as well as the most difficult districts in the country. He continued to hold increasingly important positions, and carried out numerous large schemes of improvement. In order to prepare a new irrigation scheme for Minieh and the neighbouring provinces, he made a special visit to Europe in 1899, and on his return he published in English a book on "Irrigation in the Riviera Alps." The Minieh scheme dealt with an area of about 313,000 acres, lying in three provinces; and the total cost of the work, which involved the removal of 25,000,000 cubic metres of soil, and necessitated the employment of 100,000 men, cost £820,000. His Excellency is a Pasha of the Mirmiran degree, and has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh.



4. H.E. HUSSEIN ROUCHDI PASHA (Minister of Justice).

2. H.E. ISMAIL SIRRY PASHA (Minister of War and Public Works).

1. H.E. BOUTROS PASHA GHALI (Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs).

3. H.E. MOHAMMED SAID PASHA (Minister of the Interior).

5. H.E. SAAD ZAGLOUL PASHA (Minister of Education).

H.E. MOHAMMED SAID PASHA, Minister of the Interior, was born on January 18, 1863. He studied law and entered the Government service on February 11, 1882, in the Parquet of the Mixed Court of Appeal. Seven years later he was appointed Substitute of Parquet in the Native Courts, and in 1890 he was promoted as "Chef de Parquet." He was transferred as inspector in the Committee of Judicial Supervision in 1895, and he was appointed a councillor in the Native Court of Appeal, 1905. He became Minister of the Interior on November 12, 1908. His Excellency is highly respected by all classes, and is rightly regarded as one of the most able men of the present day.

H.E. AHMED HICHMET PASHA is Minister of Finance, and has as his adviser Colonel Lord Edward Herbert Cecil, D.S.O. Lord Edward Cecil, who was the fourth son of the late Marquis of Salisbury, entered the Grenadier Guards in 1887. He has seen a considerable amount of service in Egypt and the Soudan, gaining his D.S.O. at Khartoum in 1898. He also served in the South African campaign, when he was mentioned in despatches and received his brevet as Lieutenant-Colonel. He served as Agent-General of the Soudan Government and Director of Intelligence, Cairo, and as Under Secretary of War, before going to the Finance Department of the Egyptian Government.

H.E. HUSSEIN ROUCHDI PASHA, Minister of Justice, was educated in Geneva and France, and gained numerous diplomas in law, and also the diploma of the School of Moral and Political Sciences, Paris. Returning to Cairo, his native place, in 1892, he entered the Ministry of Finance as an advocate on behalf of the Government, and two years later he was appointed an inspector under the Ministry of Public Instruction, a position he held for six years. For the next seven years he was a Judge of the Mixed Tribunals; he was then appointed Adviser to the Native Court of Appeal; then Director-General of the Wakfs Administration; and finally, in 1908, to his present position. He has been decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Order of Mejidieh, and has been enrolled in the Légion d'Honneur. His Excellency, who is in his forty-sixth year, is a son of the late Topposada Mahmoud Hamdy Pasha, a former Under Secretary of State at the Ministry of the Interior. His paternal grandfather was at one time Governor of Broulos; his maternal grandfather was a general under Mehemet Ali; while his great grandfather, Topposada Mahommed, one of the greatest generals under Mehemet Ali, was the first Egyptian Governor of Alexandria, after having beaten General Fraser, and acted as Regent in Cairo during the absence of Mehemet Ali in Hejaz. His Excellency is President of the S.P.C.C., and a member of the Islamic Charitable Society. He is extremely popular socially, and is a member of the principal local clubs and of the National Sporting Club, London.

H.E. SAAD ZAGLOUL PASHA, Minister of Education, is a son of a former notable in the district of Ibian, Gharbieh Province. He was educated at the village school, and afterwards at the Al Azhar University, and having completed the prescribed course of studies he was, in 1880, appointed editor of the *Official*

Journal. He was then appointed Moawin, under the Ministry of the Interior, and next to the post of Chief of Contentieux for the Province of Gizeh. Following upon the Arabi revolts he was accused of being an adherent to the principles of the Nationalist Party, and was dismissed from office. When the Native Tribunals were instituted in 1884, he began to practise at the Bar, and in 1892 he was appointed Counsellor at the Native Court of Appeal. About that time, he began the study of the French language, and the Science of law, and in due course he obtained his diploma in law. His appointment as Minister of Education dates from 1906.

H.E. AZIZ PASHA IZZET, Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, is of Albanian origin, and is now in his forty-third year. At an early age he went to England where he was educated at Cambridge and Woolwich, being the only Egyptian who was ever taken from Woolwich into the British Army. Returning to Egypt, he was appointed A.D.C. to His Highness the late Khedive, to whom he was related by marriage. Resigning about seven years ago, he entered upon the post he now holds. His Excellency owns property both in Upper Egypt and the Delta region, and has two or three beautiful farms, besides a house and garden at Faghalla, Cairo. His estates, which are worked entirely by natives under his own personal supervision, are models of what Egyptian estates should be. He interests himself in, and has done much for Egyptian agriculture. A Mahomedan, His Excellency takes great interest in charitable institutions and in all movements which tend to promote the well-being of his fellow countrymen, whether in the direction of education or of sport. He is President of the National Sporting Club. He possesses the gold and silver Egyptian medals, and the decorations of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and he was decorated with the Victorian Order by the late Queen Victoria.

S.E. AHMED FATHI ZAGLOUL PACHA, Sous-Secrétaire d'Etat au Ministère de la Justice, fut pendant onze ans Président du Tribunal Indigène du Caire. Il fit ses études au Caire, et quitta l'Ecole des Langues pour se joindre à la Mission Egyptienne en France. Il prit son diplôme de licencié à la Faculté de Droit de Paris en 1887, et à son retour en Egypte il fut attaché comme avocat au Contentieux du Conseil des Ministres et du Ministère de l'Intérieur. De 1889 à 1896, il remplit successivement les fonctions de Chef du Parquet à Assiout et à Alexandrie, d'Inspecteur au Ministère de la Justice au Caire, et de Président du Tribunal Indigène de Zagazig. Il a publié divers traités de droit, et un important travail relatif à la position des avocats depuis l'institution des Cours de Justice en Egypte, et a en outre traduit plusieurs ouvrages du Français en Arabe. Son père, feu Ibrahim Zagloul, fut autrefois Omdeh de Ibiana.

H.E. AHMED FATHI ZAGLOUL PASHA, Under-Secretary of State to the Ministry of Justice, was for eleven years President of the Native Tribunal in Cairo. He studied in Cairo and passed out of the School of Languages to join the Egyptian Mission in France. He took his degree as Licenciate in Law at the Faculté de Droit at Paris in 1887, and, returning to Egypt, he was attached as a lawyer to the legal departments of the Council of Ministers and of the Ministry of the Interior. From 1889 to 1896 he filled successively the positions of Chief of Parquet at Assiout and at Alexandria, Inspector to the Ministry of Justice in Cairo, and President of the Native Tribunal of Zagazig. He has written several treatises on law and a valuable work dealing with the position of lawyers since the institution of courts of justice in Egypt, and has, besides, translated many books from French into Arabic. His father, the late Ibraihim Zagloul, was formerly Omdeh of Ibiana.

H.E. MUSTAPHA MAHER PASHA, Director-General of the Wakfs Administration, received his present appointment on March 18, 1909, after having held the position of Mudir at Beni Souef, Minieh, and Dakahlieh, and recently at Gharbieh. Prior to 1901 he filled the positions of sub-Mudir of Behera Province, sub-Governor of Alexandria, and Governor of Suez. Born in Alexandria in 1865, he was educated in Government and private European schools, and after remaining some time in the Mixed Tribunals as a supernumerary he joined, in 1892, the Ministry of Finance. He was transferred to the Ministry of the Interior, and later to the Ministry of War, where he remained for about thirteen years, becoming private secretary to the Minister of War. He studied law at the French School of Law, and in 1895, returning to the Ministry of the Interior, he was appointed Sub-Governor of Ismailia. In 1896 he was placed in charge of the mission sent to quell the rising at the Siwa Oasis. His Excellency is a member of the High Council of Education. He is a Pasha of the Mirmiran degree, and has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, second class. He has travelled much in Europe, and is an accomplished linguist, speaking Arabic, English, French and Italian fluently, and having also a fair knowledge of German and Turkish.

H.E. EL-LEWA ISMAIL SARHANK PASHA, who was appointed Under-Secretary of State for War in 1905, saw veteran service in the Egyptian navy and army. Born in 1856 and educated at the Naval School at Alexandria, he served in the Abyssinian War and in the Russo-Turkish and Servian campaigns ; while, as navigating officer on board the royal yacht, he was present at the bombardment of Alexandria. In 1885 he was attached to the Army Recruiting Department as Assistant Adjutant-General ; from 1892 to 1903 he was Director of the Military School at Abbassieh ; and finally, until he received his present appointment, he filled the position of Director of the Recruiting Department. His decorations include the Orders of the Osmanieh (second class) and Mejidieh (second class), the German Order of the Red Eagle, and the Russian war medal (1877). He has written a book on "Naval Tactics and Gunnery" and a "History of the Naval Powers," and he is now engaged on a "History of India."



1. H.E. EL-LEWA ISMAIL SARHANK PASHA (Vice-Minister of War).
2. H.E. AZIZ PASHA IZZET (Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs).
3. H.E. AHMED FATHI ZAGLOUL PASHA (Vice-Minister of Justice).
4. H.E. MUSTAPHA MAHER PASHA. (Director-General of the Wakfs Administration).

ACHMED ZEKI BEY, second secretary of the Council of Ministers, is a son of the late Ibrahim Agha, a former Coastguard Service official. Born in Alexandria in 1866, he was educated in the Government Schools

at Alexandria, Beni Souef, and Cairo, making a special study of law, languages, history, and literature. At the age of twenty he obtained, by competitive examination, an appointment as interpreter-redacteur at the Ismailia Governorate, heading a list of fifty-four candidates, but he continued his legal studies and gained his degree as licentiate. Two years later he obtained, also by examination, a similar position on the *Journal Officiel* of the Egyptian Government; and in 1889 he was appointed Chief of the Interpreting Circle to the Council of Ministers. His present appointment dates from 1896. He was one of the Egyptian delegates to the Oriental Congresses held in London in 1892, Geneva in 1894, and Hamburg in 1902. On his return from the last named he was presented with an emerald ring, as a special mark of the appreciation of the Emperor of Germany. Zeki Bey has also visited Spain, and is a Chevalier of the Order of Isabella Cattolica of Spain (a distinction conferred upon him personally by the Queen-Mother). He is a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society of Lisbon, and a Member of the Royal Historical Academy of Spain. He has contributed many articles to local and other papers and reviews, and has edited several books. He has the largest private library of scientific books in Egypt. One of the most valuable works undertaken by him was the improvement of Arabic type and figures, and the present "face" of the type used in the Government printing offices was designed from his suggestions. He has also interested himself in an attempt to evolve a system of stenography for the Arabic language. For his various services he has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, fourth class, and Mejidieh, third class. He is Secretary-General of the Egyptian University, to the foundation of which he contributed, perhaps, more than any one else; and he is, at the same time, Professor of Islamic Civilisation in the University, and Deputy Secretary to the Khedivial Geographical Society.

H.E. ISMAIL SIDKY PASHA, who was recently appointed Secretary-General to the Ministry of Interior, was for several years in the service of the Municipal Commission of Alexandria, obtaining by competitive examination the position of Administrative Secretary in 1899. Promoted to various positions, he became eventually General Secretary and Chief of the Litigation Department. For his services he was created a Commander of the Order of Mejidieh, and he was also one of the notables to whom the Sultan, on the Khedive's recommendation, gave the gold medal of the Order of Liakat (Merit) in recognition of his work in the diffusion of elementary and industrial instruction in Alexandria by means of the Société Al Orwa el-Woska. Ismail Sidky Pasha was born in Alexandria in 1875. His father, Ahmed Choukry Pasha, who died in 1904, at one time occupied the post of Under-Secretary of State at the Ministry of the Interior; and his mother was a daughter of the late Mohamed Sid-Ahmed Pasha, Chief of the Cabinet of Khedive Said Pasha. He was educated at the Collège des Frères, Cairo, where he obtained the Egyptian bachelor's degree in 1889, and then at the Khedivial Law School, from which he emerged second on the 1894 list of honours. For a while he was attached to the Bar; he then was appointed to a seat on the Committee of Judicial Control; and finally, until his appointment under the Municipal Commission, he had a seat on various tribunals in the interior, in the capacity of deputy to the native Bar. In 1902, he married his cousin, a daughter of the late Emine Sid-Ahmed Pasha, a former Under-Secretary of State at the Ministry of Justice, and has three daughters.



1. **MOUSSA BEY ESMAT** (Ministry of the Interior).
2. **ACHMED ZEKI BEY** (Second Secretary to the Council of Ministers).
3. **MAHMOUD BEY FAHMY** (Engineer in Chief of the Wakfs Administration).
4. **H.E. ISMAIL SIDKY PASHA** (Secretary-General to the Minister of the Interior).

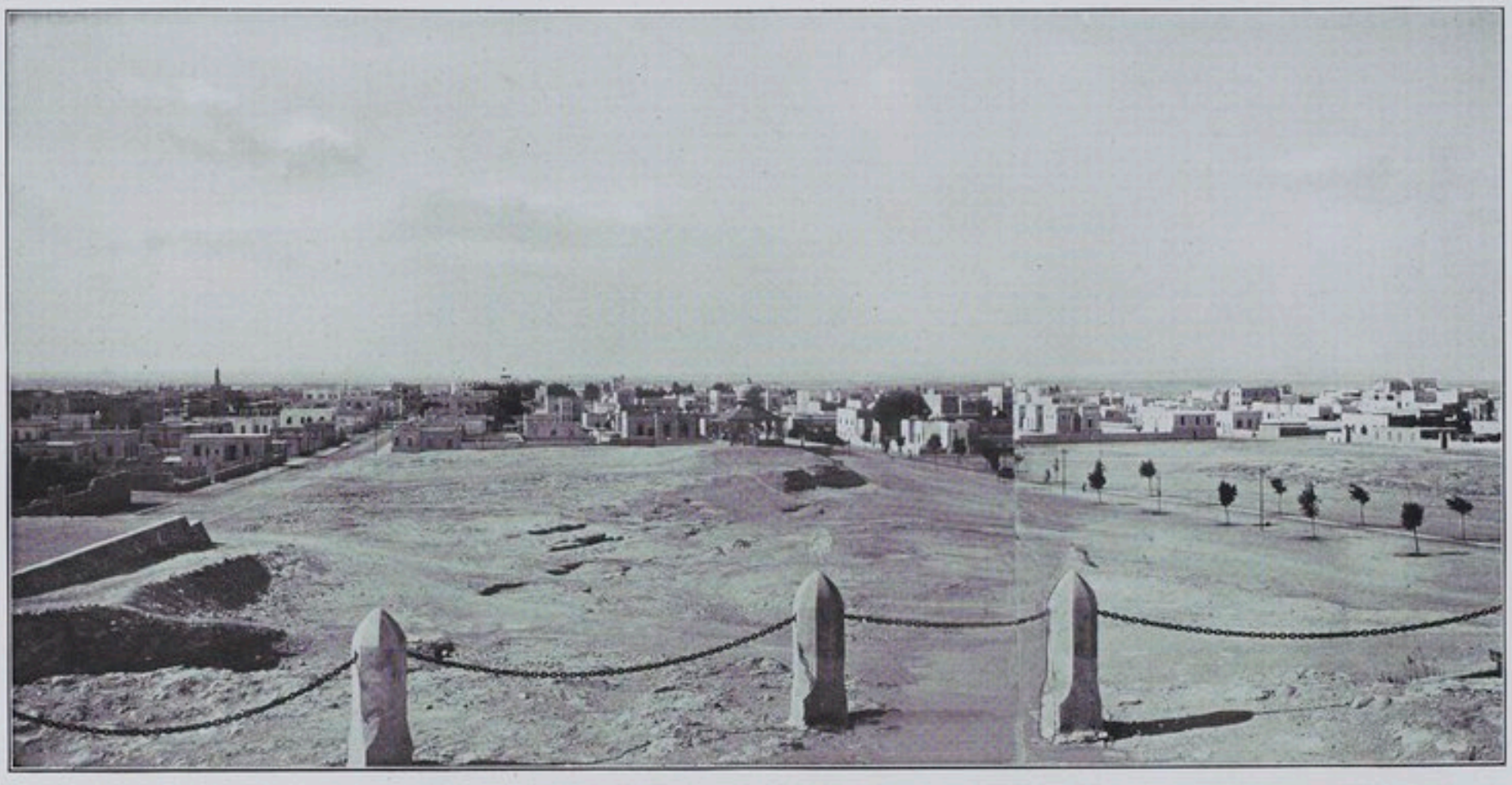
H.E. Ismail Sidky Pacha, qui a été nommé récemment Secrétaire Général au Ministère de l'Intérieur, a été pendant plusieurs années au service de la Commission Municipale d'Alexandrie, où il obtint au concours le poste de Secrétaire Administratif en 1899. A la suite de plusieurs promotions, il devint Secrétaire en Chef du Contentieux. En reconnaissance de ses services, il fut créé Commandeur de l'Ordre du Medjidieh et il fut également un des notables auxquels le Sultan, sur la recommandation du Khédive, accorda la médaille d'or de l'Ordre du Liakat (Mérite) pour l'œuvre de propagande qu'il entreprit, au moyen de la Société Orwa el-Woska, pour la diffusion de l'instruction élémentaire et industrielle à Alexandrie. Ismail Sidky Pacha est né à Alexandrie en 1875. Son père, Ahmed Choukry Pacha, décédé en 1904, occupa pendant quelque temps le poste de Sous-Secrétaire d'État au Ministère de l'Intérieur; sa mère était fille de feu Mohamed Sid-Ahmed Pacha, Chef de Cabinet du Khédive Said Pacha. Il fit son éducation au Collège des Frères, au Caire, où il obtint en 1889 le grade égyptien de bachelier. Il entra ensuite à l'École Khédiviale de Droit, d'où il sortit en 1894 avec le numéro 2. Pour un temps, il fut attaché au Barreau; plus tard on lui donna un siège au Comité du Contrôle Judiciaire; enfin, avant d'entrer à la Commission Municipale, il a occupé un siège dans divers tribunaux de l'Intérieur, comme représentant du barreau indigène. En 1902, il épousa sa cousine, fille de feu Emine Sid-Ahmed Pacha, ancien Sous-Secrétaire d'Etat au Ministère de la Justice, et a trois filles.

MAHMOUD BEY FAHMY is chief engineer under the General Wakfs Administration, and has now some thirty-six projects in hand, estimated to cost altogether about £E250,000. The work on one mosque alone will involve an expenditure of from £E40,000 to £E50,000. A son of the late Mohamed Effendi Khalil, formerly a well-known merchant in Egypt and the Soudan, he was born in Cairo in 1856, and attended the Government Polytechnical School, taking his diploma as an engineer in 1878. He began life as an assistant engineer, under the Wakfs Administration, and then, passing an examination, he was transferred to the Public Works Department, in which he was eventually promoted to be Inspector of Tanzim and Buildings in Upper Egypt. He held that appointment for seven years, and in 1905, after a total service of twenty-seven years, was allowed to retire on pension. Sixteen months later, however, he was offered his present post, and returned to Government service. Mahmoud Bey was the author of practical schemes for the drainage of Cairo and Alexandria, and on more than one occasion was awarded prizes for them by the authorities. He spends most of his vacations travelling, extending his knowledge of his profession. He is engaged in compiling an encyclopædia for the use of engineers in Egypt. He is a Bey of the Mutamaiz degree, and has been decorated

with the Orders of Osmanieh, fourth class, and Mejidieh, fourth class.

MOUSSA BEY ESMAT has held an inspectorship under the Ministry of the Interior since 1895, and prior to that occupied the post of Master of Ceremonies to the late Khedive, Tewfik Pasha. A son of the late General Gafr Pasha Sadek, he was born in 1860, and received a general education locally and in France. He is fond of all forms of sport, and has travelled much in Europe. He has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, fourth class, and Mejidieh, fourth class, and is a Bey of the second degree. His father served for sixty-two years in the Egyptian army, and fought in the Crimea, Crete, Turkey, and Arabia. He was president of numerous councils, and at the time of his retirement he filled the appointment of Governor-General of the Soudan. He died at the ripe age of ninety-five, bequeathing to his son small estates in the province of Gharbieh. Moussa Bey is married and has one son and three daughters.

The President of the Legislative Council and of the General Assembly at the time this work was being compiled was **H.E. ABDEL-HAMID PASHA SADIK,** but his resignation was pending. The Vice-President for the Legislative Council was **H.H. PRINCE HUSSEIN PASHA KAMEL.**



HELOUAN.

LAW AND JUSTICE.

By C. H. Perrott, Barrister-at-Law and Avocat à la Cour d'Appel Mixte.

THE organisation and administration of justice in Egypt has been described aptly in the frequently quoted words of Nubar Pasha as "Judicial Babel." Nubar, who was admittedly the greatest Egyptian statesman of modern times, boldly grappled with the problem, and it is chiefly due to his efforts and support that sweeping reforms in the judicature were effected and the existing institutions established.

To define the limits of the different jurisdictions in the country and with accuracy to describe their working is no easy task. With so many tribunals within the state, conflicts of jurisdiction and of law are, unfortunately, inevitable. The difficulties of the present situation are due primarily to Internationalism, but there are many other factors which have helped to complicate matters. Not only does Egypt contain within her boundaries Europeans of every nationality, but, in addition to differences of language and race, there are widely divergent religious creeds and customs obtaining among the local subjects themselves. This necessitates many questions being determined by Rabbinical, Orthodox, or other special tribunals. In addition to all these difficulties it must be borne in mind that Egypt is, after all, *de jure* a Turkish province; that, nevertheless, the chief Secretaries of State are advised by Englishmen; and that a British army occupies the country.



MIXED TRIBUNALS—ALEXANDRIA. PRESIDING JUDGES.

1. Mohamed Bey Moustafa. 2. Abd-el-Messih Bey Simaika. 3. Aly Bey Mazloum.
4. A. Sorokine. 5. Bela de Zoltan, Vice-President. 6. Ernest Eeman, President. 7. H. N. Heggen.
8. Ragheb Bey Ghali. 9. Commr. Giovanni Paulucci.

The administration of justice in Egypt can be divided into the following great divisions, each of which must be again subdivided:—

1. The Tribunaux de la Réforme, or Mixed Courts.
2. The Native Courts.
3. The Mahomedan Religious Courts.
4. The Non-Mahomedan Religious Courts.
5. The Consular Courts.

All these Courts have a civil jurisdiction. The Courts which possess also a criminal jurisdiction are:—

1. The Native Courts.
2. The Consular Courts.

The Mixed Tribunals, too, have a very limited penal jurisdiction. Another classification that can be made is the Courts having jurisdiction in matters pertaining to personal statute and those not having such jurisdiction.

The Courts competent to try questions relating to the personal or civil status of the individual, such as capacity, marriage, divorce, minority, and so forth are:—

1. The Mahomedan Religious Courts.
2. The Non-Mahomedan Religious Courts.
3. The Consular Courts.

In addition to the five main divisions enumerated there at certain special tribunals, such as the tribunal which may be called into existence to try offences committed against the officers and men of the British Army of Occupation and to which so much attention has of late been attracted. An endeavour will be made in this article to describe the organisation of these various Courts and to say something about the law they administer.

The Native Courts. These tribunals were the direct outcome of Lord Dufferin's report on Egyptian affairs in 1883. Prior to that date an extraordinary jumble existed in the administration of justice among Ottoman subjects. Mehemet Ali introduced a system which had some merit, but, unfortunately, while the framework remained, the picture had crumbled away. There were in each Mudirieh, or province, one Court of First Instance, or Medjliss Ibtabieh, and three Courts of Appeal (Medjliss Estinaff); while a kind of Superior Council sat at Cairo

(Medjliss el Akham) which had the power of quashing the judgments of the inferior Courts and rendering a fresh judgment.

The Kadis, or judges, of Mahomedan law had preserved their right to dispose of all those cases which affected the capacity of the individual; in fact, of all those matters which are now within the competence of the Ecclesiastical or Rabbinical Councils or the Consular Courts, as the case may be. Lord Dufferin vividly describes the system as he found it twenty-six years ago in the following passage:—"The chief requirement of Egypt is justice. A pure, cheap, simple system will prove more beneficial to the country than the largest constitutional privileges. The structure of society in the East is so simple that, provided the taxes are righteously assessed, it does not require much law-making to make the people happy; but the most elaborate legislation would fail to do so if the laws invented for them were not equitably enforced. At the moment there is no real justice in the country. What passes under that name is a mockery both as regards the tribunals themselves and the *corpus juris* they intend to administer." In ancient days the Kadi, an essentially religious functionary, took cognisance of all disputes and gave judgment according to his own lights without any reference to any procedure, though he occasionally invoked such a text from the Koran or such a phrase from a commentator as appeared most applicable to the matter in hand. His real inspiration, however, was too often drawn from the money-bags of one, or perhaps both, of the parties to the cause, while in his own person he was a mere tool, whenever it was necessary to make use of him, in the hands of the despotic Government of the day.

In 1880 a Committee was appointed to inquire into the working of these tribunals, and, stirred perhaps by the establishment of the Mixed Tribunals, the Government issued a decree on November 17, 1881, re-organising the system and laying down the main principles underlying Western jurisprudence. No further step was taken, however, until 1883. In the meantime, events had greatly changed the situation. The movement known as the Arabi Rebellion, which resulted in the bombardment of Alexandria by the British fleet, had weakened the power of the Sultan and damaged such prestige as still clung to the Khediviate, and finally gave Great Britain a preponderating influence in Egyptian affairs. France had refused to co-operate with Great Britain in crushing Arabi and securing order in the country. She could not, therefore, claim with any hope of success, to enter Egyptian territory with her army. Consequently, Britain considered, in spite of almost immediate opposition from France and international complications and jealousies, that she had at once a right and a duty to place the administration of the country on a sound basis if possible. But, although the political influence of Britain, after the re-establishment of the authority of the Khedive by British troops, was paramount, in so far as the Egyptian or Ottoman subject was interested in European civilisation, it was to France, and not to Britain that he naturally turned. The ruling classes had been educated in Paris, native lawyers, and judges of repute, and certainly the ablest Syrian advocates had either taken a French law degree or had drawn from French sources legal theories. The French Educational Establishments in Egypt were the only ones worth considering, and the Jesuit Fathers, always pioneers of education, and almost entirely composed of Frenchmen, had exerted a persistent, though unobtrusive influence, on the Coptic youth.

It was therefore clear that if a European system of law and justice was to have any chance of permanent success, that system would have to be founded upon the principles dominating French rather than English jurisprudence. In these circumstances the endeavour of those responsible for the Native Codes and the native judicial organisation was to make the French Codes, as far as seemed possible, fit in with local customs and requirements, while at the same time strictly reserving to the Mahomedan Courts, long established in Egypt, those questions which might encroach upon the domain of Creed. For it must be remembered that Mahomedanism is not only a religion, but also professedly a system of law and government, and many of those questions which in any non-Mahomedan country would be adjudicated upon by the ordinary civil tribunals are in Egypt within the exclusive sphere of the Mahomedan Courts.

Upon Lord Dufferin's report the Native Courts were again re-organised, and it is from the date of the British occupation that the present system really dates, though it is true that the foundations had been laid long before. The Mixed Courts, too, had been transacting their business for several years, and remained always before the reformer as a model—not to be faithfully reproduced, but to be closely observed.

On December 14, 1883, Courts of first instance were established at Cairo, Benha, Tantah, Mansourah, Alexandria, Beni Souef, Siout, and Kench, with a Court of Appeal at Cairo. A Court now exists at Zagazig replacing that of Mansourah and Benha. These seven Courts of First Instance are composed of a bench of three judges, each one of whom is an Englishman. After the reorganisation of the Courts in 1883, native Egyptians, with a sprinkling of Dutch lawyers and one Englishman formed the Bench. On the Native Court of Appeal there are no fewer than twenty-two judges.

From 1883 to 1891 the administration of the Native Courts was far from satisfactory. During that period the country was much disturbed, and outbreaks of lawlessness occurred in the provinces. Nubar Pasha, who, for the most difficult part of this period, was head of affairs in Egypt, held the opinion that the Native Courts, as then constituted, were not strong enough to put down these disturbances. He therefore created commissions to bring the offenders to justice and to quell the disturbances. These commissions were known as Commissions of Brigandage. They certainly succeeded, in a measure, in restoring order, but in so doing, the injustice wrought by their judgments was so great that it is questionable if it would not have been better to let the ordinary tribunals deal with the cases before them as they thought fit, even at the risk of occasional evidence of cowardice or corruption. Incompetent as many of the native judges then were, certain of the Commissioners, it is said, were equally susceptible to bribes, and possessed collectively, no very high standard of honour. Torture was again applied to recalcitrants, and many a confession of guilt was extracted from the innocent. These tribunals were finally abolished in 1889 at the instance of Lord Cromer, who thus characterised the penal side of the Native Courts in a despatch dated January, 1890:—"The Civil tribunals were practically superseded by the Commissioners of Brigandage. In other words, an elaborate and highly civilised system of justice existed in appearance, whereas, in reality, for all practical purposes, no such system existed at all in respect of Criminal Justice."

It was evident that not only was the Criminal Code as regards procedure hopelessly unsuitable to the then existing conditions, but that the native judges were, with some exceptions, incompetent or intimidated. It was clear that if justice was to flow from a pure font its source would have to be freed from contamination. The two things urgently necessary were a reform of the criminal procedure and a removal of those judges who had proved themselves craven, corrupt, or ignorant of their duties.

On February 15, 1891, Mr., afterwards Sir J., Scott was appointed Judicial Adviser, and by a decree promulgated on the following day, a *Comité de Surveillance Judiciare* was named. Of this committee the Judicial Adviser, the Procureur Général, and a Khedivial Counsellor were nominated members. The Committee were to observe the general trend of the administration of justice, to report from time to time to the Minister of Justice the result of their investigations, and generally to supervise the working of the tribunals. The duties of the Judicial Adviser himself were nominally limited to explanation and advice. He had no seat in the Ministerial Council, but the Minister of Justice was to consult him upon any measure of importance. In point of fact, however, the Judicial Adviser is the real head of the Department of Justice. He corresponds, in a sense, to the permanent secretary of one of our own administrative departments.

As has been already stated, French principles of jurisprudence were familiar to Egyptian jurists. It was, therefore, thought advisable, in framing the Native Codes, to adapt as far as possible the Codes already in use in the Mixed Courts, based as those Codes were on the law of France. The Codes at present administered by the Native Courts are, as regards the civil and commercial side, copied from the Mixed Code with certain modifications to suit a population chiefly composed of Mahomedans, with some difference as regards the law of real property. The new Penal Codes, for which Sir Malcolm McIlwraith was mainly responsible, were promulgated in 1904, as the result of long and careful investigation, and are also based on French law. But the Code of Criminal Law and Procedure, introduced by the British Judicial Adviser, constitutes a real attempt to adjust the Code to local requirements. The administration of criminal justice is still defective in many respects, but this is due to inherent difficulties of the situation rather than to there being anything wrong with the Codes. Although the position of a judge in the Native Courts is well considered, his pay, in view of the very high cost of living in Egypt, is wretched, and life in the provinces is far from agreeable, with the frequent result that the best men leave the Bench just about the time when they have familiarised themselves with the system and with the Arabic language. These remarks apply, of course, to the British judges, one of whom is attached to each Tribunal of First Instance, and sits with two native judges, forming a bench of three. Owing to the poorness of the salary, it is difficult to induce any English lawyer who has a local practice of any size and is acquainted with local conditions, to accept a judgeship. In consequence the bench is recruited from members of the Bar in England, who, of course, have to learn a new and extremely difficult language, and to make themselves familiar with legal

doctrines and procedure entirely foreign to the ideas of an English lawyer. Some few years must necessarily elapse before an English judge can become really competent to deal with the questions which come before him.

The Native Courts have civil, commercial, and penal divisions. These divisions can be subdivided as regards the civil and commercial side into Summary Courts, Courts of First Instance, and a Court of Appeal. The criminal jurisdiction is exercised by Markaz, Contraventional, Correctional, and Criminal Courts.

The Summary Courts constituted a reform of great importance, and were introduced by Sir John Scott in 1890. The function of the judge of a Summary Court is something like that of a *judge de paix* in France, inasmuch as his first endeavour is to reconcile the parties if possible. If he fails in this, he proceeds to trial, and is competent in any dispute as regards immoveables to £E20, and as regards moveables to £E100. An appeal lies to the Court of First Instance of the district in which the action is fought. The judge of a Summary Court is delegated from the bench of a Court of First Instance, of which he is a member. The Court of Appeal hears appeals from the Courts of First Instance. Thus the organisation of the civil side is easy to understand.

The organisation of the criminal side requires some further explanation. The Criminal Codes, as has been already mentioned, had been found defective. In particular, the Criminal Code of Procedure was unsuitable to the conditions obtaining in Egypt, and especially in Upper Egypt. Sir John Scott was not only the cause of a new Criminal Code being introduced, but he also thoroughly revised the judicial organisation. The system of criminal procedure which he adopted from France, was, of course, in advance of the requirements of a community consisting chiefly of fellaheen. The objections to applying to a peasant population laws suitable to highly civilised states were obvious, but it was almost inevitable that the French system should be adopted for reasons that have been explained. Lord Cromer is of opinion that some simple system such as that adopted in the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan, and based upon English principles, would have been more suitable for Egypt, and he cites the remark of an Algerian Sheikh quoted to him by a French official to the effect that if tribunals were set up there would be witnesses, and therefore there would be no justice. The Sheikh was more impressed with the number of wrongdoers that would escape punishment than with the occasional, or even frequent conviction, of the wrong man.

The Courts having a criminal jurisdiction at the time of the appointment of a judicial adviser were divided into Criminal Courts, Correctional Courts, and Contraventional Courts. In 1904 the Markaz Courts were introduced, the Markaz being a subdivision of a Mudirieh or province, and in 1905 a further and important reform was effected by the establishment of Assize Courts. For some reason this latter innovation encountered a considerable amount of opposition, which, however, quickly died down as the benefits of the new institution became apparent. The Markaz Courts have concurrent jurisdiction for some purposes with the Contraventional Courts, and are presided over by a judge of a Summary Court or a Judge of First Instance. The Contraventional Courts are competent only in the most trivial matters, whereas the Markaz Courts are competent in certain contraventions and delicts or misdemeanours. In the latter case, however, their powers are limited to the imposition of a penalty of a small fine or a month's imprisonment. Neither of these Courts has as much power as a London stipendiary magistrate. The Correctional Courts are presided over by a Summary Court Judge. They possess a jurisdiction over all delicts—a jurisdiction which is concurrent with that of the Markaz Courts.

In order to deal with the more serious penal offences classified as crimes, Assize Courts were introduced three years ago. The object was to obviate the inconveniences which had arisen from these cases being triable by the Courts of First Instance.

For the information of those unfamiliar with French criminal jurisprudence it seems desirable to explain the stages before the prisoner is finally brought before the Assize Court which is to decide his fate. In the first place it is the Parquet which institutes all prosecutions. The Parquet is a department whose duty it is to lay before the examining magistrate any charge which it thinks should be investigated in the interests of justice.



LEGAL PRACTITIONERS OF EGYPT.

1. Jacques Green. 2. Armand Acobas. 3. Dr. Carlo Morpurgo. 4. C. H. Perrott. 5. A. S. Preston. 6. Jules Cuzzer. 7. John Walker. 8. Georges Roussos. 9. Fortuné Martino. 10. Ferdinand de Martino Bey. 11. L.Carton de Wiart. 12. James William Norton-Kyshe. 13. M. de la Pomeray. 14. Georges Pangalo. 15. Dimitri G. Bouboulis. 16. A. J. Tilche. 17. Ugo Lusena Bey. 18. César Adda. 19. Albert Brouard. 20. Henry Lusena.

The examining magistrate, who is also a Judge of First Instance, then holds a preliminary inquiry. If he comes to the conclusion that the case should go for trial he commits the accused accordingly. Should he, however, be of opinion that no offence is disclosed he can discharge the accused. There is a third course open to the examining magistrate. He may consider that an offence has been committed, but that such an offence is not a crime. In such a case it is his duty to send the case back to the Parquet, who will see that the prosecution takes place before the competent tribunal. The Parquet, or Department for Prosecutions, has for its head an official known as the Procureur Général, who is the Director of Prosecutions, such a thing as a private prosecution being unknown to French or Egyptian law. He has a considerable staff under him. His chief lieutenant is the Avocat-Général, who frequently has occasion to represent him. There are also Substituts du Parquet and Adjoints. The country for this purpose is cut into districts, each with a Chef du Parquet at its head. The Parquet is directly under the Ministry of Justice, and its members are removable by the Minister of Justice.

The Assize Courts sit monthly in each district, and consist of three judges of the Court of Appeal specially selected for that purpose. There is no such thing as a jury in any Native Court. Right of appeal lies to the Cour de Cassation on a point of law only. This Court is not constructed on quite the same lines as the French tribunal of similar title, but is merely a Chamber of the Court of Appeal sitting *en Cassation*. There are very few appeals to this tribunal.

The Native Courts are competent in all civil or commercial suits where the parties are natives, but in no other, whether the dispute concerns moveables or immoveables. The only questions that are expressly placed outside the jurisdiction of the Native Courts are those which relate to the public debt, the assessment of taxes, the establishment of wakfs, and—the most important exception of all—those questions which relate to the personal status of the individual. All offences alleged to have been committed by natives are triable by the Native Courts, with the exception of criminal offences directed against members of the British Army of Occupation. The accused in such a case *may* be brought before a special tribunal, consisting of the Minister of Justice, the Judicial Adviser, a British judge of the Native Court of Appeal chosen by the Minister of Justice, the Judge-Advocate of the British Army of Occupation, and the resident of the Native Court of Cairo or Alexandria. It was this tribunal, established by a decree of 1895, which was called into existence a few years ago over the Denshawai affair. Such a special tribunal must be asked for by the British Agent, and his application must be supported by the Commander of the Army of Occupation. It is only granted in most exceptional circumstances. Certain commissions have also a very limited penal jurisdiction over natives. Infractions of the Canal Law, and breaches of the regulations made under the Corvée Laws, are triable by special tribunals. With the exceptions above stated, the Native Courts have exclusive jurisdiction over natives.

The term "native" is advisedly used throughout this article. It should be remembered that "Egyptian" is not necessarily synonymous with "native." There are Egyptian administrations, for instance, which contain members of different nationality, and are, indeed, international in the scope of their operations. For instance, the Suez Canal Company is Egyptian, but it has been decided that there is a mixed interest, and therefore the Native Courts are not competent. Neither are corporations alleged to be of Egyptian nationality—although it is doubtful whether there can be such a thing as "Egyptian nationality"—amenable to the Native, but to the Mixed Courts.

The Mixed Courts are an emanation from the Consular Courts established in Egypt. The institution was created in 1876, after nine years of inquiry by international commissions. Prior to the creation of the Mixed Courts, or Tribunaux de la Réforme, a system had grown up throughout Egypt whereby the defendant's Court was recognised as competent in any dispute between persons of different nationality. For instance, if a foreigner brought a suit against a native, it would be the local Court that had jurisdiction, and so forth. There also existed at Cairo and Alexandria Mixed Commercial Courts, composed very differently from those which now exist, which had jurisdiction in matters purely commercial. These Courts were created by a Turkish law, instituting tribunals competent in disputes between foreigners and Ottoman subjects in various centres of the Sultan's dominions. Five judges, including the president, formed the Court. Of the four judges who were to act as assessors, two were to be Ottoman subjects, and two foreigners. The president was, of course, within the former category. These Courts, however, had but little to do in Egypt, limited as they were to disputes between Europeans and subjects of the Porte.

The rule that disputes arising between persons of a different nationality should be adjudicated upon in the Court of the Consulate of the nation to which the defendant belonged gave rise to serious inconveniences. To take but one example. If in an action the defendant had a right of counterclaim or set-off, he could not exercise it, but was obliged to bring a fresh action in the Court of the plaintiff in the original action, who became, of course, defendant in the subsequent proceedings. So continual were the conflict of laws and of jurisdiction that it became clear that some absolute change of system or radical reform was urgently necessary. As for appeals, the defendant had always an enormous advantage, for the appellate was naturally to the Court of his own nation, situated in his mother-country. The plaintiff was, therefore, generally obliged to go abroad if he wished to appeal against an adverse decision, or, as was more often the case, if he was a respondent.

Nubar Pasha applied his great intelligence to finding a remedy for this state of affairs, and in 1867 addressed a report to the Khedive Ismael, which, after protracted inquiries by various commissions, and interminable negotiation with the Powers, resulted in the establishment of the Mixed Courts, as they now exist. The constitution of the Tribunaux Mixtes is to be found in the Règlement d'Organisation Judiciare which commences the Code.

Article 1 institutes three Courts of First Instance, one at Alexandria, one at Cairo, and one at Zagazig. Each of these tribunals is composed of seven judges, four foreign and three natives. Judgments must be rendered by five judges, three of them foreigners and two natives. A foreign judge chosen by a majority of his *confrères* presides with the title of Vice-President. In commercial suits the Court is assisted by two merchants, one a foreigner and the other a native.

A Court of Appeal is instituted at Alexandria with a bench of eleven judges, composed of four natives and seven foreigners. One of the judges presides with the title of Vice-President, as in the Courts of First Instance, and is chosen in the same way as in the Courts below. But judgments of the Court of Appeal (*arrêts*) must be given by eight judges, five of them foreigners and three natives.

The object of having the Court of Appeal at Alexandria instead of at Cairo, is said to be that the native members of the Bench were less likely to be intimidated by Ismael if they were removed from his chief place of residence. Perhaps, a more probable reason is that Alexandria is a town of far greater commercial importance than Cairo, although the latter city is the capital.

Article 5 of the Code lays down that the choice of the foreign, as well as the native judges lies with the Egyptian Government, but before appointments are made they must be referred for approval to the Ministries of Justice of those nations from whom the judges are to be selected.

The Réglement goes on to deal with the nomination of the Greffiers (Registrars) Interpreters, and huissiers.

The jurisdiction of the Mixed Courts is laid down in Article 9 of the Réglement d'Organisation Judiciaire, which runs as follows:—

> "Ces Tribunaux connaîtront seuls des contestations en matière civile et commerciale entre indigènes et étrangers et entre étrangers de nationalités différentes, en dehors du statut personnel.
>
> "Ils connaîtront seulement des actions réelles immobilières entre indigènes et étrangers ou entre étrangers de même nationalité ou de nationalités différentes.
>
> "La Municipalité d'Alexandrie dans ses rapports avec des indigènes n'est pas justiciable des Tribunaux Mixtes."

The Mixed Court are therefore competent as regards the civil side of their jurisdiction in all disputes in which the parties are of different nationality, and, moreover, between foreigners of the same nationality when the question involves real property.

The Courts have extended their jurisdiction from time to time in the sense that they have put the widest possible construction upon this article of the Code. The principle of the "Mixed interest" has been read with the law. The theory of the judges is that not only has the nationality of those concerned in the proceedings to be taken into consideration, but the Court has the right to see if any interest is involved which is "mixed." For instance, if a third party who is of a different nationality from the plaintiff and defendant, is introduced into the action, the Court claims jurisdiction. So also certain administrations like the Daira, the Domains, and so forth, are mixed, although Egyptian. The point is clearly brought out in the legislation relating to *societés anonymes*, or limited liability companies. Such companies are within the jurisdiction of the Mixed Courts, because either they contain shareholders of different nationalities, or they are international in their very nature like the Suez Canal Company. It may be, and indeed it probably is, an incorrect reading of the Code, which appears to define with sufficient clearness the jurisdiction of the Mixed Courts to say that an artificial, or juristic person, such as a limited liability company, or a corporation of one kind or another, is justiciable by the Mixed Courts, because such a legal entity happens to be composed of persons who are subjects of more than one

State. But the Mixed Courts have repeatedly decided in this sense, and if the interpretation of the law be incorrect, it is nevertheless binding. The judgments of the Mixed Court of Appeal at Alexandria, from whose decisions there is no further appeal stand, unless reversed by legislation.

There are many objections to the extension of this doctrine of the "mixed interest." It is too often introduced by parties to the suit with the object of delaying the trial and putting extra expense upon the side with a good case without the means to embark on long and expensive litigation. When the principle was first adopted it might have been in the interests of justice that the Mixed Courts should adjudicate whenever possible, but this is no longer the case. In comparison with the practice in England, for instance, the working of the Mixed Tribunals is terribly slow and cumbersome and, in the end, expensive. The procedure, in the opinion of all the critics, is very defective. The officials are underpaid and ill-organised. It often takes ten days even to get a bill protested and a year or so to get judgment on it in a suit. Even then it may take months to get the judgment itself from the registry after that judgment has been rendered. Such a state of affairs is hardly credible to those accustomed to our rapid procedure under Order XIV. Costs are allowed only on a nominal scale even when judgment is recovered, and upon the amount of that judgment a tax of two per cent. is levied. In fact, it would really seem that every possible indulgence is given to the defendant who wishes to evade his obligation and has no real defence to the claim. Eventually, no doubt, a judgment is rendered in accordance with the principles of Western jurisprudence, but it too often happens that by the time the plaintiff has won his case his costs have amounted to far more than the total sum in issue, and of these, according to the prevailing practice, he can only recover an insignificant proportion. However just your cause, however indisputable your claim, it is generally worth while accepting 50 per cent. thereof rather than fight an action through. It may happen, and in bankruptcy it frequently does happen, that a creditor obtains judgment in a Consular Court against his debtor, who is of the same nationality as himself. When he is proceeding to execution the Mixed Courts will, at the instance of a foreign creditor, put their seals on the goods to be sold right up to the actual date of such sale and so deprive the execution creditor of his rights for a few years. Not only is the execution creditor put to the trouble and expense of all the proceedings necessary to enforce his rights, but he has the mortification of knowing that in all probability the foreign creditor probably has no genuine claim against the estate, but has been put in by the debtor merely in order to bring the matter into the Mixed Courts and so delay the case interminably. In this manner it is not an uncommon occurrence for three or four years to elapse before the unfortunate plaintiff gets his money, if, indeed, he ever recover it at all. It is owing to these abuses that the existing financial depression in Egypt has been so prolonged. A swift procedure would have had the effect of liquidating the financial situation, and public confidence would have been quickly renewed in the country. The judges of the Mixed Courts have held that they were competent in respect of the Alexandria municipality on the ground that that body was international in the sense that by its constitution it is composed of the subjects of various Powers, and this in spite of the Code expressly declaring the municipality to be native! This is an example of the extent to which the Mixed Courts will go in order to enlarge the scope of their jurisdiction. A decree, however, was promulgated, remedying the judgment by declaring that the Mixed Courts are not competent to try causes between natives and foreigners. The Mixed Courts are not competent in matters pertaining to the Statutes Personnel, or civil status of the individual, which, as has been already stated, are judiciable by either the Consular or Religious Courts.

The penal jurisdiction of the Mixed Courts is not great, although it comprises crimes, delicts, and contraventions. Such criminal jurisdiction as the Mixed Courts possess has been wrung from the Powers. It is limited to police contraventions incurred by foreigners, and to certain offences directed against, or committed by, judges and officials. The Mixed Courts have also an important jurisdiction as regards bankruptcy offences, where there is a mixed interest involved. Such a



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provision is particularly desirable, although it is much to be regretted, in the interest of the commercial classes, that prosecutions for fraudulent bankruptcies are not more frequently instituted.

The Mixed Courts having criminal jurisdiction are divided into Courts of Assize, consisting of two foreign and one native judge. The Court is assisted by a jury of twelve, chosen from lists furnished by the Consuls and other officials. An endeavour is made to get two at least of the same nationality as the accused. The tribunal before which delicts are triable is the Tribunal Correctionel, sitting with assessors who are chosen in the same way as the jury. There is also a Chamber of the Court of Appeal, which forms a Court of Cassation. It consists of five foreign and three native judges. An appeal lies only on conviction and on questions of law. The penal jurisdiction is not extended to diplomatic or consular agents. Death sentences do not become executory until the Power whose subject is condemned has been notified.

In criminal cases the "instruction" and the pleading are in the language of the accused. In civil and commercial cases the recognised languages are French, Italian, Arabic, and, latterly, English. As a matter of practice, French is used to the exclusion of any other tongue except Italian, in which language the written pleadings are sometimes delivered. English is not understood by the majority of the judges and by hardly any of the advocates, parties, or huissiers, and anybody who endeavoured to conduct his case in that language would fare badly. The official language of the Near East is French, and for many reasons it is desirable that that tongue should be the only one employed in the Courts—unless, of course, there be a radical change of system and of personnel.

The Codes administered by the judges of the Mixed Courts are: The Code Civil, the Code de Commerce, the Code Maritime, the Code de Procedure Civil et Commerciale, the Code Pénal, and the Code d'Instruction Criminelle. The Codes were prepared by the Secretary of the Nubar Pasha Commission, a Monsieur Manoury, a French lawyer practising in Egypt. They are, as has been already stated, taken from the French Codes, with such modifications as the draftsman saw fit to introduce. All the articles relating to personal statute were, of course, left out, and those articles in the French Code relating to real property were considerably altered, probably with a view of fitting in to some extent with Mahomedan sentiment. Many articles are left out which find a place in the French Codes, but with a view, no doubt, to fill the gaps in the Mixed Codes, it is stipulated that the judges are to apply the principles of natural law and justice to those cases not provided for in the Code. As a matter of fact, this article is generally interpreted by the judges by a reference to the French authorities. A great deal of hostile criticism has been levelled at the Codes Mixtes and at the manner in which they are administered. Such criticisms, however, are not always deserved. Owing to the Codes being unalterable without the intervention of the Powers, and owing to the enormous difficulty of getting any reform, however necessary, carried through in a reasonable space of time, it is really surprising that the legal machinery works as well as it does. The great blot on the Mixed Courts is their extreme slowness, and the undue advantage given to the defendant, especially when he has a bad case. Some check might well be put upon the large number of appeals, quite four out of every five of which are simply entered for the purpose of gaining time or putting the adverse party to more expense in the way of costs. No doubt something could be done by a careful revision of the Code of Procedure.

The Mixed Courts, originally instituted experimentally for a period of five years, have, by international agreement, had their term of existence renewed from time to time. Next year it will be for the Powers to say again whether they are to continue as at present constituted, or whether some new system is to be introduced. Lord Cromer's proposals, put forward in his last report, are acceptable to the majority of the foreign community. But under the present régime unanimity among the Powers is technically necessary for legislative changes affecting the European section of the population. In politics a few years are a lifetime, and it is impossible to forecast the future of the existing system, bound up as it is with the general political situation. But whatever changes may take place, it is urgently necessary that some steps should be

taken to hasten the intolerably slow procedure of the Mixed Courts, even at the expense of appointing a few more judges to the Bench and paying the employés of the tribunal a little more salary. The two things most striking to an English observer are the slowness of the proceedings, the continual adjournments, and the absence of witnesses in the nisi prius cases. The rules of evidence are very different from those prevailing in England, much being admitted which is rejected by English law, and, as has been stated, in few cases are witnesses called. The contentions of the plaintiff and defendant are put forward by their respective advocates, and the documents and correspondence, when there are any, are placed before the Court, which pronounces judgment thereon.

The Courts of First Instance are : (1) Summary Courts which have jurisdiction in disputes where the sum involved does not exceed £100, (2) Civil Tribunals, (3) Commercial Courts, the constitution of which has been considered above, and (4) the Tribunal of Referees. The chief function of the last-named tribunal is to sit as a Vacation Court to hear matters of urgency. One judge is appointed. The tribunal is important, as the vacation in Egypt is a long one, lasting from June till October.

There is one functionary of whom mention has not been made hitherto—the Ministère Public. This official has no counterpart in English jurisprudence. His duties may be gathered from Article 68 of the Civil and Commercial Code of Procedure, which enacts that certain causes should be communicated to him. Among the matters of which he is bound to take cognizance are those affecting the interests of minors and persons represented by tutors or curators, of married women suing under certain conditions specified in the Code (as, for instance, in respect of the dotal portion). Questions of jurisdiction of the liberty of the individual, of public order in the State, the public domain, the Government administrations, gifts or legacies for charitable purposes, and rules of procedure must all be submitted to the Ministère Public, who can also go into any other question that he may see fit, and call for the production of the documents in the case. The Ministère Public investigates the matters which are submitted to him, or which he desires to examine, and is allowed to be heard at the trial. He puts in what are called "conclusions" in the same manner as the advocates do for their respective clients, giving his view of the case.

The Consular Courts in Egypt have jurisdiction of a very extensive description over their own nationals. Such jurisdiction is the result of privileges accorded to traders by the Sultan of Turkey, and in Egypt by Mehemet Ali. These privileges have been extended to foreigners, and they have also been greatly modified by conventions and treaties.

The sixteen Consular jurisdictions obtaining in Egypt each apply the law of their own State to those questions within their purview, that is to say to disputes between persons belonging to the same nation, provided such disputes are not concerned with immoveables situate in Egypt. Moreover, all such questions as pertain to the personal status of their own nationals are within the province of the Consular Courts, as also are all criminal offences alleged to have been committed by foreigners, no matter by whom the accusation is made, save only such particular offences as are expressly declared by convention or treaty to be within the competence of the Mixed Tribunals.

As regards Great Britain the Foreign Jurisdiction of the Crown in Egypt is exercised by the Ottoman Order in Council, 1899. As ex-territorial acts of the sovereign in countries not ceded or conquered require the assent of Parliament, various Acts have been passed authorising legislation by the Crown. Such enactments are the Foreign Jurisdiction Acts, the latest of which was passed in 1890. Thus the foreign jurisdiction of the Crown in Egypt is the relationship which exists between the King and his subjects in respect of the ex-territorial privileges accorded by the Sultans of Turkey. The Ottoman Orders in Council indicate how these privileges are to be exercised.

The Order in Council of 1899, therefore, commences with the statement that "whereas by treaty, capitulation, grant, usage, sufferance, and other lawful means, the Queen has jurisdiction within the Dominions of the Ottoman Porte, Her Majesty, by virtue and in exercise of the powers in their behalf of the Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890, vested, is pleased by and with the advice of her Privy Council to order, and it is hereby ordered"—and then follow the provisions of the Order. The jurisdiction conferred by the Order is defined by Section 5 to extend to

(1) All British subjects, including British protected persons.
(2) The property and all personal or proprietary rights and liabilities of British subjects.
(3) Ottoman subjects and foreigners if they so desire and obtain permission from their authorities.
(4) Subjects of States whose Governments have agreed to the exercise of this power.
(5) British ships within the Ottoman Dominions.

There are three kinds of protected persons—natives of a British Protectorate, subjects of the several Princes or States in India, persons placed under the protection of the Crown. To all these the provisions of the Order are therefore applicable.

The judicial organisation is simple. There is at Constantinople the "Supreme Consular Court for the Dominions of the Sublime Ottoman Porte." This Court consists of two judges, that is to say of a judge and an assistant judge, who are respectively appointed by the Sovereign by Warrant. The judges must be members of the English Bar of at least seven years' standing. The judges sit together for certain purposes, and the Court is then referred to as the Full Court. A Registrar and a Marshall are attached to the Court. Commissioned Consular officers hold in their districts Courts called Provincial Courts. The most important of these Provincial Courts are at Cairo and Alexandria. At both these towns, and especially in the former, there is a considerable amount of litigation and a fair-sized bar. The Consul has to deal with the most difficult points of law involving questions of jurisdiction and nationality, and also with the work which in London would usually go before a Chancery Judge. He has also Probate and Bankruptcy jurisdiction, and it has lately been suggested on more than one occasion that he has to wind up British companies. Applications under the Companies Acts are frequently made to him, but up to now no company has been wound up by order of the Consular Court, though voluntary liquidators have been removed and others appointed under Section 141 of the Companies Acts.

A Provincial Court may, if it sees fit, at any time report an action to the Supreme Court. This course is frequently taken in cases where, for some reason, the Consul thinks it inadvisable that he should try the action. The Provincial Courts, which transact nine-tenths of the business in Egypt, are competent in civil cases up to £300 without assessors, and up to £500 with assessors. Any amount exceeding that sum goes to the Supreme Court.

Local Courts may be created by the Supreme Court where and when it may be deemed desirable or necessary. They have jurisdiction up to £10.

Appeals go in the first place from the Provincial Courts to the Supreme Court of Constantinople, which visits Cairo and Alexandria four times a year and hears appeals and such other causes as come within its jurisdiction.

In criminal matters the Supreme Court may award imprisonment not exceeding twenty years with or without hard labour and with or without a fine of £500; and a Provincial Court may pass sentence of twelve months' imprisonment with or without hard labour and with or without a fine of £50. Where the person convicted by a Provincial Court desires to appeal to the Supreme Court on a point of law, the Provincial Court must state a case for the consideration of the Supreme Court. Provincial Courts may make orders of deportation subject to confirmation by the Supreme Court.

The Consular jurisdiction is covered by Section 107 of the Order, which runs as follows:—"The Supreme Court shall, as far as circumstances admit, have for and within the Ottoman Dominions with respect to British subjects all such jurisdiction except the jurisdiction relative to dissolution or nullity or jacitation of marriage as for the time being belongs to the High Court in England."

In fact the whole of English law and procedure is introduced "so far as circumstances admit," whatever that phrase may mean, with the exception of that applicable in matrimonial suits other than judicial separation. The exception is the cause of much complaint, and leads to undesirable results among the poorer classes, who cannot afford the great expense involved in taking proceedings in London with, in all probability, the attendant necessity of commissions to examine witnesses in Egypt. In this, as in many other respects, the Ottoman Order in Council is defective, and requires a thorough revision. There is a still more curious exception in the procedure on a charge of wilful murder. On conviction the judge orders sentence of death to be entered against the offender instead of pronouncing such judgment in open Court. The judge then sends a report containing the judgment, together with the notes of evidence and any observations he may have to make, to the Secretary of State for his direction respecting the punishment to be actually imposed, which may in no case be greater than the measure of imprisonment and fine the Supreme Court is empowered to give by the Order.

Such are the main outlines of the Order. Some of the provisions are not particularly clear, and it shares with the other Orders in Council the terrible defect of not being properly indexed. The references also contain printers' and other errors. It is cordially to be hoped that the Foreign Office will take some step to bring this antiquated Order up to date, constituting as it does the Charter of the British dwelling in, or resorting to, the dominions of the Porte.

Like Great Britain, France, Austria, Italy, Greece, and, in fact, all the Great Powers have some similar method of ex-territorial

legislation for their subjects resident in the Orient. The relations which exist between the political head of the State and his subjects abroad are properly treated under the heading of Extra-territoriality. In the majority of cases the Consular Courts in Egypt are Courts of First Instance only, with right of appeal to the mother country of the defendant. But this is not by any means always the case.

The Mahomedan Courts in Egypt are exclusively Courts of Personal Statute. The Consular Courts, as we have seen, are the only Courts which deal with questions relating to minority, marriage, divorce, legitimacy, adoption, and, generally speaking, the capacity of foreigners. In the case of a native and a Mahomedan the cause comes before a Mahomedan judge if any of the matters are in issue.

The Mahomedan Courts are the Mekhemah Sharia and the Meglis el Hasby. Each of these divisions has an appellate jurisdiction from the Mudirieh and Markaz Courts, which are established in the provinces. The Mekhemah Sharia is by far the most important organisation, and the Supreme Mekhemah Sharia is presided over by the Grand Kadi, who sits with the Grand Mufti and other judges appointed by the Egyptian Government to hear appeals from the inferior Mekhemah Sharia. The Meglis el Hasby are councils whose duties are limited to questions relating to the appointment of tutors, the nomination of curators, and the removal of interdiction. Mr. J. H. Scott criticises these institutions in "The Law Affecting Foreigners in Egypt" in some detail. The almost universal opinion is that the Mahomedan Courts are in a worse state of confusion than any other State institution. There has been talk of reform for a long time, and the last report that Lord Cromer wrote in his capacity of British Agent speaks in the strongest terms of the Mahomedan Courts of Personal Statute.

The non-Mahomedan tribunals which deal with personal status and apply religious law to members of the various communities established in Egypt, are the Greek Orthodox, the Armenian Catholics, the Coptic Catholics, the Syrian Catholics, the Greek Catholics, the Catholic Chaldeans, the Gregorians (Armenians), and the Maronites. These communities have their patriarchs, bishops, or grand rabbi, and their various constitutions are determined by Firman, law, or decree. Each one varies in its constitution and in the laws that it applies. The Greek Orthodox Church has Provincial Courts, Courts of First Instance, Mixed and Ecclesiastical Councils, and a final Court of Appeal to the Patriarch. The Catholic communities are organised on somewhat similar lines. The Jews, a wealthy and powerful body, possess a council competent in matters pertaining to personal status, but in Cairo it is the rabbis who are entrusted with judicial functions.

The conflict of jurisdiction and of laws leads to many curious results. Questions of legitimacy are of constant occurrence. A marriage is dissolved by one Court, and another holds such marriage as still existing. A Nagir is appointed to a Wakf by one tribunal, while another is nominated by some other equally competent tribunal. The liquidator of a British company is named by the Consular Court of His Britannic Majesty. The Mixed Courts, disregarding the appointment, select another candidate. Both decisions are final. A British subject dies intestate, leaving real property in Egypt. The application of the well known rule that the *lex loci* should apply in matters concerning real property led the Supreme Consular Court to hold that on the intestacy of a British subject the Mahomedan laws of succession should govern the distribution of immoveables. These are a few examples of the many drawbacks in the legal conditions obtaining in Egypt to-day.

SIR MALCOLM McILWRAITH, K.C.M.G., is Judicial Adviser to His Highness the Khedive. Born in London on July 18, 1865, he was the only son of the late Mr. Robert McIlwraith, formerly of Bombay. He was educated at Marlborough, Berlin University, and the Paris School of Law. He is both a barrister-at-law and licencié en droit de la Faculté de Paris. He graduated at the Paris School of Law in 1887, and was called to the Bar, Lincoln's Inn, in November, 1890. He practised at the Bar in London till 1897, and was one of the counsel for the British claimants in the Delagoa Bay Arbitration. He is decorated with the First Class Order of the Mejidieh, had the C.M.G. conferred upon him in 1904, and was created K.C.M.G. in 1905. He is the author of numerous articles in the *Fortnightly*, *Law Quarterly*, and *Juridical Reviews*, *Journal de droit international privé*, &c.

H.E. YEHIA IBRAHIM PASHA was born at Cairo in 1862, and was educated for the legal profession. At the age of twenty he was appointed assistant teacher at the School of Law; two years later he filled the post of professor, and afterwards became sub-director of the School of Law, a position he held till August, 1888, when he was appointed judge of the Native Court at Alexandria. Soon after he was transferred to Zagazig, and in the following year was sent to Beni Souef as President of the Tribunal. His promotion was rapid, and in 1907 he became President of the Court of Appeal, Cairo, his official position at the present time. He has written many treatises, and has edited a standard work containing selections from Arabic authors. He is still a devoted student of legal lore, but finds recreation in shooting and agricultural pursuits. His Excellency has three sons and four daughters.

WALTER MacGEOUGH BOND is Vice-President of the Court of Appeal at Cairo, and amongst the British judges in the Native Court of Appeal at Cairo are Mr. J. S. Wilmore, Mr. H. W. Halton, LL.D., Mr. Harold A. Perry, Mr. Vere S. Alston, Mr. John E. Marshall, and Mr. M. S. Amos.

CHARLES ROYLE, who has been a judge in the Native Appeal Court since 1897, was originally intended for a sailor. The fourth son of Mr. William Royle, of Lymington, Hants, he was born on December 24, 1838, and educated at Queenswood College, in his native county. At the age of fifteen he joined the Royal Navy, but the prospects of rapid promotion were, apparently, too remote during this peaceful interval to satisfy a young and ambitious man, for, after remaining in the service nine years, Mr. Royle resigned his commission and commenced the study of law. It was a radical change from the free and roving life of a naval officer to that of a student in Chambers, but Mr. Royle has never had reason to regret taking the step. He secured two exhibitions as a law student, and was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn in 1865. For the following ten years he practised at the Chancery Bar, filling in his spare time, as is the custom with many barristers at the present day when briefs are scarce, by writing for various newspapers and periodicals. Coming to Egypt in 1875, he commenced practice in Alexandria. His interest in literary work, however, did not cease, and for some time he was a regular contributor to the columns of the *Standard*. He also wrote a number of articles for the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the *Temple Bar*, and various other magazines, and was one of the founders of the first English newspaper in Egypt, viz., the *Egyptian Gazette*. In 1881, Mr. Royle was appointed a member of the British Commission on Egyptian Judicial Reform, and also Public Prosecutor for the British and Egyptian Governments in State Prosecutions in the British Consular Court at Alexandria. This latter position he retained until his elevation to the Bench. Mr. Royle is the author of a monumental volume upon the "Egyptian Campaigns." The work opens with an account of Arabi's rebellion, and deals in considerable detail with the chief events of the Soudan revolt, the campaign against the Mahdi, and Kitchener's operations at Omdurman down to the death of the Khalifa. Mr. Royle is fond of painting, and this forms now his chief recreation.

ERNEST EEMAN was appointed President of the Mixed Tribunals at Alexandria on October 31, 1903, after having held for one year the position of Vice-President, and after having been connected with the court in a judicial capacity since January 1, 1895. His father, the late Achille Eeman, was a Belgian advocate, and his mother, Margaretta Tucker, an English lady. Born on May 14, 1854, he was educated at Ghent, his native place, and at Brussels. He took his law degree at Ghent in 1875, and for several years he practised in the Ghent and Antwerp Courts. He came to Alexandria in 1885, representing Belgium as a judge of the Mixed Tribunal. He was transferred to the Mixed Tribunal at Mansourah in November, 1887, and from 1891 till 1895 he filled the office of President. He married twice, his first wife, by whom he has one daughter, being a Miss Duhayon, and his second, by whom he has one son and two daughters, being a daughter of A. de Korizmiez, President of the Alexandria Appeal Court. Mr. Eeman is an Officier de l'Ordre de Leopold (Belgium). His recreations are tennis, golf, and riding.

BÉLA DE ZOLTÁN, the Vice-President of the Mixed Tribunal of First Instance, is a son of the late Béla de Zoltán, the descendant of an ancient and noble Hungarian family. Born on January 31, 1865, at Buda-Pesth, Mr. de Zoltán was educated at school there, and afterwards at the University, where he graduated as Doctor of Science in 1886. Three years later he became an advocate, and was appointed to the position of judge of the Summary Court of Gödöllö in Hungary, which he held till 1891. He was then appointed Commissioner of the Tribunal Court at Buda-Pesth, and remained there till 1899. In 1900, he came to Alexandria as a Judge, representing Austria-Hungary in the Mixed Tribunal of First Instance, to the Vice-Presidency of which he has been re-elected for successive years. He also directs the Commercial Court. Mr. de Zoltán is "Chambellan de Sa Majesté I. and R. Apostolique," to hold which honour the recipient must have eight generations of nobility on the paternal and maternal sides. He married Margareth, a daughter of the late Béla de Fáy, of Verseg, Hungary, and has three sons. Possessing a country seat at Verseg, he spends his vacations there. His devotion to legal studies has not checked his artistic and musical tendencies, and he has the reputation of being a distinguished pianist.

L. CARTON DE WIART, one of the leaders of the International Bar, practising at the Mixed Tribunals, is the legal adviser to the

greater part of the Khedivial family. Among the many important cases in which he has pleaded was one involving half a million of money (Dongola Expedition). Many of the public financial arrangements since 1895—notably the winding-up of the Daira Sanieh and the drafting of the contracts for the Reservoir at Assouan—were concluded with his legal assistance. At one time he was on the Boards of numerous companies, but he is gradually relinquishing these positions in response to the claims of his large private practice. Mr. de Wiart was born in Belgium in 1854, and received his education at Stonyhurst College, and at Brussels University. He graduated as a Doctor of Laws in 1876, and was called to the Bar of Belgium in the same year. Subsequently joining the Honourable Society of Gray's Inn, he was called to the English Bar. He commenced practise in Egypt in 1883. Mr. Carton de Wiart has been created a Knight of the Belgian Order, and has been decorated with the Grand Crosses of the Osmanieh and Mejidieh, as well as with several other orders. He married Miss James, an English lady, and has two sons. Several lawyers of different nationalities work in conjunction with Mr. Carton de Wiart, prominent amongst whom is Mr. Merzbach, a Belgian. The others include Maitres Maillet, Guiha, Pezas, and Back.

JAMES WILLIAM NORTON-KYSHE retired from His Britannic Majesty's Colonial Civil Service in 1904 owing to ill-health, and in January of the following year was admitted as an advocate before His Britannic Majesty's Consular Courts in the Ottoman Dominions, and as a practitioner before the Tribunaux Mixtes d'Egypte. Educated at Downing College, Cambridge, he was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn. He began his colonial career in Mauritius, where he held various appointments in the legal and judicial departments. Afterwards he was appointed Deputy Registrar of the Supreme Court, and of the Vice-Admiralty Court in the Straits Settlements, where he alternately discharged the duties of Registrar, Judge, Magistrate, Commissioner of the Court of Requests, Sitting Justice of the Peace, Treasurer, and Sheriff. Transferred to Hong Kong in 1894, he was promoted to be Registrar of the Supreme Court, Land Officer, Registrar of Companies, and Official Assignee in Bankruptcy. He was also a Justice of the Peace. At the special request of the Governor he prepared an enactment for increasing the revenues of the Colony by raising the death duties. He has been the recipient of complimentary addresses from the communities of both the Straits Settlements and Hong Kong. Many contributions to legal literature have issued from his pen, among the best known being "Cases Heard and Determined in the Supreme Court of the Straits Settlements, with Judicial History, 1786–1890"; "Index to the Laws of the Straits Settlements," for which he received the thanks of the Government; "The Law and Privileges Relating to the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General of England"; "The History of the Laws and Courts of Hong Kong, including Consular Jurisdiction in China and Japan"; "The Laws and Privileges Relating to Colonial Attorneys-General and to the Officer Corresponding to the Attorney-General of England in the United States of America"; "The Laws and Customs Relating to Gloves"; and "The Dictionary of Legal Quotations." For many years Mr. Norton-Kyshe has been a Fellow of the Royal Colonial Institute, and a member of St. Stephen's Club, S.W. He is married to Ada, younger daughter of the late Henry Clarke Callaway, of Grove Lodge, Porchester, Hants., who was Paymaster-in-Chief, R.N., and secretary on different occasions to various admirals.

CHARLES HAROLD PERROTT, an Advocate of the Alexandria Appeal Court, was born in London in 1874, and was educated at Clare College, Cambridge, at Brighton, and abroad. He entered the Inner Temple, and was called to the Bar in 1899. He read in the chambers of the late Mr. T. R. Kemp, K.C., Recorder of Norwich, and of Mr. Vesey Knox, M.P. He is a member of the Parliamentary Bar. He joined the South-Eastern Circuit in 1904, and subsequently the Sussex Sessions, of which he was twice elected junior. He went through part of the Boer campaign as newspaper correspondent, visiting East and Central Africa, and is widely travelled. He was specially sent by the *Daily Chronicle* to Russia during the revolutionary movement, and to Portugal during the Lisbon riots. Mr. Perrott is the author of various articles which have appeared in English and foreign reviews. In 1900 he published "Finland," and he has written extensively upon international and Scandinavian politics. He came to Egypt in 1907 and was admitted as an advocate of the Mixed Appeal Court in the following year and of His Britannic Majesty's Supreme Consular Court for the Ottoman Dominions. His chief recreations are fencing (foil and duelling sword) and riding. He is a member of the Arts Club; the Sword Club, London; the County Club, Lewes, and the principal local clubs. He is also honorary secretary of the British Law Society recently founded in Egypt.

FERDINAND DE MARTINO BEY has held the position of private legal adviser to the Khedive and chief of His Highness's legal service since 1901. For two years prior to that date he was in the service of the Government. He holds the diploma of the Faculté de Droit, Paris, and is a Professor (Chargé de Cours) of the French School of Law, Cairo, and an Assessor-Judge of the Italian Consular Court. Besides his legal work he has interests in various local companies. For instance, he is managing-director of the Société Belge-Egyptienne de l'Esbekieh, and of the Société de Bienfonds Urbains et Ruraux; and a director of the Cairo Electric Light and Power Company, the Société des Poutres et Planchets en Ciment, and the Société des Grands Hammams. In collaboration with Abdel Khalek Pasha Saroit, Procureur-Général des Tribunaux Indigènes, he wrote a translation of some Arabic poems, entitled "L'Anthologie de l'Amour Arabe," which ran into three editions. He is vice-president of the Dante Alighieri School of Arts and Industry, and is a Government delegate to the Italian Benevolent Society. He is a member of the Club Khedivial, the Mohammed Ali Risotto, the Automobile Club, the Sporting Club, and the Circolo de Scherma in Cairo, and of the Cercle Mohammed Ali and the Yachting Club in Alexandria. Ferdinand de Martino Bey is a son of Sir James de Martino Pasha, K.C.M.G., Director-General of the Daira Khassa du Khedive, and was born in Cairo in 1879. He has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh.

Le Dr. CARLO MORPURGO, avocat bien connu de la Cour d'Appel du Caire, a plaidé avec succès dans plusieurs des causes les plus célèbres qui ont excité l'intérêt du public dans les dernières années. Dans l'affaire du choléra, où de saisissantes et foudroyantes révélations furent faites, il prit parti contre l'Administration Sanitaire; c'est encore lui qui combatit l'Anglo Egyptian Liability Company, et dans la fameuse affaire John Ross & Co. contre l'Administration des Wakfs, il gagna la cause, pour le compte des plaignants. Il plaida avec bonheur en faveur des actionnaires—dont il faisait partie—pour obtenir la dissolution de la Société de Vries et Boutigny, Ltd., et la nomination d'un liquidateur. Il réclama, avec le même succès, un arrêt semblable de la Cour, pour l'Epargne Immobilière, Société au capital de £800,000, affiliée à de Vries et Boutigny, Ltd. Le Dr. Morpurgo est le fils de feu Alexandre Morpurgo du Caire, et naquit en 1864. Il fit son éducation en Italie, prit son diplôme à l'Université de Gênes et revint en Egypte en 1888 pour s'etablir comme avocat. Il s'occupe de diverses Sociétés locales scientifiques et a été Vice-Président de la Société Scientifique Italienne Dante Alighieri, et Président de la Jeunesse Italienne. Il est Past Master de la loge maçonique orientale italienne.

CÉSAR ADDA, one of the senior members of the local Bar, came to Egypt in 1875, at the time of the reform of the Mixed Tribunal, and established himself in Cairo. He was engaged in many of the most important affairs which took place towards the close of the reign of the Khedive Ismael Pasha, and was retained in the interests of the London and Paris houses of the great financier, Rothschild, as adviser in regard to the guarantees for the land loan contracted by the Egyptian Government in 1878. At the present day he is legal adviser to the National Bank of Egypt, the Agricultural Bank of Egypt, the Société Anonyme des Eaux du Caire, the Nungovich Hotels Company, and other important concerns. He is on the Boards of the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, the Société Anonyme des Eaux du Caire, the Compagnie Frigorifique d'Egypt, the Société Foncière d'Egypte, &c. Mr. Adda takes great interest in social and philanthropic institutions, and is on the committees of the Club Khedivial, the Société de Bienfaisance Française, and the Société Philanthropique Internationale (the Rudolph Asylum, of which Lord Cromer is hon. president). He is a member also of the Cercle Français. He was educated at the Lycée Bonaparte (now the Lycée Condorcet) in Paris, and at the Faculté de Droit. He was employed for a time with Mr. Martin du Gard, solicitor, and with Mr. Poisson, and then assisted Mr. Bozérian, advocate to the Conseil d'Etat and to the Cour de Cassation. Mr. Adda has three sons, two of whom, René and Charles Adda, also follow the legal profession. The first named has been associated with him in business for some years. The third son, Mr. Maxime Adda, having passed through the Ecoles des Hautes Etudes Commerciales in Paris, has entered the sphere of commerce.

ARTHUR S. PRESTON, His Britannic Majesty's Crown Prosecutor in Egypt, is a Barrister of the Inner Temple. A son of the late T. S. Preston, a London solicitor, he was born in 1867, and was educated at Marlborough. Having taken the degree of LL.B. after a University career, he was admitted as a solicitor and practised for some years in London. He spent a short time in India, and then, in 1899, came to Egypt, where he was admitted as a solicitor before the Mixed Court of Appeal at Alexandria. His present appointment dates from 1905. He is married to Mary, a daughter of Mr. A. D. Graves (an Inspector of Schools in Ireland, and the author of several poetical works), and has one daughter. He is a member of the Sports Club, London, and of the principal local clubs.

UGO LUSENA BEY, a well-known figure in legal circles, is the author of a standard work entitled "Eléments de Procédure Civile et Commercial d'apres le Code Indigene comparé au Code Mixte," published in two volumes and now in its fourth edition. The work was produced at the instance of the Minister of Public Instruction, and Mr. Lusena was decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and received the title of Bey. A son of the late Angelo Lusena, a former banker of Cairo, he was born in 1855. After passing as an advocate at Pisa in 1874, he practised there for two years. His return to Egypt coincided with the establishment of the Mixed Tribunals, and he engaged in practice in Cairo until 1883, when he became Professor of Law to the Khedivial College. He still holds this appointment, and is also an Advocate of the Alexandria Mixed Court of Appeal and of the Court of Cassation at Florence, and a Judge-Assessor of the Italian Consular Court at Cairo. He is a Professor of the University of Rome; a member of the Egyptian Institute, a Society founded by Napoleon I.; president of the Dante Alighieri Society; and a member of the Italian Benevolent Society. Other of his publications besides that above-mentioned are "The Usurer," and "The Secret of Medicine." He is married to Flora, a daughter of the late James Bogdadli, a banker of Alexandria, and has three sons and three daughters. His eldest son, Alberto, also follows the legal profession. Mr. Lusena is a Cavalier of the Order of the Crown of Italy, and of that of Santo Maurice and Larozzo.

Me. ALBERT BROUARD, un avocat à la Cour d'Appel Mixte du Caire, est né à Paris, le 19 décembre 1859 et a été éduqué à la Faculté de Droit. Il passa ses examens pour sa licence en 1885 et pendant une année il pratiqua à Paris. Depuis son arrivée en Egypte en 1886, il pratiqua devant la cour du Caire et d'Alexandrie, et, il a une clientèle qui s'accroît parmi l'aristocratie du pays.

JOHN WALKER, founder of the firm of Messrs. Walker & Meimarachi, Ltd., is one of the oldest British residents in Cairo, and although, as Shakespeare tells us, "one man in his time plays many parts," there are comparatively few who can claim to have appeared in so many dissimilar rôles upon the stage of life with such uniform success as he. He started life as an apprentice to Messrs. Laird Bros., the well-known shipbuilding firm of Birkenhead, but, his health breaking down, he came to Egypt to recruit. Deriving great benefit from the climate, he decided to settle in the country, and obtained employment under the Egyptian Railways Administration as secretary to Mr. E. A. Garwood, at that time superintendent of the locomotive and carriage department. He improved his leisure by mastering the languages and acquainting himself with the conditions of the land of his adoption. On the very day that Arabi Pasha's revolution broke out—June 11, 1882—Mr. Walker took the initial step towards an independent career by registering, at the Court of Mixed Tribunals in Cairo, the contract which led to the creation of the firm of Messrs. Walker & Co., now Walker & Meimarachi, Ltd. During the cholera epidemic of 1883, Mr. Walker was appointed local agent for the Egyptian War Office for all supplies to hospitals in Cairo and Upper Egypt. Much of the stirring history of the country in those days passed under his direct cognizance, and for his services at the Battle of Gamaizah in 1888 he received the Queen's medal and clasp. Resigning from the managing directorship of Messrs. Walker & Meimarachi, Ltd., in 1900, he became a director of the Gizeh Brewery, and, having seen that undertaking firmly established, he entered upon the study of law. He had always a special aptitude for study, for when at the Liverpool Institute he was second scholar in a school of six hundred boys. In 1905 he graduated LL.B. at the Faculty of Law, Paris, being then in his forty-sixth year. In July, 1906, he was admitted a Licentiate of that Academy, and in the following December was called to the Bar of the Mixed Tribunals, Cairo, as an Avocat Stagiaire, or probationer in law. Mr. Walker was born in Liverpool in 1859, and is a son of Mr. George Walker, a retired ironfounder of that city. He is married to May, daughter of Capt. Simonds, of the Liverpool merchant service. He is a member of the British Chamber of Commerce, Cairo, and is a prominent Freemason, with the rank of P.M. and P.D.G. Director of Ceremonies. His principal recreation is golf.

HENRY LUSENA, one of the three delegates representing the Cairo Bar on the Council of the Order of Advocates, has been established in Cairo as a legal practitioner since 1887, in which year he gained his diploma as a Doctor of Laws. For two years he was a substitute professor at the Khedivial School of Law. At one time he was President of the "Gioventu Italiana, which had the same object as the "Societa Dante Alighieri," that is to say the diffusion of the Italian language; and he has been Director of the Société Civil Cemetery, in the formation of which he took a great interest. He is now on the Committee of the Arcolo del Risotto, and is Deputy Scolastico Pressole Regie Senole Italiane di Cairo. A son of the late Commandatore Angelo Lusena, he was born at Florence in 1867. He married Elena, a daughter of the late Samuel Mieli, and has two sons and seven daughters. His eldest son, Ubaldo, is studying at L'Ecole de Droit, Cairo.

GEORGES ROUSSOS, Substitut du Bâtonnier du Conseil de l'Ordre des Avocats, Egypt, is a native of Leros, Turkey, and was educated in Greece, and afterwards, at the University of Lyons, where, in 1889, he secured his diploma. He was enrolled as an Advocate in September, 1889, and has practised in Alexandria ever since. He has pleaded successfully in several notable cases. He is an officer of the Order of Mejidieh.

ARMAND ACOBAS, licencié en droit de l'Université de Paris, fut pendant quatre ans avec Me. Carton de Wiart, l'avocat bien connu, avant d'ouvrir son étude d'avocat. Il débuta brillamment dans de nombreuses causes, tant au Tribunal de 1re Instance qu'à la Cour d'Appel Mixte et au Tribunal Consulaire de France, et en même temps comme notaire son ministère est recherché par une clientèle toujours croissante de notables européens et indigènes.

DIMITRI G. BOUBOULIS, avocat, est le conseiller légal de l'Anglo-Egyptian Bank, Ltd., de la Banque d'Orient, de la Banque d'Athènes, de la Banque d'Escompte d'Egypte, de The Egyptian Hotels Co., de la Société des Automobiles et des Omnibus, et d'autres Compagnies importantes. Il vint en Egypte en 1896, et exerça sa profession d'avocat à Alexandrie jusqu'en 1905, époque à laquelle il acquit l'étude de Me. J. Athanaraki, qui était établi au Caire depuis plus de trente ans. Me. Bouboulis a plaidé dans plusieurs causes importantes, notamment dans celle du Mont de Piété, et dans le grand procès de l'Assurance sur la vie qui souleva tant d'intérêt il y a quelques années. Il est né à Spetzia, en Grèce, en 1870, de feu M. Georges Bouboulis, anciennement Ministre de la Marine Grecque, et grand patriote, qui prit une part éminente dans la guerre de l'Indépendance Grecque. Il fit ses études à l'Université d'Athènes, où il reçut son diplôme d'avocat en 1890; il continua ses études à Aix, en France, et retourna ensuite à Athènes, où, en 1904–5, il fut professeur à l'Université Commerciale de Droit Maritime. En 1897, il s'enrôla comme volontaire pour combattre pour son pays contre la Turquie, et fut blessé à la main. Il fut nommé Chevalier de l'Ordre du Sauveur de Grèce, et pour les services rendus depuis au Gouvernement Français, il reçut la décoration de la Légion d'Honneur. Me. Bouboulis joue un grand rôle dans la vie sociale hellénique en Egypte. Il est Secrétaire général de l'Union Pan-Hellénique, et fait partie du Comité de la Communauté Hellénique. Il est également membre du Cercle Mohamed Aly d'Alexandrie et du Club Khédivial du Caire, et membre du Comité de l'Automobile Club d'Egypte. Me. Bouboulis est marié avec Mlle. Esméralda, fille du Docteur Comanos Pacha, et a deux filles.

CHARLES HALFORD, M.A., Advocate and Barrister-at-Law, is a son of Mr. Robert Halford, of London. He was born in 1880, and was educated at Westminster, and at New College, Oxford, where he graduated in 1901. He studied law, and was called to the Bar at the Inner Temple on July 24, 1903. After graduating at the Paris Faculty of Law, he came to Egypt, and was enrolled as an Advocate, with special permission to practice before His British Majesty's Consular Courts in the Ottoman Empire. In October, 1907, he entered into partnership with Mr. Frederick Leveaux, a leading Advocate in Alexandria. He is a member of the principal local clubs.

JULES CUZZER, membre du Conseil de l'Ordre des Avocats, pendant de longues années, fut, à un moment donné, bâtonnier de l'Ordre. Après avoir pris son doctorat en droit à l'Université de Pise, en 1874, il fut admis comme avocat auprès des Tribunaux italiens en 1876. Il revint à Alexandrie, sa ville natale, en 1876, au moment de la réforme des tribunaux, fut admis à y plaider, et depuis réussit à occuper une place prédominante dans le barreau égyptien. Son père, feu Léon Cuzzer, quitta son pays natal, la Toscane (Italie), pour des raisons politiques, en 1843, et se fixa à Alexandrie, où il devint directeur d'une importante maison de commerce. Me. Jules Cuzzer est aussi en relations étroites avec la Communauté Italienne. Il est juge-assesseur au Tribunal Consulaire Italien, et a été membre du comité de la Société Dante Alighieri ainsi que de la Société Italienne de Bienfaisance. Pendant quelque temps il fut Président du Club Italien (Circolo). Il a épousé Flora Lustgarten, de nationalité roumaine.

GEORGES PANGALO, advocate, is a native of Greece, but came to Egypt in 1863, when only eleven years of age. He studied law, taking his diploma in France. After holding the position of registrar notary at the Mixed Tribunal, Cairo, for some time, he was called to the Bar in 1883. He was made a member of the Council of the Order of Advocates in 1885, and a member of the Council for the Revision of the Patent Laws in 1891. He was among those who strove successfully

to obtain the abolition of the old patent laws. He has two sons, Leon and Raoul, both of whom have been admitted to the local Bar.

ALFONSO COLUCCI, a well-known advocate in Cairo, holds the diploma of the Bologna University as Doctor of Laws. From 1875 to 1883 he was Secretary to the Minister of Justice at Cairo, and took part in the legal reforms of that period. He then started private practice, and has since been retained in many important cases all over Egypt. He is legal adviser to the Khedive's mother, to the princes and princesses of the Khedivial family, to Muchtar Pasha and to many other leading persons. He was formerly a judge assessor at the Italian Consular Court, and is a committee member of the Société de Bienfaisance Italien. He is decorated with the Order of Osmanieh. A son of the late Mr. Ricardo Colucci, of Cerigna, Italy, who was at one time Italian Consul at Scutari, Albania, he was born at Alexandria in 1851. He is married to Emma, a daughter of the late Mr. John Prinoth, of the Tyrol. His two sons, Ricardo and Maxime, are both practising as advocates in Italy.

FORTUNÉ MARTINO has practised as an advocate in Cairo for the past twelve years, and has been retained in numbers of important civil cases. He is a son of the late Philip Martino, a merchant of Marseilles, and was born in 1867. He was educated at Marseilles and at the Faculté de Droit, Aix, and, before coming to Egypt in 1896, practised for a time in the Assize Courts in France. Mr. Martino is a member of the Committee of the Automobile Club, and a member of the French Benevolent Society, and of the Société d'Assistance Publique. He is married, and has two sons.

JACQUES & ELIE GREEN, although comparatively young men, have secured a place in the front rank of the Cairo Bar, thanks not only to their knowledge of law and procedure but also to their thorough mastery of the language of the country. They have a numerous and increasing clientele, including many members of the Egyptian aristocracy and several important industrial and financial companies. Sons of the well-known banker, Mr. Solomon Green, Mr. Jacques Green was born in Cairo on December 2, 1862, and was educated in Paris, taking his diploma at the University de Droit, Aix. Mr. Elie Green, who, also, is a native of Cairo, took his diploma at the Faculté de Droit, Paris. They have an able collaborator in their brother, Mr. Alex. Green.

OMAR BEY LOUTFI, who for sixteen years had held the position of Vice-Director of the Government School of Law, was at his own request placed on pension in 1904, and was granted by the Ministry of Public Instruction the appointment of Hon. Professor of the School. This appointment, according to the usage of this country, qualifies him to practise at the local Bar. He has made a study of education and of economical and social questions. It was largely owing to his suggestion that Lord Kitchener took the necessary steps towards founding the first school for police in Egypt. At the present time he is interesting himself in founding a guarantee society to advance loans on securities and projects; and he is also engaged, in association with H.H. Prince Hussein Pasha Kamel, in founding an agricultural syndicate with the object of advancing money on incomes, &c. His inquiries into social questions led to his publishing a brochure in French entitled "Habilité de Domicile en Droit Mussulman," in which he set forth a comparison of the rights of Mahomedan and European women respectively in their relationship to their husbands. The book was laid before the Mahomedan Women's Conference in 1896. Omar Bey was born in Alexandria some forty-one years ago, and in 1887, on completing his education at the Government Schools, he was appointed a substitute in the Parquet Court, Cairo, where he remained for six months. He then joined the School of Law, eventually becoming vice-director. In 1894 he represented the Egyptian Government at the Oriental Congress at Geneva, and laid before the Congress a work entitled "Action Publique en Droit



LEGAL PRACTITIONERS OF EGYPT.

1. Iskendar Amoun Bey. 2. Hagop Ilmi Assadourian. 3. Djafer Fakhry Bey. 4. Mohammed Sadick Bey. 5. Gamil Sabit Bey.
6. Ahmed Naguib Barradah. 7. Alexos Z. Joannides. 8. Michel Nassif. 9. Abou 'l Nasr Bey. 10. Aly Aboulfoutouh Bey.
11. Ahmed Bey Abdullatif. 12. Mohamed Mahmoud Bey Khalil. 13. Saouris Bey Mickaël. 14. Michel Sednaoui. 15. Philippe Nassif.
16. Selim Michael Bey Boustros. 17. Achmed Ziwer Bey. 18. H.E. Mahmoud Fahmy Pasha. 19. Mahmoud Bey Abdullatif.
20. Mohamed Bey Sourour. 21. Mahmoud Bey Fahmy. 22. Joseph Assaf Bey. 23. Selim K. Boustany.
24. Morcos Hanna. 25. Mohamed Zaki Abd-el-Méguid. 26. Daoud Bey Amoun.

Mussulman." He has also edited a book in Arabic explaining the Criminal Code. He has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class.

AHMED BEY LOUTFI, a specialist in political cases in which newspapers are involved, and legal adviser to several members of the Khedivial family, has been in practice with his brother since 1897, having, prior to that date, filled for one year the position of legal adviser to the Wakfs Administration. One of the leading cases in which he was engaged was that in which an action was brought by the Soudan Government against Sheikh Shawish, proprietor of the *Lewa* newspaper. He successfully defended the case and the Sheikh was acquitted. Ahmed Bey is greatly interested in political and social questions. He is a member of the Nationalist party, to which he acts as legal adviser, and he has taken part in the formation of various organisations in the nature of trades unions. He has made fourteen voyages to Europe, and his experiences have furnished him with interesting material for his contributions to the local press. Born in Alexandria and educated in Cairo, he has the diploma of the Government School of Law. He is now in his thirty-third year. He has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class.

AHMED BEY ABDULLATIF, who has been in private practice in Cairo for the last four years, was one of the lawyers engaged for the defence in the celebrated Minshawi case, and took a prominent part in the proceedings. He is a man of considerable attainments. Before the age of thirteen he knew the Koran by heart, and had gained an extensive knowledge of mathematics. He then attended a school in Damietta, where he gained two junior certificates, and two years later he came to Cairo to continue his studies, first at the Khedivial Preparatory School and afterwards at the School of Law. It was during his term at the latter institution that he published *El nadim*, a paper devoted to science and social topics. Having graduated as Licencié en Droit, he was appointed to the Parquet, but resigned in 1897 in order to take up private practice at Zagazig. His success there emboldened him to attempt a wider field of activity, and in 1904 he established himself in Cairo. The Bey, who is in his thirty-sixth year, is a descendant of a family which has been known in the province of Gamalieh for upwards of four hundred years. He is a son of the late Abdullatif, of Damietta, from whom he has inherited extensive agricultural lands in that neighbourhood.

ALY ABOULFOUTOUH BEY, now Mudir of Girgeh Province, was until recently Chief of the Parquet and Government Prosecutor for the Native Court of Appeal, Cairo, and in that capacity was connected with most of the principal cases which have come before that tribunal during recent years. It was he who brought home the charge to the accused in the famous case against Hassan Bey Wassif. Born at Bilcas in 1873, he was educated at Tantah and at Montpellier. After qualifying as a Licencié en Droit he proceeded to Paris, where he obtained the degree of Doctor of Law with honours. Returning to Egypt in 1893, he was appointed a substitute of Parquet at the Tantah Native Court, and seven months later was transferred to the Central Parquet Appeal Court. He remained there, rising rapidly until he was promoted first class substitute of Parquet, then Inspector of Parquets, and, finally, to the appointment which he now holds. He is a contributor to several judicial reviews, and has written a book, entitled "The Voyage of an Egyptian in Europe," in which he narrates his experiences upon the occasion of his visit to the Continent for the purpose of attending the Law Congress. He has translated into Arabic "Stanley Jevons," a book on political economy by a well-known English author. He belongs to several European societies, chief among them being the Union Internationale du Droit, of Berlin; and he is on the committees of the Egyptian University and the National Sporting Club. On his estates at Gharbieh he grows cotton and rice, and also enjoys good shooting.

MOHAMED MAHMOUD BEY KHALIL, one of the most popular of the legal advisers to the Khedivial family, has already proved in his career that Cairo possesses the most excellent educational facilities, for he passed his law examinations at the age of twenty-two without ever having gone outside the city in the pursuit of his studies. When Sir John Scott was Judicial Adviser he offered prizes to the two students heading the list in the examinations at the School of Law, and Mohamed Mahmoud Bey Khalil gained one of these awards in 1898, the first year in which they were instituted. After practising for two years in the Parquet, he was attached to the Ministry of Justice as a substitute, but in 1904 he resigned in order to follow his profession privately. He has travelled much in Europe, and has lately paid a special visit to France for the purpose of improving his legal knowledge. His father, H.E. Mahmoud Pasha Khalil, a son of Ibrahim Pasha Khalil, was private secretary to Khedive Ismael Pasha, besides holding the appointments of secretary to the administration of His Highness's Court and keeper of the Royal archives. After Ismael Pasha left the country His Excellency entered the service of Khedive Tewfik Pasha, but in 1882 he once more accepted personal service with his former employer.

MOHAMMED SADICK BEY, a Judge of the Mixed Tribunals, Cairo, entered the American Mission School of Cairo at the age of seven, and from that institution proceeded to the Khedivial Government Secondary School, which at that time was in Abbassieh. Thence he was sent by the Ministry of Public Instruction to the Soudan Telegraph Department, Cairo, in 1866, as an apprentice, and afterwards became Superintendent of telegraphic instruction. At the age of twenty he was transferred to the Ministry of Education as teacher of English in the Secondary School of Ras-el-Tin, Alexandria, where he remained until his appointment eight years later, in the same capacity, to the Polytechnic and Land Surveying Schools. He next entered the service of His Highness the heir-apparent, the late Tewfik Pasha, as Moawen, translator and teacher of English in the Khedivial School at Koubbeh, for four years. On his accession to the Khedivial post, he was appointed translator to His Highness's Cabinet and teacher in the Aaly School, where the present Khedive began his education. In this position he remained for eleven years, during which he received the 4th, 3rd, and 2nd ranks in succession. Eventually Sadick Bey was appointed Judge of the Mixed Tribunal at Alexandria, and was later transferred to Cairo. He wears the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh. A son of the late Haag Bahr Farag Salem, of Dahrut, Minieh, he is in his sixty-first year. He is a widower and has one son and a daughter. He possesses estates in Aba-el-Wakf, Minieh, his native province. His leisure is devoted to literary pursuits.

H.E. MAHMOUD FAHMY PASHA retired from public service in 1902 after a distinguished career extending over forty years. Descended from a Turkish family which has long been associated with the law, he early showed an aptitude for legal work whilst a clerk to one of the legal Councils in Cairo. He was appointed as Turkish clerk, and was transferred to various stations, including Suez, Alexandria, and other provinces, and was then promoted to a judgeship. In 1875 he became an assistant in the Ministry of Finance, and whilst in that department attained the position of chief of the pension staff. On the creation of the Ministry of Justice, he qualified by examination for the post of chief Arabic clerk; and three years later he was transferred in a similar capacity to the Ministry of the Interior. When the new tribunals were formed, he asked to be examined with a view of obtaining a judgeship under the new requirements, but thanks to his excellent reputation he was nominated a judge of the first degree in the Court of Appeal at Cairo without being called upon to pass an examination. Eventually, in 1884, he entered the service of the Khedivial Cabinet (while he had the title of Motamayez, with the Mejidieh of the third degree), in which he remained until his retirement, rising to the position of Chef du Cabinet. He has since been appointed a member of the Legislative Council and the General Assembly. His Excellency has throughout his career been highly respected by his colleagues, from whom he has received many testimonials of appreciation. He has been decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, second class, and with the Grand Cordon of the Order of Mejidieh. He has been granted successively all the titles ranging from that of Effendi to that of Romally Bai Lar Bey, the highest degree of Pasha. A son of the late Mohammed Himet Bey, a former Judge of the Assiout Court of Appeal, he was born in Cairo, and is now in his sixtieth year. He owns a little property at Fayoum, and at one time he was on the boards of the Fayoum and Delta Light Railway Companies. He built a school at Fayoum, and he has also done much towards the improvement of Helouan. He has a family of three sons and four daughters.

ACHMED ZIWER BEY, Adviser to the Native Appeal Court, Cairo, has held that appointment since March 2, 1899, and prior to that date had filled successively the posts of substitute in March, 1887; of Juge Suppliant at Benha, in January, 1889; of Judge at Assiout, in June, 1889; of Chief of Parquet at Assiout, in 1891; of President of Beni Souef Tribunal, in November, 1891; and Advocate-General of all Native Tribunals, by decree of April 18, 1895. A son of the late Ziwer Bey, a native of the Caucasus, he was born in Alexandria on November 14, 1864, and was educated at the French School of Lazarists, at Alexandria, from October, 1874, till July, 1877, and at the Jesuit College of St. Joseph, Beyrout, from October, 1877, till July, 1882. In 1885 he proceeded to Aix, France, where in January, 1887, he graduated as Licencié en Droit. He is a Bey of the Sanieh grade since Soffer, 1310, and a Bey of the Mutamaiz degree since Rejeb, 1313, and was decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class in the Ramadan, 1316. His three sons are still at school. Ziwer Bey is a man of broad sympathies, thanks to his European education, and speaks French, English, Italian, Arabic, and Turkish.

GAMIL SABIT BEY, who now holds the position of Acting Chief of Parquet at Gizeh, has been employed in that and similar capacities for several years, and has been stationed at various times at Benha, Cairo, Saida Zenat, and Port Said. He has the licentiate's diploma of the Faculté de Droit, Paris, whither he went to complete his studies after a course at the German School and the Government School of Law in Cairo. He has travelled a great deal in Europe, and is an enthusiastic sportsman, his special delight being in horse exercise. He is in his forty-second year. His father, the late Mohamed Sabit Pasha, enjoyed the distinction of having been Governor of every province of Egypt in turn. He was also Governor of Cairo and of Alexandria, and besides these appointments he filled those of President of the Mixed Court of Appeal, Minister of Education, Minister of the Interior, and Chief of the Khedivial Cabinet. At the time of the revolt of Arabi Pasha he was sent by the Khedive on a special diplomatic mission to the Sultan of Turkey.

MAHMOUD BEY ABDULLATIF, having obtained the degree of Licenciate in Law at the Paris University in 1896, opened a practice in Mansourah, where for three years he held the office of Vice-President of the Municipal Commission. He has now passed his period of probation, and is entitled to appear before the Native and Mixed Tribunals in Cairo. He is a Fellow of the Egyptian University, and a Member of the Islamic Charitable Society. He is a native of Damietta, where he owns some property, and is now in his thirty-fourth year.

MICHEL SEDNAOUI, a well-known advocate in Cairo, will be remembered as having appeared in two important cases, those of Khadiga Hanem Gahon Chah *versus* Daoud Pasha Yaken, Mansour Pasha Yaken, and the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, and of A. Werther & Co. *versus* Jean Photias et Fils. He was born in Damascus in 1879, and was educated at the University of Beyrout until he was fifteen years of age, when he came to Cairo. He attended the College des Frères for three years, studying law in the evenings at the French School. In 1897 he was appointed as an assistant in the Cairo Parquet Court, but three years later, having gained his diploma, he resigned and entered into partnership with Mahmoud Salem Bey, a judge in the Mixed Court, who resigned his functions at the same time. Since 1903 Mr. Michel Sednaoui has practised on his own account. He is fond of riding and has travelled much in Europe.

DJAFER FAKHRY BEY, an advocate of the Appeal Court, son of H.E. Hussein Fakhry Pasha, K.C.M.G. (who was Minister of Public Works for thirteen years in the Cabinet which resigned recently), holds the diploma of the Khedivial School of Law, Cairo, and, prior to starting private practice in 1903, was for three years Lecturer on Criminal Law at the Police Officers' School. He has since been associated with Mr. Carton de Wiart, the well-known barrister. He is a Bey of the Mutamaiz degree. An enthusiastic sportsman, he is a member of the Automobile Club and of the Khedivial Yacht Club of Alexandria. He owns shooting grounds at Rhodes Island, and when visiting the Archipelago he makes his headquarters on his steam yacht *Titania*, a trim little vessel of some 360 tons register. One of his favourite hobbies is the rearing of sporting dogs.

ISKENDAR AMOUN BEY, who is now practising at the Cairo Bar, was formerly for many years in the service of the Government. He joined the Ministry of Finance when twenty-three years of age, first as sub-chief of the Interpreting Circle, and afterwards as interpreter at Tantah. After the revolts at Alexandria he was appointed Secretary to the Commission which sat to examine the criminal charges brought against the ringleaders; and a year later he was transferred to Cairo as Secretary to the Prosecutor-General. He next became a substitute in the Parquet Court, and then Sub-Chief of the Parquet, in which capacity he served for two years at Tantah and for about the same period in Alexandria. For the ensuing four years he was one of the judges of the Native Tribunal at Alexandria, after which he proceeded to Assiout and discharged for two years the duties of Vice-President of the Native Tribunal. Finally, until ill-health compelled him to retire in 1904, he served as a Judge of the First Order at Gizeh, Benha, and Cairo. A son of the late Antoine Bey Amoun, he was born at Mount Lebanon in 1856, and was educated at Beyrout. On leaving school at the age of eighteen, he entered the Government service at Mount Lebanon, his uncle being Vice-Governor of that district. He has inherited considerable landed estate in Syria, and, besides farming extensively, he has devoted much attention to the rearing of silkworms. He finds his chief recreation in literature, and he has assisted in the translation of the well-known Arabic work, "El-Gabarti," into French, and of Jules Verne's "Voyage to the Centre of the Earth," into Arabic. His original work includes several poems in his own tongue.

DAOUD BEY AMOUN, natif du Mont Liban, a été établi au Caire depuis environ deux ans, comme avocat et apparut bientôt dans plusieurs cas de notables. Il prit part à l'acquittement de deux hommes soupçonnés avoir pris part dans l'épisode du brigandage de Mohamed Khalif, le journal *Al Moyad*, les défendait aussi contre le *Al Mokattam* pour diffamation. Né en 1868 et éduqué à Beyrouth, il entra au service du Gouvernement de Tunis à l'âge de 17 ans, 5 ans plus tard il vint au Caire, il y étudia le droit, et alla toutes les années en France, où il y reçut son titre de Licencié en Droit, avec les honneurs de l'Université d'Aix. En même temps il s'assura le degré correspondant à l'Ecole de Droit du Gouvernement au Caire. Comme son frère, Iskander Amoun Bey, il aime les œuvres littéraires, il a écrit plusieurs articles et nouvelles. Il est le Secrétaire de la Société des Ottoman Brothers, et Vice-président de la Société du Liban. Pour les services rendus à Tunis il reçut la décoration the "Iftihar," et a été aussi créé Bey de seconde classe. Il a un fils et une fille.

SELIM MICHAEL BEY BOUSTROS, qui a exercé le droit pendant quelques années au Caire, s'occupe beaucoup de travaux littéraires et, en dehors d'un journal légal *El Hoconc* qu'il édite, il a publié un roman en langue arabe du titre de *Gharaib el Akdaar*. Il est né en Syrie en 1864, et a fait ses études au Collège Patriarcal et à la Mission Américaine de Beyrouth. Arrivé au Caire à l'âge de 22 ans, il fit son droit dans l'étude d'un avocat bien connu, et à l'Ecole française de Droit, et subit ensuite un examen correspondant à celui qui est requis pour l'obtention de la Licence en Droit. Il établit son étude d'avocat au Caire, et parmi nombre de causes importantes qu'il a plaidées signalons le procès pour outrages intenté par Abou el Houda el Sayedi, un des Conseillers religieux du Sultan, contre le journal *El Moyad*. Fils de Michael Boustros, agriculteur et propriétaire foncier de Syrie, Selim Bey est lui-même gros propriétaire, et possède des domaines dans les provinces de Galiobieh et Gharbieh. Il a beaucoup voyagé, surtout en France et en Turquie.

JOSEPH ASSAF BEY is a native of Lebanon, where his family has been settled for four hundred years. After studying science in Rome he commenced to read law, in which subject he graduated in 1878. Coming to Cairo, he was for one year chancellor of the French Consulate at Zagazig, and then for two years postal agent. He entered the fields of journalism as editor-manager of the *Mahroussa*, a paper published in Alexandria. Two years later he was taken into partnership by the late Selim Faris, a Turkish politician, and edited the newspaper *Cairo*. Eventually he founded a legal paper, entitled *Jurisprudence*, and published in French. This paper is still in existence, but three years after its establishment its contents were published in Arabic. Since 1900 Joseph Assaf Bey has also been practising as an advocate before the Civil and Criminal Courts. Besides writing many poems in Arabic and contributing articles to various journals he has rendered several European works into Arabic. Chief among his translations may be mentioned Jules Verne's popular book "Round the World in Eighty Days," and a well-known French legal work entitled "L'Esprit de Droit." These and several other of the Bey's translations are now used in the local schools. For his various services he has been decorated with the orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh. A son of Mr. Hamman Assaf, he is forty-eight years of age. His chief recreations are travel and literature. He makes a point of visiting Europe every summer, and he is conversant with Latin, Italian, French, English, Syriac, Greek, and Arabic.

AHMED NAGUIB BARRADAH is a prosperous native lawyer, and since 1906 he has held the appointment of Lecturer on Criminal Law at the Cairo Police School. The Barradah family, came originally from Fez, and has been well-known both in Morocco and Egypt for many years. Amed Barradah was born in Cairo in 1880, and was educated in the local Government schools, passing as Licencié en Droit in 1903. He has since practised as an advocate, with offices in Abdin Street, and he is one of the few native lawyers who speak the English langauge fluently. He is an active member of the Egyptian Nationalist Party. He assisted in instituting many of the popular schools, which now exist in the towns of Egypt. He is a lover of the country, and is the owner of various small properties, which he inherited from his father, Abdul Fattah Barradah, a former merchant in Cairo.

ALEXOS Z. JOANNIDES, has already won a prominent position in Greek legal circles, although he has been practising as an advocate in Cairo only a year. A son of Zachargia Joannides, a well-known banker, now retired, and of Aphrodite Kokosli, of the ancient family of Kokosli, he was born at Volo in 1880, and received his primary education in his native country. After the massacres at Thanee he volunteered for service in Crete, and took part in the revolutions which broke out in August, 1896, and May, 1906, receiving in recognition the diploma of the National Revolutionary Assembly. He went afterwards to Germany, where, in 1902, he took his degree as Doctor of Law at the Leipzig University,

and then continued his studies in Paris and London. He returned to Greece in 1904, and was engaged in journalism and in different parliamentary campaigns, until the latter end of 1907, when he decided to come to Cairo. His offices are situated in the Egyptian Telegraph buildings.

SAOURIS BEY MICKAËL se retira du service du Gouvernement en 1887 pour pratiquer le droit, et a été établi depuis avocat, à l'Abbassieh. Il s'est engagé dans de nombreux cas, peut-être les cas les plus difficiles ceux au Fayoum. Il a fait son éducation au Caire, à l'école Copte. A l'âge de vingt-deux ans il entra au département de la Daira Sanieh à Minieh (province) comme interprète. Quatre ans plus tard, il fait transféré comme tel au Ministère des Finances. En même temps, il étudia le droit, et en 1889 il passa avec succès ses examens. Il a du terrain à Gizeh et au Fayoum, et il se voua à l'agriculture. Très recommandé au Khédive, ce dernier le créa Bey de second degré. Saouris Bey, natif d'Assiout, est dans sa quarante—troisième année.

HAGOP ILMI ASSADOURIAN, B.A., LL.D., left Turkey in 1897 in consequence of the feeling which existed at that time against the Armenians, and came to Egypt, where he was enrolled as an Advocate of the Mixed Court at Alexandria, and subsequently, in 1901, of the Native High Court of Appeal. He is authorised to plead also before the Consular Courts. He speaks several languages, including Arabic, French, Turkish, English, Armenian, and Italian. A son of the late Assadour Assadourian, an engineer, he was born at Biridjik, a dependence of Aleppo, in 1867, and was educated at the American "Central Turkey College" at Cicilia, Little Armenia. He graduated as B.A. in 1886, and three years afterwards he obtained from the Imperial Ottoman University of Law his diploma of Law, with the LL.D. degree. He has been married twice—first to Eliza, a daughter of G. Stephanian, of Aleppo, and afterwards to Rose, a daughter of A. Maklouf, of Mount Lebanon. Mr. Assadourian is President of the King Edward VII. Masonic Lodge, and is a judge of the Court of Cassation of Egyptian Masonry. Mr. Assadourian's forefathers were many of them Governors of Armenia, and the family had its origin in the race of Ardzrouni, a branch of the Arsacites. His grandfather, Prince Hagop, surnamed "Sheikh Yacoub" by the Arabs, was the last Armenian prince of Bir (now Biridjik), a district in the basin of the Euphrates, forming part of the eastern frontier of Mesopotamia and the western limit of Cilicia. His great-grandfather, Prince George, surnamed by the Turks, "Sari Giawour," or the "Yellow Christian," to indicate his energy, was the military chief of the Armenian volunteers, and was killed in the battle in which the revolting troops under Aly Pasha Tébélen were dislodged from the fortress of Bir (1820). In 1895, Mr. Assadourian took part in the Armenian revolution at Zeitoun, in the province of Aleppo, and assisted in the defence of the surviving European clergy of Yenidje-Kaleb Monastery, whose chief, Padre Salvatore, was massacred by the Turkish Army. On the intervention of the European Powers, a treaty of peace recognised the partial independence of those regions. The Chief of the Revolutionary "Hentchakiste" Party gave Mr. Assadourian the surname of the "Saviour of Zeïtun."

MORCOS HANNA, qui a été attaché aux barreaux du Caire et d'Alexandrie comme avocat, pendant les quatre dernières années, avait pratiqué autrefois sa profession à Assiout. Né au Caire en 1872, il fit ses études à Montpellier et à Paris, et obtint le grade de licencié en droit ainsi qu'un diplôme d'Economie Politique. Cinq ans après son retour en Egypte, il fut engagé comme Substitut auprès des parquets de Sohag, Assiout, Minieh et Alexandrie, puis il se consacra à la pratique de sa profession d'avocat. Il plaida dans la fameuse affaire de corruption de Sirgani, et a été mêlé à beaucoup d'autres affaires intéressantes. C'est un orateur qui s'occupe de questions sociales ; il a également publié plusieurs brochures ainsi qu'un ouvrage sur l'organisation des Pouvoirs Publics en Egypte. Amateur de voyages, il passe fréquemment ses congés en Europe. Il a été un des représentants égyptiens au Congrès de Droit tenu à Paris en 1900, et il a pris part à plusieurs assemblées similaires en Egypte. Il est membre du Comité de l'Université Egyptienne, et du Haut Conseil Copte. Son père, feu Hanna Morcos, a été pendant quelque temps au service du Gouvernement, et en dernier lieu fut admis dans les ordres à Tantah.

SELIM K. BOUSTANY, Effendi, author of a book on "The Finances of Egypt from an International point of view," and of numerous articles and reviews in Arabic, is a native of Syria, where his father, the late Khattar Boustany, was a well-known landed proprietor. Born in 1873, he was educated at Beyrout and afterwards in Paris, where he graduated as Licencié en Droit in 1895, and as Doctor of Law in 1897. On his arrival in Egypt he was at once permitted to practice before the Egyptian courts.

MICHEL AND PHILIPPE NASSIF, sons of Gabriel Bey Nassif, a judge in the Native Tribunals, have both elected to follow the legal profession, and have been working in partnership in Cairo since 1903. The elder brother, Michel, was born in July, 1880, and was educated at Zagazig, and at the College des Fréres, Cairo, and after three years at the Mixed Courts he proceeded to Paris, where, in 1900, he passed his licenciate's examination. On his return to Cairo he joined the late Nikola Bey Thomas, one of the leading lawyers of his time, and remained with him until joined by his brother three years later. In 1908 he married a daughter of Count Chedid, but his wife died shortly after giving birth to his only son. Philippe was born on December 1st, 1882, and was educated at the same schools as his brother. In his examination for his Secondary Certificate, he came out second in all Egypt, and on leaving school he entered Government service, attaining the position of Clerk in the Cairo Court of Appeal. In the meantime he studied law, and at the age of twenty he passed as Licencié en Droit at the University of Aix, France. The brothers are entitled to practise before all local and mixed courts, judicial and consular, and are legal advisers to many members of the Khedivial family. They were retained with others by the plaintiffs in the case brought by the Daira Sanieh against the Government, and are now advisers to Prince Ibrahim Pasha Hilmy in the case against the present Khedive in connection with the Wakf of Cavalla.

MAHMOUD BEY FAHMY, who was admitted to the Bar of the Mixed Tribunals and Court of Appeal, Cairo, in 1905, is legal adviser to the *Lewa* newspaper, and, when Sheikh Abd-el-Aziz Chaouiche, the editor, was charged with writing accusations against the Government, he successfully defended the case. A son of H.E. Hussein Pasha Fahmy, a former Vice-Admiral in the Navy, he was born in Alexandria in 1878, and educated at the Tewfikieh School, Cairo. He studied law at the Paris University, taking his degree as a licencié in 1900. In the following year he obtained the Egyptian degree, and has since been in practice in Cairo.

MOHAMED ZAKI ABD-EL-MÉGUID, licencié de l'école de droit du Gouvernement du Caire, a pratiqué comme avocat ces six dernières années et avant était associé pendant quatre ans avec Omar Loutfi Bey, avocat local, très connu. Il fut engagé dans la défense de Zari Katchian, assassinat qui a fait tant de bruit il y a trois ans ; il défendait l'accusé. Il fit une étude spéciale du droit, relatif à la Tutelle ; il écrit un livre maintenant, traitant ce sujet. Plusieurs personnes lui doivent leur liberté du joug imposé par leurs tuteurs peu scrupuleux. Fils du Cheikh Abd-el-Méguid et descendant d'une ancienne famille arabe qui descend du Prophète, Mohammed Zaki est né à Sharkieh province, et est maintenant dans sa 34me année.

ABOU 'L. NASR BEY, avocat devant les Tribunaux Indigènes, Mixtes et Charei (Mehkemeh), fut autrefois Professeur d'Arabe et de Droit Musulman à l'Ecole Normale de Dar-el-Ouloum ; en 1892 il fut choisi par le Gouvernement Egyptien et le Gouvernement Français pour occuper la chaire de Professeur d'Arabe à l'école des langues Orientales à Paris. Pendant son séjour à Paris il étudia le droit à la Faculté de Droit, passa son examen de licence en 1897 et subit ensuite les épreuves des examens du Doctorat-es-sciences juridiques. Il passa ensuite quelques temps à Cambridge, chez le Dr. Brown, Professeur à l'Université de cette ville. A son retour au Caire, en 1899, il entra dans le barreau et édita une revue arabe nommée "Al Mawsouate" (Revue encyclopédique), mais il quitta ce poste en 1900. Il a été un des fondateurs du Journal *Al Garida* et il conserve encore son siège dans le Conseil d'Administration de ce journal. M. Abou 'L. Nasr Bey est natif de la province de Menoufieh et est agé de 41 ans ; il a reçu son instruction à l'Université d'El Azhar et à l'Ecole Normale de Dar-el-Ouloum. Il a hérité quelques biens de son père, feu le Cheikh Ahmad Abou 'L. Nasr, mais il se consacre plus spécialement aux occupations de sa profession, aux voyages et à l'étude de la philosophie.

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR CORPS.

THE CAPITULATIONS.

By JAMES HARRY SCOTT, Cairo, LL.D., Author of "The Law Affecting Foreigners in Egypt as the Result of the Capitulations."

THE student of Modern Egypt is met at every turn by the abuses of the capitulations, and it is sometimes difficult to obtain any clear understanding of what is meant by the expression. In the first place, the word "capitulation" is not here used in its ordinary sense of an agreement of surrender, usually after some military defeat; and, in the second place, the capitulations have their good side, for without them the development of Egypt would have been greatly retarded, if not impossible. The fact is that the system known in Egypt as the capitulations is a system perfectly familiar at a certain stage in the civilisation of a very large number of states, although it may not always be described by the same name; but it is a system which has long been discarded in states of European civilisation.

The capitulations were, in their origin, grants of certain privileges freely made by certain independent sovereigns to the merchants of friendly states, with the object of encouraging commerce. There is at all times a prejudice in regard to foreigners, a feeling of distrust, if not of absolute dislike; and in states which are not fully civilised, and at times when foreign intercourse was not as common as it is now, this distrust amounted to positive hostility. Under such circumstances, commerce with foreigners was beset with many difficulties. Again, from the purely legal point of view, the law of a state in the earlier stages of its civilisation, is a law which can only be used by the citizens of that state; just as the earlier Roman Law was the law of the Roman citizen, and could only apply to Roman citizens. But, just in the same way as Rome found it absolutely necessary to its world-wide commerce that the foreigner (the peregrinus) should have his life and property secured and his contracts sanctioned by the State; so, in other states, a dual system of law grew up, on the one hand the ordinary law applicable to citizens, and, by its side, a second system applicable to foreigners resident within its territory. In Rome, at the commencement of the Empire, a special system of Courts was set up, presided over by a special judge, the Prætor Peregrinus, who administered the Roman Law applicable to foreigners, the Jus Gentium. International Law, in the modern sense, is of very recent growth; and intercourse on a footing of absolute legal equality between subject and foreigner has not yet been attained.

Egypt was a part of the Roman Empire, and it was not until that great empire broke up that this problem assumed importance for her. The principal trade of Egypt, as is the case to-day, was connected with the commerce passing from the Far East to Europe, a trade in which foreigners must participate: the capitulations were originally designed to facilitate this trade. So long as Rome held Egypt, and the whole of the eastern shores of the Mediterranean in its power, there was no question of *foreign* commerce; all the trade routes were in her own hands.

There were three great trade routes between East and West in ancient times, as there will be again. To the north, where now runs the Siberian Railway, was the route followed by Marco Polo in 1296; along it the trade of China and the Northern Pacific was brought by caravan to the very gates of Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire. Further south, there were two rival routes from India and the Southern Pacific: the first by the Persian Gulf and the Tigris and Euphrates, and thence by caravan to the Syrian ports; the second by the Red Sea to the Gulf of Suez, a much shorter land route. We read that:—"In this citie (Cairo) is great store of merchandize, especially pepper, and nutmegs, which came thither out of the East India." So long as Rome had colonies as far south as Aden and Socotra, there could be no difficulty. It was when the Western Roman Empire crumbled away, and when Egypt was lost to the Eastern Empire by the Arab conquest, that the problem required solution. For three centuries the question was in abeyance and commercial Egypt slept.

The revival of trade in Egypt was due to the rulers of the Fatimid dynasty. The northern coast of Africa was in their hands, their territory "stretched from the Syrian desert and the Orontes to the borders of Morocco. Of a different religious sect to the orthodox Caliphs of Baghdad, the commercial rivalry was intense, but the Red Sea was theirs, and Malta and Sicily; but above all they had a fleet worthy of a great commercial power: The naval power and European connections of the Fatimids introduced a new element into foreign policy, gave a stimulus to trade, and modified in various ways the civilization of Egypt and Syria."

The commercial policy of the Fatimids was adopted by Saladin and his successors; indeed, the capitulation granted by Saladin to the merchants of Pisa is still in existence. Foreign relations were, however, complicated at that time by the Crusades; although in the end it was these Crusades which largely influenced the opening up of the Eastern trade to Europe, and the earliest capitulations are due to the Christian rulers of Syria. The commercial prosperity of Egypt reached its zenith under the Mamelukes; and it is worth noticing in passing that the greatest warriors were the greatest builders, and that under them trade flourished. A strong army, and still more a strong fleet, were then as now the essentials of a world commerce. Of the Sultan Kala'un (1279-90) we read: "His passports to traders were in force as far as India and China, and he did all he could to develop the commerce of Egypt." Egypt really lost her independence when she lost her commercial prosperity; and that dates rather from the time when she was superseded by the Portuguese in the Indian Ocean, and not from the defeat of her army by the Ottomans in Syria, which followed a few years later.

The Cairo of this world-wide commercial prosperity is the "City of the Arabian Nights." The Khan of Mesrur, where the Christian merchant in the story of the Humpback stayed, plays a part in the capitulations and is described by Makrizi, the historian of Cairo of the Mamelukes, as "the most renowned and greatest of the khans." To understand the origin of the capitulations in Egypt, we must picture the "city of the Arabian Nights," best known to English readers through the writings of Stanley Lane-Poole, to whom I am indebted for the following figures illustrating the large revenues derived from the commerce through Egypt during the time of the Mameluke Sultans, 1250-1316. In the Red Sea, there were the ports of Suez, Tor, Kosseir, and Suakin; even Jeddah, the port of Mecca, was at this time in the hands of the Egyptian Sultans. At all these ports, the nominal import duties were 10 per cent. ad valorem, but we can well believe that they "were pressed beyond the customary tenth." In fact, one of the commonest causes of complaint which the early capitulations were designed to meet was that the foreign merchants might be freed from the overcharges and other vexations of the Customs officials. We read that "a single vessel clearing at Alexandria paid £21,000 in customs;" and that forty vessels from India and Persia paid £36,000 in duties to the Egyptian officials at Jeddah. There appears to have been a regular tariff war waged between the Egyptian and Arabian ports, but Egypt had the advantage over her rival in the shorter and more secure land passage from the Red Sea to Alexandria. Nor was it only the Government that benefited. The Arab merchant who bought the goods from the vessels on the Red Sea made a handsome profit by their sale in Cairo, and the same goods might pass through several hands before they were shipped on board the Italian ships at Alexandria. It was the Pisans and Venetians who held the greater part of this trade from Egypt to Europe, and, as we have already seen, the Pisans obtained a capitulation from Saladin in 1154, and the Venetians enjoyed special privileges from the time of El 'Adil in 1208. Zahir Beybass (1260-77) entered into commercial arrangements with James of Aragon and Alfonso of Seville; and there is a complete series of similar grants of privileges to the different Italian city States by the Sultans of Egypt down to the time of El Ghuri (1501-16), a series which for a time was continued in Egypt by the Ottomans.

The origin of the privileges, thus styled capitulations, was in Syria. From early times great numbers of pilgrims flocked to the Holy Land, and Harun el Rashid, the Abbasid Caliph, is said by Gibbon to have presented the keys of the Holy Sepulchre to the Emperor Charlemagne, placing all European pilgrims under his protection. On the decline of the Carlovingian Empire, the protection of Christian pilgrims passed into the hands of the Republic of Amalfi, who, at the same time, secured the trade with the East, and a colony was formed in Jerusalem and a khan built. The Venetians formed similar colonies after the year 991 in Constantinople, the Levant, and in North Africa.

It was the Crusaders, however, who reduced this policy of granting privileges to foreign residents to a definite legal system. Very soon it was realised that the true highway to Palestine was by sea, and the fleets of the Italian Republics played a very important part in the capture of the sea-port towns of Syria, and long supplied the necessary lines of communication with Europe. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa rendered invaluable assistance in the reduction of the Syrian seaports; but their assistance was not without its reward, for, in addition to a share in the booty, they stipulated for possession of a third of each town captured, with certain trading privileges, including exemption from local taxes and a reduction in customs dues. And when the kingdom of Jerusalem was set up and a code of feudal law established, the Assise of Jerusalem, they were granted entire freedom from this law, and were allowed to have their own judges applying their own law. The privileges thus established in favour of the Italian merchants in the Syrian towns were: the right to live in a particular quarter, exemption from the feudal taxes, reductions in the customs duties, exemption from the local feudal courts and laws, and the right to have their own judges, who applied their own national law. Cyprus and Constantinople followed suit, and this system of privileges became general throughout the Levant. Italian merchants set up colonies in the Levantine cities, enjoying possession of particular quarters as their own, in which they were governed by their own law and their own officers.

The earliest Egyptian capitulation of which I have seen a copy is that granted to Pisa by El Faiz, the last but one of the Fatimid Sultans. This was renewed by Saladin in 1173, and there exists from that date onwards a series of capitulations of varying interest and importance; Florence later taking the place of Pisa, with Venice as her chief, but not only, rival. The style of the earlier of these capitulations is rambling and without much sequence, but before the end of the Mameluke dynasty there are a number of clauses which always appear, and the whole is arranged systematically in clauses, each clause dealing with a particular grievance which is to be redressed, or a special right or privilege that is to be conferred. In the first part of the article, there is the complaint or the demand for a privilege; while the second promises redress or grants the privilege, and is usually in set words of style such as, "we ordain the execution of this caput," or "whereof we ordain the execution." It was from this style that the capitulations received their name. The word "capitulation" is derived from the Latin "caput" or "capitulum," a head or chapter. The documents were arranged in "heads," and each "head" conferred a right or redressed a grievance. Frequently, the clause began with these words, or with the Italian equivalent "capitolo," much in the same way as a modern law is divided up into "articles."

It is only necessary to read one of these earlier capitulations to realise that the word was not used in the modern sense of surrender. If concessions were made, it was by a superior to those who came to him and "begged that we would permit . . .", "they prayed us . . .", "they complained . . .", and the reason why "we heard such complaints, and ordained," their remedy was "our humanitie and gracious ingraffed disposition"—a "disposition" which was not a little assisted, even in later times, by very lavish presents. The very high-sounding titles with which these sultans delighted to describe themselves further indicate that if there was any surrender, it was not on their side: "I who am the Emperor, the asylum of justice and the King of kings, the centre of victory . . . the shadow of God upon earth . . ." There could be little doubt that if there was any capitulation in the popular modern sense, it was on the part of the foreign grantee.

If we take the capitulation of Kait Bey to the Florentines of 1488, we may divide it into two distinct parts, the one dealing with transitory abuses, usually at the hands of the officials of the Custom House; the other granting privileges which exist to this day. In regard to the first, a visitor to Egypt in the reign of Kait Bey describes how these officials insisted upon emptying the sacks of goods on to the road, so that the merchants were robbed by the crowds of beggars who hung about; and at this time there seems to have been in Alexandria three sets of Customs Houses in each of which the merchant had to pay duty; and their goods were often detained unduly. Again, when they desired to depart, they were subjected to further illtreatment, their rudders or sails being taken away until, presumably, the official interested was sufficiently bribed to give practique. But apart from these clauses redressing special grievances, there are a number of others which occur in all the capitulations, in more or less similar form. These latter resemble in all practical points the principal clauses of the capitulations of Palestine or Constantinople; they grant a right to enter the territory of Egypt, and to reside there and carry on trade there with perfect safety for person and property; the right to a quarter or "funduk"; freedom of religion; immunity from local jurisdiction, and the right to be judged by their own officials according to their own law, their successions being regulated by that law; and lastly special privileges in regard to taxes and customs dues.

We must remember that in the days of Saladin, and until the Crusaders were finally swept out of Palestine in 1291, the West was practically at war with Egypt and the Mahomedan world. But although there was this general state of war, rulers such as Saladin, El Adil, and El Kamil never cherished much animosity towards the Christian invaders. They recognised too fully the advantages of European commerce to allow all intercourse to be broken off. The condition of war, however, could not be altogether lost sight of, and we find that the Pisans were not "to give succor to the enemies of our kingdom, nor cause harm to any of our cities or castles, whether in the East or in the West." Even in Kait Bey's time, there was a cordon of sentries along the coast to give warning of the approach of any suspicious craft. Immediately such a vessel was sighted, a fast sailing dhow was sent out to intercept her, and if these suspicions were confirmed on closer examinations, carrier pigeons were sent back to the port officer who sent out the necessary ships of war. Under such circumstances, permission to enter the territory was necessary.

The funduk takes the place of the Syrian quarter. A funduk, khan, or wekala all seem to have been the same. On the ground floor there is a collection of warehouses and stalls, usually in an arcade surrounding a court, with stabling for animals. Above them is a gallery or a series of galleries with lodgings and stores. The court was approached by a passage leading at right angles from a very massive door, which, when closed, transformed the court into a place of considerable security. The ruins of many of these khans may still be seen in Cairo; but in Damascus and other cities of the East the khan is very much as it was centuries ago, while the great trade routes of Syria are dotted with the ruins of the huge fortresses which served a similar purpose at a distance from the towns. Such are the Khan Labban, the Khan Minieh, and the Khan et Tugar. In

Cairo, the best known to modern visitors is the Khan el Khalily, built by the Master of the Horse of Sultan Barkuk in 1400. There are two others built by Kait Bey which deserve to be better known on account of their artistic beauty. One is by the Bab el Nazir; the other near the El Azhar Mosque. Of the latter, Lane-Poole says: "Even as it is, one may call it almost a text-book of Saracenic decoration." There was also the Khan of Mesrur, immortalised by the "Arabian Nights." Of the Khan of Bilal, bu lt in the reign of Saladin's grand-nephew, Es Salih, Makrizy writes: "I used to enter this funduk and lo! around it were chests piled, little and great, so that only a small space was left in the middle, and these chests contained gold and silver enough to amaze one." As many as four thousand persons are said by the same authority to have lodged at one time in a wekala of Kesun. They were a great source of income, and it is little wonder that the people of Cairo built many of them. Lane, who visited Cairo in the reign of Mehemet Ali, says there were at that time about two hundred wekalas.

Such then were the funduks in which the foreign merchants lived, and the capitulation of Saladin allows the Pisans to "repair the funduk for their use." Within the funduk of his country the merchant dwelt in security under the protection of his Consul, who had his headquarters there. Here he might live as if he were in his own country, and when he died his property was distributed by his Consul according to his will, or, if there was no will, according to his national law. The Pisans were allowed by Saladin to have their own church, and frequently they were freed from the trying sumptuary laws, which must have proved very irksome to the ordinary Christian. In Egypt, the Christian was frequently well treated, but there was never any very great certainty of this, so that it was well to provide for exemption from the irksome restrictions which were from time to time enforced against them. Certain of these sumptuary restrictions are found in the well-known volume of Mahomedan law, the "Hedaya":—"It is to be observed that the insignia incumbent upon them to wear is a woolen rope or cord tied round the waist, and not a silken belt. It is requisite that the wives of Zimmees be kept separate from the wives of Mussulmans, both in the public roads, and also in the baths; and it is also requisite that a mark be set upon their dwellings, in order that beggars who come to their doors may not pray for them. The learned have also remarked that it is fit that Zimmees be not permitted to ride at all, except in cases of absolute necessity; and if a Zimmee be then, of necessity, allowed to ride, he must alight whenever he sees any Mussulmans assembled; and if there be a necessity for him to use a saddle, it must be made in the manner of the panniers of an ass." The capitulations exempt the foreign Christians from the application of these regulations. Saladin allowed the Pisans to have their own church, and they were not to be disturbed on their way there, nor during the service. "But they may observe their law even as the precepts of God and their laws ordain." A Catholic pilgrim visiting Alexandria writes that he celebrated Mass in the funduk of the Catalans.

The foreign merchant was not under the jurisdiction of the local Courts. Saladin orders his judges not to "occupy themselves with any litigation or matter between the merchants without their consent." Kait Bey says that disputes between Florentines can only be heard by the Florentine Consul, "in accordance with the legal custom of the Florentines." Even disputes between subjects and foreigners were treated exceptionally, as they were to be heard "in the tribunal of the president of the custom house." The national law of a deceased foreigner was also to govern his succession; this was the application of the ordinary rule of Mahomedan law in regard to Musta'min, or non-Mahomedans resident within Mahomedan territory in virtue of a passport granted by the Imam. The merchants were also exempt from the payment of all taxes other than customs dues, and the customs dues were themselves placed on a fixed basis, and all abuses at the hands of the officials strongly discouraged. The principal taxes paid by unbelievers resident in Mahomedan territory were the Land Tax and the Capitation Tax, the first of which might amount to as much as 50 per cent. of the revenue derived from the land. Even a Musta'min became liable for these taxes after a year's residence. In consequence, the capitulations required expressly to exempt foreigners from the payment of these and other equally burdensome exactions.

This system continued in Egypt for some time after the conquest of the country by the Turks in 1516, although her commerce soon decreased as a result of the discovery of the Cape route to India and the East. Alexandria is thus described by an English traveller who visited the country in 1580:—"It is certain that this haven of Alexandria is one of the chiefest havens in the world, for hither come to traffique people of every Nation, and all sorts of vessels which goe round about the citie. It is more inhabited by strangers, merchants and Christians, than by men of the countrey which are but a few in number. Within the citie are five Fontechi, that is to say, one of the Frenchmen, where the consul is resident, and this is the fairest and most commodious of all the rest. Of the other foure, two belong to the Venetians, one to the Raguseans, and the fourth to the Genoueses. . . . It is to be also understood that all the Christians dwell within their Fontechi, and every evening at the going downe of the sunne, they which are appointed for the office goe about and shut all the gates of the saide Fontechi outward, and the Christians shut the same within; and so likewise they doe on the Friday (which is the Moores and the Turkes Sabboth) till their devotions be expired, and by this means all parties are secure and voide of feare: for in so doing the Christians may sleepe quietly and not feare robbing, and the Moores neede not doubt whiles they sleepe or pray, that the Christians should make any tumult, as in times past has happened."

After the conquest of Egypt by the Turks, the centre of interest shifted from Cairo to Constantinople. We have already seen how capitulations were granted by the Christian Emperors to the merchants of the Italian and Adriatic States. This policy was continued down to the fall of Constantinople, and on the very day on which the Mahomedan conqueror entered Constantinople, the Genoese received a capitulation, and similar privileges were granted to the Venetians in the following year. Both states had, in fact, been in receipt of privileges at the hands of the Ottomans for some years previous to the fall of Constantinople. Other states followed, including Florence and Catalonia, Poland in 1489, and Russia in 1515. In all these capitulations there was nothing that was not in conformity with the Egyptian practice. The greater part of the first French capitulation of 1535 is on similar lines; but there is in it a new element which was destined to revolutionise entirely the system of capitulations.

The earlier capitulations, whether granted by Mahomedans or Christians, whether in relation to Egypt or to any of the other Mediterranean states, were essentially commercial. This essential was now to be modified by the addition of a political element. The origin of the French capitulation of 1535 was political, and was intended as a secret alliance between the Turks and French against their common enemy, Austria. Henceforth, the political rivalries were to predominate, and each state was to strive against its rivals to obtain greater privileges, and one ambassador was to intrigue against his colleagues, sometimes even having their privileges cancelled for a time.

The first and most important source of intrigue was the claim to "protect" the merchants of other states. France claimed that she had the right to protect the merchants of all states excepting those of Venice, and in 1554 successfully opposed the attempted renewal of the Genoese capitulation, and of that of Florence in 1578. Spain and Portugal, the great maritime powers of this time had no capitulation. They had no need of such privileges, as they commanded the routes to the Pacific by the Atlantic and by the Cape of Good Hope. The trade of England with the East had been passing through a period of depression, but revived in 1578 when Queen Elizabeth received a capitulation from the Turkish Sultan, the Levant Company being granted their charter in 1581. This first English capitulation was a severe blow to the French claim to protection, and it appears to have been revoked at the instigation of the French ambassador, but only to be renewed in 1583. From this date the rivalry between the two states was acute. At first, the struggle was for the right to protect the merchants of Holland; but eventually the French preferred to help Holland in obtaining privileges of her own rather than see her under the protection of England. By the nineteenth century the controversy had lost much of its interest, as all the European states, except Switzerland, had obtained capitulations; but we still find the claim put forward in the last French grant of 1740.

This claim to protect foreign merchants must be distinguished from two other claims of "protection." The first of these was to protect individual Turkish subjects; the second, religious protection. Neither of these come within the scope of this article, but require to be mentioned as they served as a further excuse for political rivalries. What made these rivalries so dangerous to the original idea of the capitulations was that the capitulations had always been considered as unilateral grants made personally by the ruler; in consequence, they required to be renewed on the accession of each new Sultan, and changes in the Turkish throne were frequent. On the death of each ruler, the whole question was opened up anew, and one state bid against another. There were seven renewals of the English capitulations between 1583 and 1675.

The later Ottoman capitulations really consisted of two distinct parts; the first similar to the original grants of privileges, and in accordance with the rights of Musta'min; the second, variable and developing as the years advanced, but for the most part dealing with purely commercial matters, though also referring to the question of civil and religious protection. The question of civil

protection was dealt with by the Ottoman Law of Protection of 1863 and by the Ottoman Law of Nationality of 1869. The commercial clauses gradually developed into commercial treaties in the modern sense. There are two series of these commercial treaties granted by Turkey. The first is about the year 1838, the second about 1861. Egypt, after 1883, entered into commercial treaties with practically all the maritime states of Europe.

The original privileges of the early capitulations remained in all essential points the same as those granted by the rulers of Egypt, save for the natural development due to wider intercourse and a development in the administrative and judicial institutions of the State. The right for merchants to enter into Turkish territory and trade there, and the reduction of the customs dues are matters which now fall within the scope of Commercial Treaties. Freedom as to dress and religion are not likely to cause much difficulty in modern times. The four privileges remaining are, however, of considerable interest. They are the privileges of jurisdiction, legislation, taxation, and inviolability of domicile. Down to the nineteenth century, there was little change in these, except that, owing to the increased number of rival foreign communities, it became necessary to regulate disputes arising between foreigners of different nationalities. During the last century Turkey was the scene of a number of constitutional reforms; and European institutions, both administrative and judicial, were set up as a result of these reforms, the most important of these being based on the two great charts, the Hatti Sherif Gulhanı, and the Hatti Humayoun. This stage in the constitutional development of Turkey is best known as the Tanzimat.

The privilege of jurisdiction may be divided into three heads according as the case in dispute was between:—(*a*) Two persons of the same nationality; (*b*) A foreigner and a native; (*c*) Foreigners of different nationalities. (*a*) From the earliest times, disputes between merchants of the same nationality were tried by the judges of the foreigners, and they were outside the competence of the Local Courts. This rule was continued by the Ottoman capitulations, and is the rule in Egypt to-day, except when the dispute is in reference to immovable property. (*b*) In the time of Kait Bey civil disputes between foreigners and natives were tried by the President of the Custom House, with an appeal to the sovereign himself. The earlier Ottoman capitulations made a distinction in reference to civil and commercial disputes between natives and foreigners according as the value in dispute was less or more than 4,000 aspers. The former were to be tried by the Local Courts, the latter by the Imperial Divan or Privy Council. In the nineteenth century, mixed Commercial Courts were instituted in all the more important commercial centres of the Empire, including Alexandria. Each had a bench of five Judges, of whom two were Europeans. These Courts heard all commercial cases between foreigners and natives, and all civil cases of a value greater than 1,000 piastres; in all other civil cases between foreigners and natives the Local Courts were competent, but the consular dragoman of the foreigner had to be present throughout the hearing of the case. The first recorded attempt to deal with criminal actions against foreigners was in the French capitulation of 1535, which provided that they should not be heard by the ordinary Local Courts, but should be brought before the Sultan or "his principal Lieutenant." The English capitulation of 1675 provided that such cases should be decided diplomatically, while the majority of later capitulations give competence to the Local Courts, but if the accused is a foreigner his consular dragoman must be present during the hearing of the case, and must sign the sentence.

In regard to the third class of cases, (*c*) disputes between foreigners of different nationalities, the question is not provided for in the earlier capitulations, and it was not till the beginning of the eighteenth century that we find mention of it. The first procedure adopted was to submit such disputes to arbitration, the ambassadors of the parties acting as arbiters. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, there appears to have been a choice between two procedures: either the plaintiff might bring his action before the Consul of the defendant, in accordance with the maxim, "*Actor sequitur forum rei*"; or the parties might agree to have their dispute settled by a commission consisting of three members—two chosen by the defendant's embassy, and the third by the ambassador of the plaintiff. The French Courts, however, refused to recognise the legality of the second procedure, and, in consequence, the former became the general rule.

There were thus in Turkey, in later times, three sets of courts for the trial of cases in which foreigners were parties—the Consular Courts, the Mixed Commercial Courts, and the Local Courts; but these Local Courts were no longer the ordinary Mahomedan courts, but special Courts set up by the reforms of the Tanzimat. A distinction has to be made between cases as to disputes about ownership and contract, &c., on the one hand, and cases, on the other, which refer to questions of pure personal law, such as status and capacity, questions of marriage, guardianship and succession, and matters of a similar nature, which, for convenience, may be classified as Personal Statute. In cases of Personal Statute between two Turkish subjects, the question of religion at once arose, for such matters are of the religious law, and are decided by the religious courts. It was, therefore, only logical that a similar rule should be applied to foreigners, and we find that actions in reference to Personal Statute between foreigners of the same nationality were tried by their Consul, and if the parties were of different nationality by the defendant's Consul.

The privilege of legislation consisted in this—that the Consular Courts could only decide disputes in accordance with their national law, while the Local Courts could not apply the sacred Sharia, but only the Kanoon introduced by the Tanzimat. The privilege of inviolability of domicile is defined in the capitulation of 1740, and forbids the Turkish officials from entering the domicile of a foreigner except in cases of necessity, and even then only in the presence of the foreigner's Ambassador. The law of 1867, which granted to foreigners the right to own immovable estate in the Ottoman Dominions, defines "domicile" so as to include not only the house, but its gardens and outhouses. This privilege is a necessary corollary of the privilege of jurisdiction, for unless the foreigner were protected from the executive, the other safeguards accorded to him would secure him but scanty protection. In virtue of the privilege of taxation, the foreign resident was exempt from all local taxes.

Before leaving the capitulations of Turkey and turning once more to Egypt, it is necessary to note two points of importance. At the end of the nineteenth century the capitulations ceased to be unilateral and personal grants, and became bilateral by being embodied in treaties. Thus, Article 4 of the Treaty of the Dardanelles, entered into between Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, on January 5, 1809, stipulates that:—"The Treaty of Capitulations agreed upon in the Turkish year 1086 (A.D. 1675). . . . and the other privileges (Intimazat) equally established by acts at subsequent periods, shall continue to be observed and maintained as if they had suffered no interruption." The second point is that the privileges accorded to one nation apply equally to all others in virtue of "the most favoured nation clause," which was always included in later grants.

Egypt remained an ordinary province of Turkey from 1516 to the beginning of the nineteenth century, but, owing to the ambitious policy of Mehemet Ali, it acquired a very exceptional position, which, for all practical purposes, amounted to independence. From this time onwards the capitulations in Egypt and Turkey developed upon divergent lines. The policy of Mehemet Ali was to favour the Europeans, and, in consequence, the privileges of the capitulations were very greatly extended in practice. Thus, in regard to religion, the foreigner in Egypt is subjected to no restrictions whatever, provided he confines his worship within doors; while domicile is extended to include his place of business, though by recent legislation the presence of the Consul is not necessary in certain cases, notice being sufficient.

The difference between the capitulation system of Egypt and that of Turkey was most noticeable in reference to jurisdiction. The Egyptian practice in civil and commercial cases had come to be the universal application of the rule "*Actor sequitur forum rei.*" The adoption of this practice would seem to have been forced upon Egypt by circumstances. The Mixed Commercial Court in Alexandria could not inspire confidence, since a legal qualification does not appear to have been requisite in its judges, the president at one time being an arsenal guard, who was in turn succeeded by a railway inspector and an admiral. The expense of the journey to Constantinople made it impossible to accept the jurisdiction of the Imperial Divan; and if the Local Courts were to try the case, the Consul must give his consent, since the presence of his dragoman was necessary during the hearing of the case, and execution was impossible without his active participation. The case had, in fact, to be informally tried by the Consul. The hearing before the Local Court was, in law, the important part of the procedure, but soon appeared, in practice, to be a useless and unnecessary formality. A natural result of this was to withdraw the foreigner still further from the application of the Local Courts and local law, and so to increase the scope of the privilege of jurisdiction and legislation.

The Reforms introduced in 1876 are described in another chapter. There was little exaggeration in the statement of Nubar that, "The judicial system is no longer based on the capitulations. Of these capitulations, there is nothing left but the name." Certainly the new system went far beyond the scope of the early privileges we have described, nor was this new system always in the interests of the foreign residents themselves. After nine years of negotiations, Turkey and the States which enjoyed capitulation privileges, at last consented to the institution of Mixed Courts, applying special Codes, based, for the most part, on the Code Napoleon. The privilege of jurisdiction then came to

be :--(1) In cases between foreigners of the same nationality, their Consul was competent, except in actions in reference to immoveable property. (2) In disputes between foreigners of different nationality; (*a*) if the case was of the Personal Statute, the Defendant's Consul; (*b*) if the case was civil or commercial, the Mixed Courts; (*c*) if penal, the accused's Consul. (3) In an action between a foreigner and a native, (*a*) the Mixed Courts were competent in civil and commercial cases, and (*b*) in penal cases, the Native Courts were competent if the accused was a native, and the Consul if a foreigner was accused. In actions between natives, the Native Courts were competent, unless the case referred to Personal Statute, in which case the Courts of the Religious Communities were competent.

The mere statement of this complicated system of Courts is sufficient to show the difficulties which the Egyptian Government has to contend with, and Lord Cromer's suggested reform was the amalgamation of the Native and Mixed Courts, and the reduction of the Consular jurisdiction to cases of Personal Statute; foreigners being safeguarded by having foreign judges on the Bench, and by retaining some part, at any rate, of their privilege of inviolability of domicile.

The privilege of legislation had been very greatly modified by the institution of the Mixed Courts and the promulgation of the Mixed Codes. They were still subject to their national law when their case came before the Consular Court, but a special Egyptian system of law applied to them when they appeared before the Mixed Courts. Had it been possible to legislate for all time, no difficulty need have arisen, but human laws are at best imperfect and require to be changed repeatedly, especially in a country rapidly developing from a semi-barbaric personal system of government into a more or less constitutional monarchy. The Mixed Codes soon required to be modified; the problem was, how should this be done? The present practice is as follows: if a new law is to be enacted and it is to apply to foreigners, or if an existing law is to be modified, the draft as approved by the Egyptian Government is submitted to an International Commission representing *all* the States with capitulation rights in Egypt. The law cannot apply to foreigners until it has been approved *in every detail* by every member of this Commission, and has received the consent of the Government of each of the foreign States. It is no exaggeration to say that the simplest and most necessary legal reforms often take years to introduce, and that they may come back from the International Commission modified beyond all recognition; and yet this is the only system of legislation for foreign residents in Egypt, except in reference to police regulations, where the maximum penalty to be imposed by the Courts does not exceed a fine of £E1, or seven days' imprisonment! These police regulations do not require to be submitted to the International Commission; it is sufficient that they should receive the approval of the Judges of the Mixed Courts sitting in General Assembly.

A similar rule applies to the taxation of foreigners. Not only may a foreigner not be taxed without the consent of his own Government, but, further, the consent of *all* the Powers is necessary. "It is impossible to impose a direct tax on an Englishman, a Frenchman, or a German, without obtaining the consent of the King of Sweden and the President of the United States!" This has been one of the greatest administrative difficulties in the way of the British advisers of the Egyptian Government, for to them the principle of equality of taxation, as between native and foreigner, seemed to be essential. Lord Dufferin reported in 1883: "There is no doubt that the fact of foreigners in Egypt being exempt from taxation to which its inhabitants are subject is extremely galling to the native mind." The policy pursued ever since has been that all taxes should be paid by both foreigners and Egyptians. The Land Tax and the Customs duties had been paid by foreigners before the occupation; but, among a score of others, there were the House Tax, the Professional Tax, and the Stamp Tax, which were not paid by foreigners. The Powers gave their consent to the House Tax in 1883, and the necessary decree was promulgated the following year, only to meet fresh obstacles on the part of foreigners, so that it was not till 1887 that foreigners actually paid the tax. By the Convention of London of 1885 the Powers agreed that they "would accept the application to their subjects in the same manner as to natives, of the Stamp Tax and the Professional Tax, and would engage to undertake immediately in concert with the Egyptian Government the study of the draft laws establishing these two taxes." But the difficulties experienced by the Egyptian Government were so great that it was not till six years later that the law applying the Professional Tax to foreigners was promulgated, and even then "within less than a year it was thought better to abandon the measure altogether." Negotiations in regard to the Stamp Tax were not continued. These difficulties still continue, in spite of the greater friendliness evinced by the foreign Powers towards the British occupation, as is shown by the fact that it took fully two years to obtain the consent of the Powers to an increase from 8 per cent. to 10 per cent. in the House Tax in Cairo—an increase required to meet the cost of the installation of a much-needed system of drainage in that city.

The extent of the handicap under which the Government labours by this difficulty in regard to taxation cannot be fully realised by those not actually sharing in the labours of government. An instance, however, will help to make the position clearer. In modern States a system of Municipal Government is considered essential, but it is very necessary to the successful working of such institutions that the municipal authorities should have certain powers to impose taxes for local purposes. These powers cannot be conferred in Egypt without the consent of the foreign States. The position of Alexandria is exceptional. It is much more European than Egyptian, and yet the negotiations for the institution of a municipality lasted from 1883 to 1890. In half a dozen other towns there exists a Town Council of a sort, but in these towns the inhabitants must voluntarily consent to be taxed—a state of affairs which is probably unique in the world! In other towns, the Council merely administers the grants made to them from the central Government.

It is not too much to say that the development of Egypt is hindered in all directions by the capitulations as they exist to-day. The capitulations have done very valuable service in assisting towards the development of the country; but, in their present form, they are absolutely unsuited for dealing with modern conditions. They must be modified. It would probably be too dangerous to abolish them entirely. This modification is necessary in the interests of the foreigners themselves, for, without such modification, it is impossible to legislate adequately against such abuses as gambling, or to combat successfully against disease and infection, or to check crime. For the native, it is sufficient to say that no Parliament could exist and carry on its work successfully if every measure it passed, and every tax it imposed, had to be submitted to *all* the Parliaments of Europe and the United States of America before they could be applied to all the residents of Egypt.

The question of the reform of the capitulations has not received the attention it deserves from the native politician. The only scheme before the people is the outline of reform suggested by Lord Cromer in his final Report. The main principle of this scheme was to set up two Parliaments in Egypt—one for Egyptians, the other for foreigners—the members being *ex-officio*, nominated, or elected by their national communities. Laws to be applied to foreigners would require to be accepted by both Parliaments, a right of veto being reserved to the Egyptian and British Governments. The scheme may seem cumbersome to European minds, but it is obvious that it would be infinitely simpler than the system at present in existence. It is equally clear that the Powers will not give up the "privileges" exercised by their subjects unless they are convinced that the new system will fully guarantee the lives and liberties of those subjects. We cannot hope to remove all anomalies from the Egyptian system of Government, but "*gutta cavat lapidem non vi, sed semper cadendo.*"

SIR ELDON GORST.—To succeed to the *rôle* which Lord Cromer, as the power behind the Khedivial throne, played so brilliantly upon the stage of Egyptian politics for nearly a quarter of a century is an honour which many an able man might pardonably shrink from accepting. But Sir Eldon Gorst, the present British Minister, enjoyed the advantage of understudying the part for some years before he was called upon to fill it in 1907, and if the record of the past may serve as an index to the future his success is removed beyond the pale of doubt. Though his interpretation may differ in some respects from that of his predecessor it is not less in harmony with the spirit of the age.

Fortune smiled upon Sir Eldon Gorst from the outset of his career. The son of a distinguished father—the Right Hon. Sir John Eldon Gorst, P.C., M.P., K.C., M.A., LL.D., F.R.S., who was Solicitor-General in 1885-86, Under-Secretary for India from 1886 to 1891, Financial Secretary to the Treasury in 1891-92, and Vice-President of the Committee of the Council on Education from 1895 to 1902, he was educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, whence he emerged twentieth wrangler in 1882. But his rapid advancement has been due rather to his own individuality than to these advantages, which, after all, are shared by many who enter the diplomatic service.

An attaché at the age of twenty-four, he was promoted Third Secretary in two years and Second Secretary five years later. Wider scope for his abilities was found in 1890 when he was appointed Controller of Direct Taxes to the Egyptian Government, and so well did he acquit himself that in two years he became Under-Secretary of State for Finance on the retirement of the present Lord Milner. At the end of another two years he was occupying the position of Adviser to the Ministry of the Interior, after which he was Financial Adviser for six years. From that time until he was called upon to undertake his present responsibilities on the retirement of Lord Cromer, he acted as Assistant Under-Secretary

of State at the Foreign Office in London. Although, of course, his preferment is the best proof that his services have been appreciated, other marks of recognition have not been wanting. The British Government created him a Companion of the Bath in 1900 and a Knight Commander of the same Order in 1902, while the Egyptian Government conferred upon him the Grand Cordon of the Mejidieh in 1897 and the Grand Cordon of the Osmanieh in 1903.



SIR ELDON GORST, K.C.B.
(His Britannic Majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary, Agent and Consul-General).

Born in New Zealand on June 25, 1861, Sir Eldon Gorst is now forty-eight years of age. Six years ago he married Evelyn, a daughter of Mr. C. D. Rudd, of Ardnamurchan, N.B., the well-known South African financier, by whom he has a daughter. His official address is The Agency, Cairo. He is a member of the Carlton and Turf Clubs.

COUNT THADDÄUS BOLESTA - KOZIEBRODSKI, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Austria-Hungary, to which position he was appointed in 1905, joined the diplomatic service in 1883, and has since held various posts in London, Paris, Constantinople, Dresden, and Brussels. He has been decorated with the Grand Crosses of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and he is a Knight of the Austrian Order of Leopold, and a Grand Officer of the Legion of Honour, and of the Belgian Order of Leopold. He holds the appointment of Chamberlain to H.M. Francis Joseph, and he is an officer of Hussars in the reserve. Count Bolesta-Koziebrodski, who was born in 1860, comes of one of the oldest and noble of families of Galicia. Throughout his diplomatic career he has always been most popular in society, and he numbers among his friends several royal personages. A thorough sportsman, he is an excellent shot and has been on several big game expeditions in the Soudan.

COUNT HERMANN VON HATZFELDT-WILDENBURG, who is the Diplomatic Agent for Germany in Egypt, is a son of Count Paul Von Hatzfeldt-Wildenburg, for many years German Ambassador in London. Born in Paris in 1867, he was educated at the Gymnasium and University of Bonn. After five years as an officer in the Uhlan Regiment at Strassburg, he entered the Diplomatic Service in 1901, as Attaché to the German Embassy in London, where he remained for ten years. He subsequently held posts in Paris and Washington, and received his present appointment in November, 1908. He has been decorated with the Order of the Red Eagle and the Order of the Crown, and has also been created a Commander of the Victorian Order. He has travelled extensively, chiefly in South Africa and South America, and he is an enthusiastic all-round sportsman. He is a member of the St. James's and Prince's Tennis Clubs, London.

ALEXIS SMIRNOW, Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General for Russia, was born in Siberia in 1857, and having studied law at the University of St. Petersburg, spent several years in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. He was nominated Secretary to the Embassy at Constantinople, where he remained twelve years; then for a few months he acted as interim Minister at the Diplomatic Agency at Sofia, Bulgaria; and in 1897 he was appointed First Secretary to the Russian Legation at Athens. He came to Cairo in 1905. The author of several novels and poetical works, he is also an artist of no mean ability. He is a Commander of the Russian Order of St. Vladimir, and Chamberlain to H.I.M. the Czar of Russia.

H.E. MIRZA SHAFI KHAN, Moktader el Molk, was appointed as Persian Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General in Egypt in March, 1908, and took up his residence in Cairo in the following January. A son of Mirza Isinail, and grandson of Mirza Shafi Sahib Diwan, Grand Vizier and Minister of the Interior, he was born in Teheran in 1865, and educated at the Teheran University. Entering the Ministry of Finance he became in course of time Secretary to the Grand Vizier. In 1897 he was appointed Chef de Section at the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, and subsequently he was made Chef de Ceremonies in the Court of His Majesty the Shah of Persia, and at the same time held the position of President of the Chamber of the Council of Ministers for Foreign Affairs. He has many decorations, including the Persian Tomsalé Homayoun, and he holds the rank of Emir-Touman (Marshall) in the Persian Cavalry. Married to a daughter of Hadji Mirza Abbas Koli, Minister of Council, he has one son, Mustapha Khan, Madjd el Saltaneh, who has succeeded him as Chef de Ceremonies in Teheran.

BARON EDMOND de GAIFFIER d'HESTROY has held the dual appointment of Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General for Belgium in Cairo since October, 1906. He entered the Diplomatic Service in 1887, being then 21 years of age, and held successively the position of Secretary to the Belgian Legations at Berlin, Lisbon, and Madrid. In 1896 he was appointed Counsellor to the Belgian Legation at Vienna, and from 1897 to 1902 he was an Assistant in the Foreign Office at Brussels. He went to China in 1902 and was stationed in Peking for four years, first as Chargé d'Affaires and afterwards as Resident Minister.

AYERST HENHAM HOOKER, F.I.C., F.C.S., who since 1907 has been Norwegian Consul in Cairo, formerly held many appointments under the Egyptian Government. The son of Ayerst Hooker, solicitor, he was born in Faversham, Kent, in 1854, and was educated first at Marlborough and afterwards at the Polytechnic School in Stuttgart, Germany. In 1872 he was appointed a master at Bishop's College, Lennoxville, Quebec, and afterwards

at Trinity College, Port Hope, Ontario, Canada. Returning to England in 1875 he became Demonstrator of Chemistry to the Medical School of Charing Cross Hospital. Owing to ill-health, however, he was advised to go to Egypt, and in 1878 was appointed Chemist to the Egyptian Customs in Alexandria. In the reorganisation of the Department in 1879 he was promoted to the Chief Inspectorship. Accepting the correspondentship to the *New York Herald* and *Morning Post* in 1880, he was present in that capacity at the bombardment of Alexandria. Two years later he served in the Intelligence Department of the British Army, and received a medal and star. During the cholera epidemic in 1883 he rendered considerable service, and, when the British Commission, under Sir W. Guyer Hunter, was appointed to inquire into the causes of the outbreak, Mr. Hooker acted as Secretary and assisted in drawing up the report of the Commission. For these services he was awarded the Queen's gold medal for gallantry and humanity. In 1884 he was appointed Sanitary Inspector for Lower Egypt, being subsequently promoted Chief Inspector and Director of the Khedivial Laboratory and Chief of the Executive Sanitary Branch of the Department of Public Health. In 1890 he was transferred to the Public Works Department as Director of Town Services. In 1891 he was specially employed to combat the visitation of locusts which threatened to destroy the cotton crops, and in June of the same year he was appointed Director of the Government Salt Manufactory under the Minister of Finance. Upon that Department being made over to a Joint Stock Company, Mr. Hooker was pensioned by the Egyptian Government and accepted the position of General Manager of the Egyptian Salt and Soda Company. During his service with the Egyptian Government he was decorated with the Orders of the Osmanieh and Mejidieh, Second Class. Mr. Hooker developed the natural soda deposits in the Wady Natroun, and established there a Colony which bears his name (Bir Hooker). Mr. Hooker married first Alice, daughter of the French composer, Réné Favager, in 1896, and, second, Anna, daughter of the late Ludwig Wiese, formerly of Christiania, Hongkong, and London.

L. STIENON, Consul for the Netherlands in Alexandria, has held that position since 1903. A son of the late Mr. Jan Stienon, a Dutch merchant, he was born at Roermont in 1864, and was educated at Rolduc, Holland, and at the Royal Academy des Beaux Artes at Brussels. Before coming to Egypt in 1899 he practised in Brussels for eight years as an architect.

Dr. AXEL TH. PREYER, Consul for the Netherlands, in Cairo, is a son of the late Prof. W. Preyer, a former well-known professor of physiology in Jena and Berlin. Born at Jena in 1877, Mr. Axel Preyer completed his education at the Universities of Leipzig and Berlin, where he qualified as a Doctor of Natural History and also studied national economy. He afterwards travelled much, visiting the Dutch East Indies, Malacca, Ceylon, Eastern Turkey, and Syria, finally settling in Egypt towards the close of 1900. Agriculture at once claimed his attention; he purchased agricultural properties, and became interested in several local companies which were formed for the purpose of reclaiming and cultivating land in the Nile Valley. He also took an active part in the development of agricultural enterprise in the Soudan and German East Africa, and is a member of the German Colonial Committee. In 1903 he became Consul for the Netherlands, and is now Acting Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General. Dr. Preyer is a member of the International Chamber of Commerce and of several local philanthropic and scientific institutions. In addition to writing two books, entitled "Trips into Indo-Malaya," and "Colonial Limited Companies and Enterprise," he has contributed to various periodicals articles on agriculture, colonial economy, and colonial finance and commerce.



LADY GORST.

GEORGES ALPHONSE EÏD, Administrateur-Directeur Général de la Société Anonyme Agricole Industrielle d'Egypte, occupe actuellement une position éminente dans le monde des Affaires et des Finances Egyptiennes. Il est le fils de feu M. Jean Eïd, de son vivant Consul de Belgique et grand propriétaire rural. M. Geo. A. Eïd a pris toujours le plus grand intérêt à tout ce qui concerne l'amélioration des terres en Egypte. Il a été nommé Vice-Consul de Belgique en 1889, promu Consul en 1904, et depuis lors, S. M. le Roi des Belges l'a décoré de l'ordre de Léopold, en reconnaissance des services rendus à son pays en donnant une grande extension au commerce belge en Egypte et en intéressant pour une grande part dans les affaires foncières égyptiennes, plusieurs financiers belges. Né au Caire en 1856, M. G. A. Eïd a fait ses études dans les écoles françaises d'Egypte. Il entra au service du Gouvernement Egyptien d'abord en qualité de chef de la correspondance au Ministère de l'Agriculture et du Commerce, puis comme premier secrétaire à la commission supérieure d'enquête, formée à la demande des Puissances Etrangères, pour faire une enquête sur la situation financière et économique du pays. M. Evelyn Baring (aujourd'hui Lord Cromer), M. F. de Lesseps, M. Rivers Wilson, et M. de Blignières et Riaz Pacha, faisaient partie de cette Commission Internationale. Celle-ci ayant terminé ses travaux, M. Eïd fut nommé chef du Contentieux au Ministère des Finances, et en 1882, il se retira du service du Gouvernement

afin de s'adonner plus complètement aux affaires agricoles et foncières. Il fonda en son nom, une commandite par actions pour l'amélioration des terres au capital de £100.000—laquelle en 1897 a été transformée en anonyme sous le nom de Société Agricole et Industrielle d'Egypte, dont le capital actuel est de près de £2.000.000. Il est aussi intéressé comme gros souscripteur et fondateur dans d'autres entreprises importantes, telles que la Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte, The Egyptian Enterprise and Development Co, The Gharbieh Land Co., la Compagnie Immobilière d'Egypte, la Société Agricole de Kafr el Dawar, etc. En 1898, Son Altesse le Khédive l'a décoré des insignes de commandeur de l'ordre de Medjidieh. Son énergie paraît inépuisable. En plus de ses nombreuses occupations, il gère depuis 1889 le Consulat du Brésil, et il est aussi



MEMBERS OF THE CORPS DIPLOMATIQUE AND CONSULAR BODIES OF EGYPT.

1. Averst H. Hooker, Norwegian Consul, Cairo. 2. Georges A. Eïd, Belgian Consul, Cairo.
3. Dr. Axel Th. Preyer, Netherlands Consul, Cairo.
4. Count Hermann von Hatzfeldt-Wildenburg, German Diplomatic Agent.
5. Count Thaddäus Bolesta-Koziebrodski, Austro-Hungarian Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.
6. E. B. Gould, I.S.O., British Consul-General, Alexandria.
7. Alexis Smirnow, Russian Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General.
8. H.E. Mirza Shafi Khan, Mokta'der el Molk, Persian Diplomatic Agent.
9. Baron Edmond de Gaiffier d'Hestroy, Belgian Consul-General.
10. Leon Stienon, Netherlands Consul, Alexandria. 11. Charles J. Nicholl, Danish Consul, Cairo.
12. Dr. Alfred Eïd, Belgian Vice-Consul, Cairo.

Président ou membre actif de plusieurs Sociétés de Bienfaisance. Il a épousé en 1882 la fille de feu M. Jean Kher, négociant en coton de Mansourah, dont il a eu cinq fils et une fille. Il est membre de la Société Khédiviale d'Agriculture, du Club Khédivial du Caire, et de diverses Sociétés Scientifiques et Coloniales de Belgique.

P. de REFFYE, the French Consul at Cairo, is a son of the late General V. de Reffye who invented the mitrailleuse and some of the heavy ordnance used in the French army from 1870 to 1886. He was born at Tarbes, France, in 1873, and was educated at the Lycee, Versailles, the Faculté de Droit, Paris, and the Ecole Lille des Sciences Politiques. Having completed his studies and served for the prescribed term in the army, Mons. Reffye entered the Foreign Office. He remained on the headquarters staff in Paris from 1897 until 1900, when he was appointed Consul Suppléant at Cairo. Two years later he was promoted Consul at Smyrna. In 1906 he was transferred to his present position. He is well known in social circles in Cairo, for he is president of the French hospital, vice-president of the French Society of Philanthropy and Mutual Aid, vice-president of the French Club, and a member of the committee of the French schools.

DR. ALFRED EID, Vice-Consul for Belgium, has been successful in grafting a business career upon that of a medical practitioner, and is now managing director of the "Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte" and of the "Compagnie Immobilière d'Egypte," and a director of the "Compagnie Agricole du Nil," the "Kafr-el-Dawar," and the "Koubbeh Gardens Co." He studied medicine at the Faculté de Paris and in the various hospitals of that town, taking his University Diploma in 1890. During the ten or twelve years of his medical practice Dr. Eïd devoted considerable time to the study of theoretical questions, and took special interest in the medical appliances of X Rays, which he was the first to introduce into the country. He took part in several international medical congresses, namely the Congress of Berne in 1893, to which he read a paper on "The Diagnosis by X Rays of Gravel in the Kidneys," the Paris Congress in 1900, where he was honorary president of the Internal Diseases Section, and he joined the Madrid Congress in 1902 as a corresponding delegate of the Egyptian Government. Among his numerous studies, mention may be made of "Les manifestations rénales éloignées de la scarlatine (1894)"; "La peste, historique pour l'Orient et état actuel de la question, 1898"; "Monstruosités de la face"; "Radiographies et Radioscopies du foie"; and "Des lésions valvulaires d'origine tabagique (1900)." The two latter contributions opened the way to further researches on both matters. We may add that during seven years he managed and wrote for two of the leading medical Arabic papers: "Le médecin des familles" (Tabib el Ailat); and "La médicine moderne (Tib-el-Hadiss), of which he was owner. Since 1885, Dr. Alfred Eïd has been Vice-Consul for Belgium at Cairo. It was in 1902 that the economical situation of the country attracted his attention. He had an intuition of the new promising era which was coming over Egypt, as well as a perception of the requirements of the country. He therefore devoted all his efforts to the creation of a new hypothecary credit establishment, "La Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte," which came into existence a year later. The best proof of the utility of such an institution is furnished by the fact that since its creation five other similar banks have been founded. Thanks to his financial relationship in Paris and Brussels, Dr. A. Eïd has always been able to procure for the bank important resources at the right moment. Dr. Eïd manages more particularly the "Compagnie Immobilière d'Egypte," which deals specially with urban business, and the "Campagnie Agricole du Nil," the connection of which is chiefly agricultural. He has studied closely, in a series of valuable consular reports, the causes of real property wealth in Egypt, together with the mortgage debt which weighs upon it. From those reports he has made up a book, "La Fortune Immobilière de l'Egypte et sa Dette Hypothécaire," Paris, 907, Alcalin Edit., which is the only general study existing on the question. Dr. Eïd is also a member of several scientific societies.

LEON GEOFFRAY, Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General for France, received that appointment in July, 1908, but did not enter upon the duties until the following December. During the months of August and September, while the Political Director of the French Foreign Office was on leave, Mr. Geoffray represented him in Paris. Born in 1852, he studied at the Faculté de Droit, Paris, where he took the degree of Doctor of Law, and at the age of twenty-five joined the Litigation Department of the Direction Politique. During his subsequent official career he was attached to various embassies, including those of Constantinople and London. In the English capital he acted successively as Conseiller d'Ambassade, First Secretary, and Minister Plenipotentiary. On several occasions he has been engaged on work of a special character. In 1892 he sat on the commission charged with studying the question of the application of the French Law of Nationality to the French colonies; in 1894 he was a member of the commission which assessed the Italian indemnities; and in 1900 he was the principal representative of the French Government at the international conference held in London with regard to the protection of wild animals in Africa. He is a Grand Commander of the Victorian Order and an officer of the Legion d'Honneur.

P. CH. van LENNEP has recently been appointed Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General for Holland in Egypt, in succession to Mr. Yonkheer van der Does de Willebois, who held the appointment for nearly thirty years and has now been transferred to Constantinople. A native of Amsterdam, Mr. van Lennep began his career in the Dutch Consular Service in 1880, and has since held various appointments, including those of Chargé d'Affaires at the Court of Greece and at the Court of Cettigne in Montenegro.

His wife, a Scottish lady, is a charming hostess. Mr. and Mrs. van Lennep have one daughter.

H. E. BARKER, Consul-General for Norway in Egypt, is a son of Mr. H. Barker, one of the founders of the well-known firm of general merchants and shipping agents, and has now the direction of the firm's affairs. Born in Alexandria, and educated at Fettes School, Edinburgh, he returned to Egypt in 1889 to join his father's business, of which he became sole proprietor in 1905. He is a well-known and popular figure among British residents in Alexandria. He is on the Committees of the British Chamber of Commerce, the International Chamber of Shipping, and the General Produce Association. He is a Committee member and a Steward of the local Sporting Club.

LEWIS MORRIS IDDINGS, Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General for the United States of America, was born in Ohio, and educated at the University of Michigan. He was connected for some years with the *New York Tribune* and the *Evening Post* of New York. In 1897 he was appointed Second Secretary of the United States Embassy at Rome, and in the following year was promoted First Secretary. For several summers Mr. Iddings acted as Chargé d'Affairs. His appointment in Cairo dates from 1905. He is a member of the Century and University Clubs of New York.

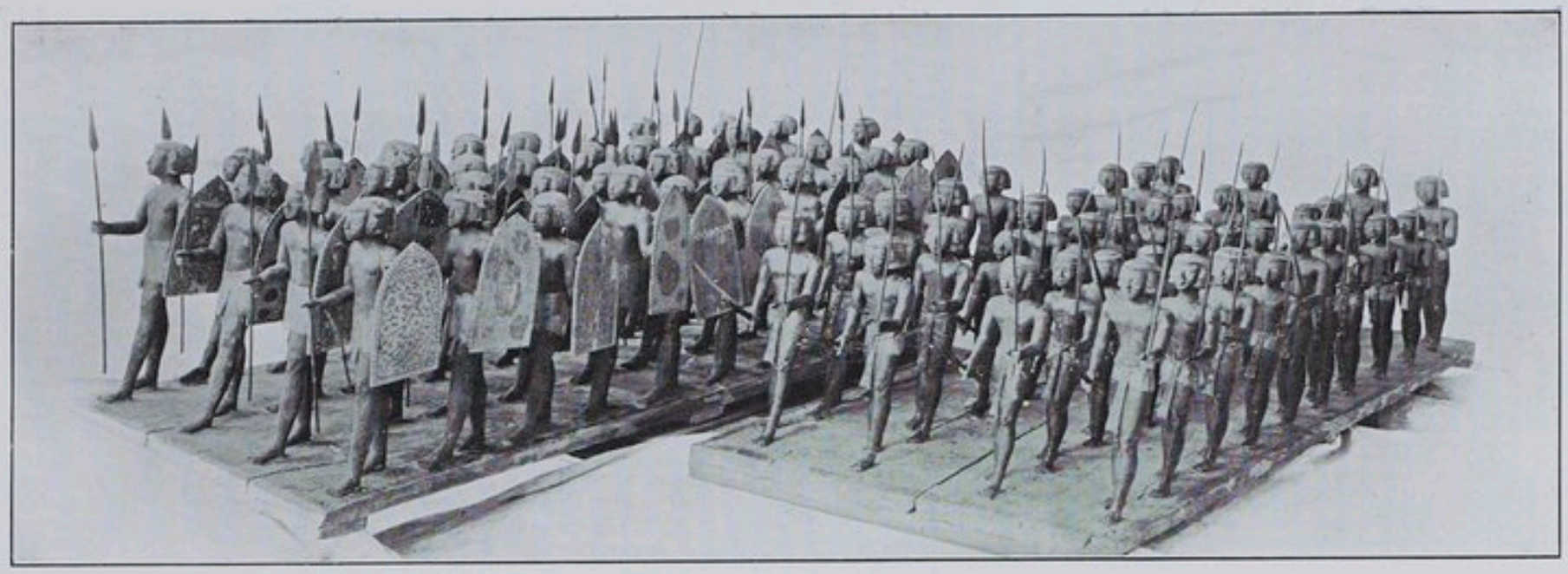
EDWARD BLENCOWE GOULD, I.S.O., His Britannic Majesty's Consul-General at Alexandria, was born on August 9, 1847, in Stoke-in-Teignhead, Devon, and was educated privately. He was appointed a student-interpreter in the Consular Service in Siam in 1868, and was in 1883 appointed the first Vice-Consul in the Siamese Shan States to reside at Chiengmai. He was Consul in Siam in November, 1885, and acted as Charge d'Affaires in Siam in 1886 and from 1887 to 1889. He was transferred to Port Said as Consul in 1891, and to Alexandria, with the personal rank of Consul-General, in 1897. He is a Companion of the Imperial Service Order.

DONALD ANDREAS CAMERON, His Britannic Majesty's Consul-General at Port Said, was born in 1856, and in 1879 was appointed a student-interpreter in the British Levant Consular Service at Constantinople. He was transferred to Suakin, and for his services during the campaign of 1884 he received the medal and star. He was Consul at Suakin from 1885 to 1888, and at Bengazi for a further year. From 1889 to 1897, he was a Judge of the Native Court of Appeal at Cairo. He returned to the consular service in 1897; then in 1903 he was appointed Navy Agent for the Suez Canal; and finally, in 1905, he was promoted to be Consul-General. Mr. Cameron has been decorated with the Order of the Mejidieh, third class. He has published two works: an Arabic-English vocabulary (1892), and a book entitled "Egypt in the Nineteenth Century." He is a member of the National Club.

ARTHUR DAVID ALBAN, British Consul at Cairo, is the doyen of the local Consular Corps. The area of his jurisdiction comprises the provinces of Galionbieh, Dakahlieh, Menufieh, and Charkieh, and the whole of Upper Egypt to the Soudan frontier. He entered the Levant Consular Service in 1883 as a student interpreter. After spending five years as assistant at Beyrout, he was appointed Vice-Consul at Alexandria in 1890. He next occupied a similar position at Jeddah, and in December, 1901, returned to Alexandria as Consul. His present appointment dates from March 27, 1903. Mr. Alban has devoted much time to the study of sanitary questions. He was appointed British delegate to the Quarantine Board of Egypt in July, 1897, and was one of the British delegates to the International Sanitary Congress which sat at Paris in October and November, 1903. It was this Congress which drew up the Sanitary Convention on Plague and Cholera which is now in force and codified all the previous regulations. When the Institution for the Blind at Zeitoun was placed under public control Mr. Alban became chairman of the board of management, and he has since manifested the greatest interest in the good work carried on by the institution. Mr. Alban was born at Guernsey in 1862, and educated at Cheltenham College. His father was the late Major Thomas Clifton Alban, of the Bombay Staff Corps, in which corps Mr. Alban's two brothers also attained their majority. In 1889 Mr. Alban married Amelia Anna, a daughter of the late Colonel Fritsch (Skender Bey), of the Imperial Ottoman Army, by whom he has three sons. He is a member of several local clubs including the British Recreation Club, of which he was at one time chairman and is now a trustee, and is the honorary secretary of the British Protestant Cemetery and British Charitable Society.



THE VALLEY OF THE TOMBS OF THE KINGS AT THEBES.



EGYPTIAN AND LIBYAN SOLDIERS FROM THE TOMB OF EMSAH SIOUT (12TH DYNASTY).

ANCIENT EGYPT.

By Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., Litt.D., LL.D., Ph.D., F.R.S., F.B.A., Edwards Professor of Egyptology, University College, London.

IT has been unfortunate that the greatest civilisations of ancient times have been in positions which are bound by their natural conditions to become of importance in the present age. Hence the present demands of profit and convenience destroy the monuments of the past, and occasionally the monuments are allowed to stand in the way of the present order of things. In Rome, in Athens, in Egypt, the modern age has blotted out much—perhaps most—of what remained. This is the more regrettable as modern studies are only just beginning to make us know how the whole history of a country is one phenomenon, how environment and heredity make the past essential to our understanding the present or forecasting the future. A country that ignores its previous record is as reasonable as a man would be who tried to forget whether he was a statesman or a sweep last year. Our object here, then, is to look at the past of Egypt as a part of the whole view of the country, at one with its present state and conditions. The condition of every country is like a woven fabric; a long warp runs through the whole, representing the permanent type of the population in character and abilities, as determined by the land itself; across that is shot the woof of the successive races that occupy the land, each with different capacities and different influence on the pattern that is produced.

RULE.

Egypt, perhaps more than other lands, has been dominated by successive races. Some eight revolutions of culture can be traced in its course, and its most flourishing periods have been due to co-operation with foreigners. In other lands mixture may be more gradual; but, owing to the deserts bordering Egypt on all sides, any considerable mixture of people has been necessarily a conquest rather than a slow process. No considerable body of people would be admitted unless they came prepared to take possession by force. Of these conquests the Arab was the most disastrous to the land, as the wandering tribes of Arabia were the least capable of culture, and destroyed most of the older ability of the people. It is the Coptic, Turkish, Albanian, and European strains that the future of Egypt may rise upon, when, in course of time, they subdue the less capable Arab.

The previous conquest by Greece had, under the Ptolemies, raised the land to great prosperity, which was only lost owing to the merciless drain of its wealth and resources by Rome. The Persian conquest (XXVIIth dynasty) likewise had brought in prosperity, by associating Egypt in a cosmopolitan empire which gave trade and security for its development. The various brief insurrections of the Egyptians during the Persian rule only injured the country without any benefit. The previous dynasty (XXVIth) was due to a Libyan conquest, by the most successful of the many tribes that had settled on the western edge of the valley. That, in turn, had succeeded to an Ethiopian conquest, which had united the country previously torn to pieces by civil war and internal troubles. Thus, in seven hundred years, no less than five different races had ruled Egypt, and its condition and prosperity had been improved under each of them.

In earlier times much the same changes had been seen. The XIXth dynasty was largely Syrian, the XVIIth-XVIIIth dynasties were an invasion of black Berbers, the XVth-XVIth dynasties were shepherd kings, or Mesopotamian Semites; and in earlier times we see frequent signs of foreign forces coming in, without yet being able to know exactly their origins. Every few centuries, throughout the thousands of years of its long history, Egypt has been occupied—or at least administered—by some fresh power; and these changes have each given new life and fresh movement to the country, which has always stagnated when left alone for two or three centuries. In more recent times, during the Middle Ages, the same changes may be seen in the successive dominion of Arabs, Mesopotamians, Tunisians, Kurds, Circassians, Turks, and, lastly, Europeans.

ORGANIZATION.

Amid all these changes in the ruling forces the organisation and administration of the country have gone on, following much the same system, no matter who was at the helm. The various rulers have usually not changed affairs more than a new minister in England alters the permanent staff of his department. We read frequently of the same officials going on without a break from the rule of one race to that of another. What will make more difference than anything else in all history, is the telephone wire, linking every village *omdeh* with his *mudir* in the provincial capital, and the mudir with the ministry. That marks the end of local rule; and it is noticeable how the Turks have been the first race to found, at Constantinople, a perfect system of centralized government on the use of the telegraph.

The form of Egypt, following the long ribbon of the Nile stream, has always tended toward a separation into small principalities, each having little connection with any other. Such districts of fifty or a hundred miles in length were generally ruled by their hereditary chiefs; and when any one centre proved strong enough, it absorbed the others and founded a united kingdom. Thus the history has been a constant balancing between local rule and centralized government. The natural result of this was that the central power was never very dominant; each district was left to its own private ways, and was only required to contribute to the court expenses, and recruits for the army. We have a

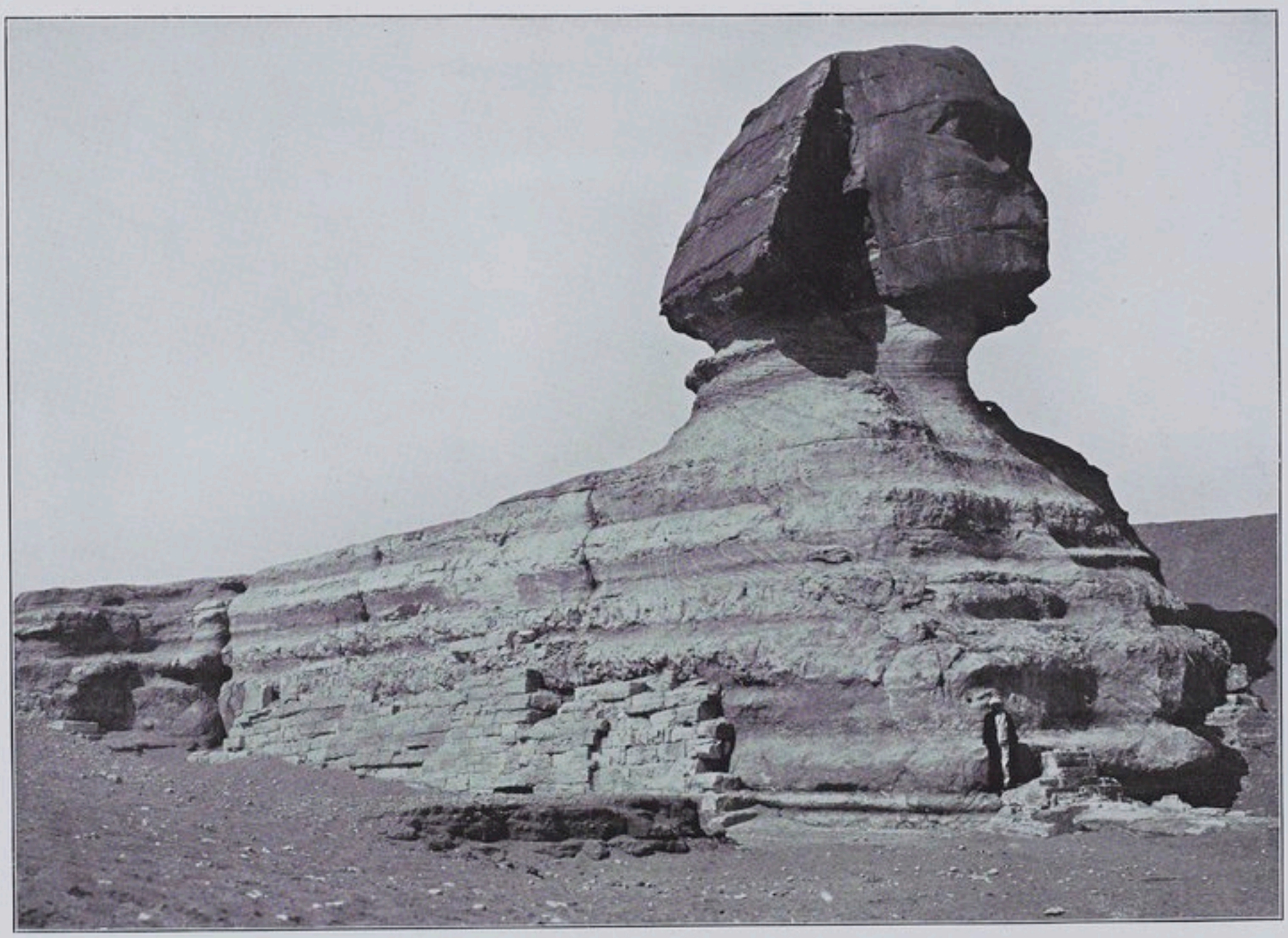
statement of the tribute, or taxes, payable by each district, about 1500 B.C., and the amount is such that it could only support the court, and not bear any part of the machinery of government. The king and his nobles around him also possessed large estates, and doubtless trusted to them for the main supplies. Hence, the lordship of the country, when centralised, made but little difference to the inhabitants. They were levied for the legion of their own quarter of the country—the Thebaid, or Memphis, or the Upper Delta, or Lower Delta—instead of being engaged in ceaseless squabbles with the next district, and a little of the wealth of their feudal lord was shorn off to supply the "Son of the Sun" at the capital. Otherwise the form of rule mattered but little.

There is no question that the centralised rule was the more beneficial for the individual subject. What little he lost by being levied to go for three or four months' campaign into Syria or Nubia, was more than compensated for by the plunder brought back, and by the droves of captives who were employed on the public works, and thus relieved the Egyptians. And the superior condition of the country at each of the great periods of united government is shown, not only by the royal monuments, but by the excellence of the art and the scale of the private tombs throughout the country.

In all ages down to the present day, the principal towns have been the seat of local government. In the earliest times there were fourteen capitals of nomes, or country towns; in historical times they were subdivided into forty-four districts, in Roman times into an even greater number. At present the divisions are the old number, fourteen; but in place of six being in the valley and eight in the Delta, the numbers are reversed, and the Delta has fewer, owing to the loss of much of its area by inundation of the present lakes in the Middle Ages. Thus the modern mudirieh closely represents the ancient nome; and the mudirs each sit now within a few miles of one of the relics of Osiris which consecrated the ancient capitals.

In earlier ages the rule over these districts was hereditary, and only a strong king, with a very clear case of disaffection proved, could venture to dispossess the hereditary prince of a nome. This feudal chief held his own court in his local capital and controlled all the administration. The civil service and police were his own servants, appointed by him and responsible only to him. He levied taxes and tolls to pay for the administration. And, in case of famine or trouble a good prince took pride in relieving the needs of the country out of his own estates. The same system remains on a lesser scale in the present day. A great landowner will keep all the guards and management of his estates in his own household, each man privately responsible to him, and any man in poverty or distress will find relief if he deserves it.

Under the local prince there was in early times a council of notables, much like the meglis gathered under each mudir now. The proper conduct of business, and firm but suave speaking, were specially enjoined in the early precepts of the pyramid age. Each nome or mudirieh in all times has been divided into portions under sub-governors. Under these, again, are the heads of villages, who organise the guards and are responsible for the taxes and register of recruits. The ancient system appears to have survived in all its main features.

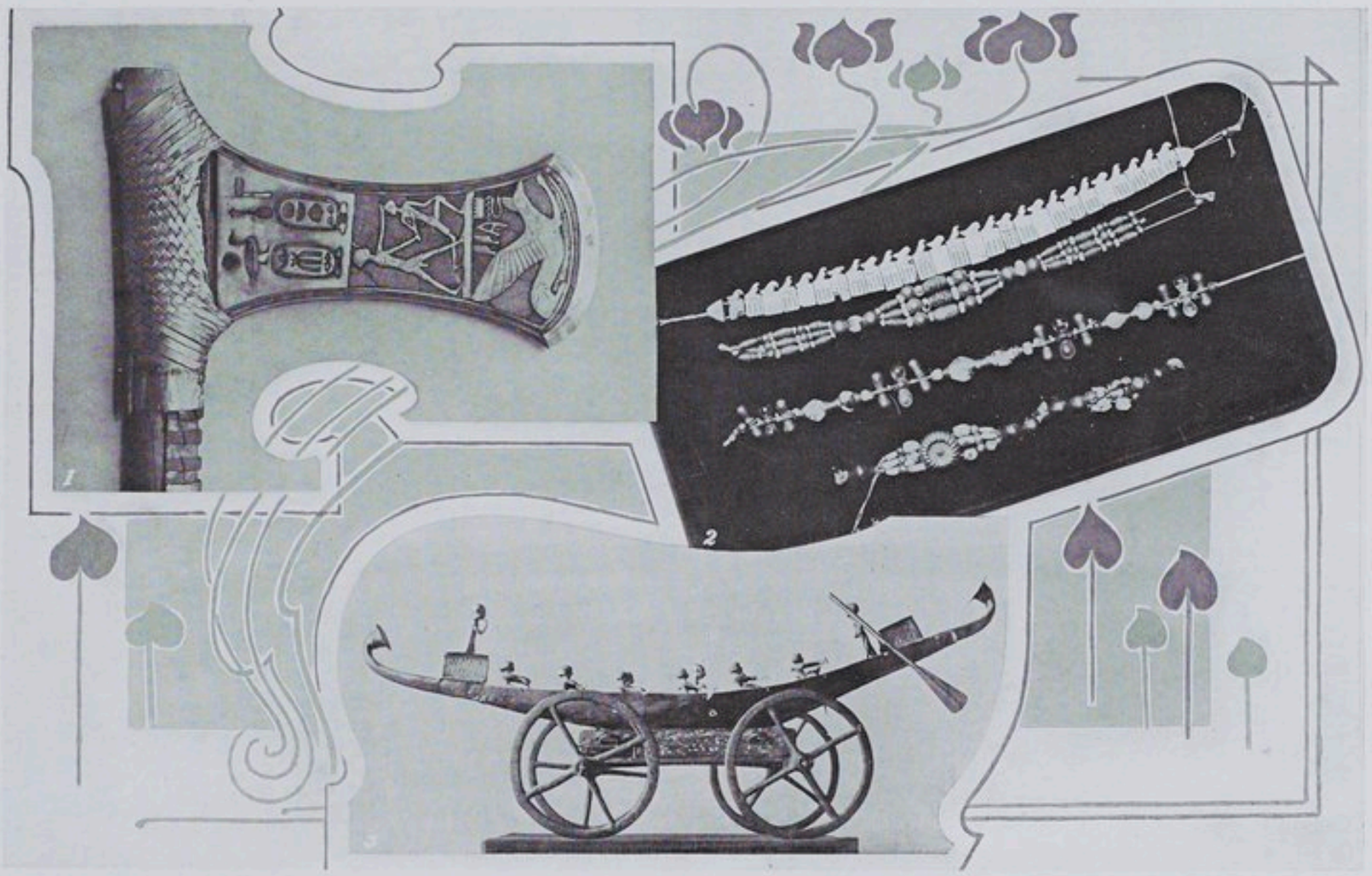


THE SPHINX OF GIZEH.

In ancient times a very important function of the local prince was the patronage of all the superior workmen. This is most like the relation of the Grand Dukes of Italy to the artists of the renaissance. Any man of higher ability in any art or craft would be taken up by the prince and given a home and rewards for his work. Thus we often read of the king giving quarried stone of fine quality, or statuettes, or a whole tomb, to a favourite courtier. And it is evident that the great tombs of the feudal princes at Beni Hazan, or Siut, or Assouan were carved and painted by a large staff of skilled workmen, kept probably for many

years. The stone was excavated from these great tombs to build palaces in the towns of the valley, and the quarry was so arranged as to form a magnificent tomb when finished.

The secret of much of the great results attained by the Egyptians lay in their detailed organisation of labour. In the records of the mining expeditions to Sinai there are dozens of different grades and employments named, from the ruler of the frontier down to the miner's labourer—miners, prospector's, sculptors, artists, storekeepers, transport, and physicians are all detailed. The same system is effective in the present day, where elaborate results can be attained by the careful organising of hundreds of Egyptians, each performing one small stage and responsible for that alone. The sub-division of labour was a principle of success carried out more fully anciently than even in modern times.



1. GOLDEN HATCHET OF QUEEN AAH-HOTEP (XVIIIth DYNASTY).

2. BRACELETS OF GOLD AND STONES OF THE TIME OF MENA (Ist DYNASTY).

3. A GOLDEN BOAT FROM THE JEWELLERY OF QUEEN AAH-HOTEP (XVIIIth DYNASTY).

CHARACTER.

The character of a nation remains constant through many external changes, each fresh race that enters a country becoming assimilated in mind and body to its surroundings. This is seen in Egypt, where the ancient type is in most respects closely like that of the present time. The capacity for long continued bodily labour is seen in the ancient constructions, as in the agricultural work of the fellaheen now. A fellah will habitually dig two or three times as much in the day as a modern Greek, and few races do so much in regular daily routine. This is due to the bracing north wind and dry air, which give Egypt a climate that is unique in the sub-tropical regions. The ideal character of the ancient people is set before us very fully in their early proverbs and precepts. Strength and endurance of mind were much valued; a firm heart that was not daunted by opposition or difficulties was held up as the pattern. Diligence and activity were highly praised. Self respect was urged as a motive, and the avoidance of degrading companionships was insisted upon. Much weight was put on truthfulness and straightness. Discretion, quietness, and reserve were enforced. Energy and self reliance were praised, and a judicious respect for and imitation of successful men were enjoined. "Never do business with an unlucky man," was as much a maxim anciently as in modern times. Covetousness was specially reprobated, and luxury and self-indulgence were described as the road to bitterness.

Among equals, as in the council of the local prince, the qualities required were fearlessness tempered with caution and gentleness; while to inferiors, justice and good discipline were to be always lightened by respect for the feelings and comfort of others. The position of women depended mainly on the subject of property. Most property descended in the female line, even up to the crown-rights. Marriage was, therefore, determined more by the ability and character of the man than by the beauty of the woman. A woman of good family was necessarily a woman of property, and in earlier times her choice in marriage was probably not permanent. Even in the Christian period marriage contracts provided a fixed penalty (about seven times the marriage gift) for free divorce on either side, without any hesitation or stigma. The woman's right to property came down to Arab times, as a Copt, in the market had to say on selling anything, that he did so with his wife's permission, in order to make the sale legal. The duty of fully training and making provision for children was very strongly held, and the advancement of a man's sons was the first claim on him.

In all this we have the ideal of the Egyptian, probably not generally attained in practice, but yet what he conceived needful for a good character. It is such a character that is respected at the present day, and is reasonably attained by the best natives. Yet it has its great deficiencies. The ancient Egyptian considered that he had justified himself in the final judgment by asserting that he had not committed any of the catalogue of sins; he was saved by self-righteous repudiation. Exactly the same principle now holds good; and the modern man will similarly clear himself by vigorous assertions that he has not done anything that he is accused of, and feel quite happy after that, however clear the proof may be against him. There is never a sense of wrong-doing, and very rarely any expression of regret. The standard expression of apology is, "It does not matter." Another constant difficulty in modern, as in ancient times, is extreme obstinancy of self-will, with great fickleness of determination when not opposed. These opposite errors are reflected in the ancient proverbs, and annoy every one in modern affairs.

MANUFACTURES.

Turning from what the Egyptian was, to what he did, we will now notice the various crafts, beginning with the oldest.

Flintworking was the earliest handicraft. From the remotest human period chipped flints of the palæolithic types were scattered over the desert by wandering hunters. Such are found bedded in gravels twenty-five feet above the present Nile, evidently rolled down when the Nile was a mighty stream fed by continual rains. Later, flint-working was highly developed in the middle of the pre-historic period of graves, and the perfect skill shown at that age surpasses all that has ever been seen elsewhere. The whole surface of flints, as large as a butcher's knife and almost as thin, was completely covered with plating as regular as if cut by a machine. Saw-edges with thirty teeth to the inch were worked, each tooth longer than its own width. And flints were chipped into bangles for the arm, no thicker than a straw. Later the art of flint-work decayed, at the rise of historic times (5500 B.C.); it was continued roughly for sickles almost until Greek times, and for rough tools until iron stopped the use of it in the Coptic age (500 A.D.).

Bone and Ivory were the next materials, used for harpoons to spear the large fish of the Nile; then in pre-historic times largely used for spoons, ornaments, and amulets. In historic times, ivory wands and inlaying were frequent, and bone dolls continued in use to Coptic days.

Pottery is found in the earliest graves, probably about 8,000 B.C. The forms, colours, and designs are very varied, and many thousands of different types can be distinguished. The pre-historic pottery is entirely hand-made, like the modern Kabyle pottery of Algeria, which it closely resembles in forms, colours, and decoration. The clay is brown, and rather rough, but finely burnished on the face, and covered with a wash of red hæmatite or ochre. As it was baked in wood ashes, the red of the lower part—usually the mouth of the inverted pot—is reduced to a brilliant black lustre. Such pottery continued to be made by Nubian tribes till late times. The skill in modelling the forms by hand, without the wheel, is so extraordinary that no one could suppose that mechanical aid was not used; yet the finger-marks inside, and the vertical polishing outside, prove that the whole form is due to hand and eye. The later pottery made on the wheel in historic times is much of it very good, but not equal to the earlier ware. It varied continually, and any distinctive form can be dated within a century or two.

Weaving, also, was a pre-historic art, and it had reached the highest state by the beginning of historic times. In the Ist dynasty (5400 B.C.), linen is found which is more regular in spinning and weaving, and of a closer texture than the finest cambric handkerchief of the present day made by machinery. The threads are 160 × 120 to the inch. In later times, we find weaving of long, tapering bands for wrapping the mummies. In the XVIIIth dynasty (1400 B.C.), delicate wovern patterns of inscriptions and designs were made in several different colours. The same art is found in Coptic times; but, in general, the later weaving is less fine than the earlier. Akin to this is the leather-working. Extremely delicate nets were made by cutting slits in leather, so that when pulled out it formed a fine and uniform mesh. Coloured leather was also cut out into patterns and sewn upon a base of leather or linen—an art still roughly kept up in the coloured patterns of cotton stitched on the insides of tents.

Metal-work is found from the earliest of the graves. It began by beating little pins of copper to fasten the goat-skins, which were worn before woven linen. During the pre-historic age, copper was used more and more freely for adzes, chisels, harpoons, and delicate needles. Vases of copper are found belonging to the early kings. By the VIth dynasty (4000 B.C.), hammer-work in copper had reached the highest level of protrait statuary in the round, and nothing now was left to be attained. Drawn wire was, however, unknown till after the Roman age. Casting by *wire perdue* was usual in all the later periods.

Gold, silver, and lead were all in pre-historic use. The gold was hammered, and minute beads were made of it. By the Ist dynasty (5400 B.C.), hollow ball beads were made with



CELEBRATED WOODEN STATUE OF THE CHIEF OF THE VILLAGE, FROM SAKKARA (Vth DYNASTY).

minute thread-holes, and soldering was perfect in application and in colour. In the XIIth dynasty (3300 B.C.), minute granular work—like the Etruscan—was already in use for patterns. In the XVIIIth dynasty (1600 B.C.), woven wire chains of the so-called Trichinopoly pattern were made. A favourite decoration from the XIIth dynasty onwards was the cloisonnée stone work. Minute cells were made by soldering gold strip to a base plate—sometimes three hundred cells to the square inch—and each cell was filled by a slip of brilliant turquoise, cornelian, or lazuli, precisely cut to fit the hole. Thus elaborate feather-patterns of bird's wings were executed. No glass or artificial composition inlay is known till after 1000 B.C., and no fused enamel till Roman times. The gold of the Ist dynasty contains silver, showing that it came from Asia Minor, and not from Nubia.

Silver was rarer than gold in early times. From 1500 B.C. onward, silver vases are found, the supply probably coming from North Syria. These bowls and vases are skilfully hammered and chased; stamps were not used for the repeated patterns, which are all hand-work. On neither gold, silver, nor copper are any polish lines shown of grinding down a face, but only the flat polish of finely faced hammers, probably of polished quartz rock.

Lead was cast, and used for statuettes in the pre-historic time, and for net-sinkers commonly in late times. Hollow bronze-work was occasionaly filled with lead, particularly weights and statuettes. Tin is known pure from 1500 B.C. onward. Antimony appears about 1000 B.C., being used for cast beads. Iron is rarely found at long intervals, from 4700 B.C., but it did not come into any general use till about 700 B.C., and did not supplant bronze till 300 B.C. The rare early use of it is probably due to finding pockets of native iron in Sinai, where there occur together carboniferous rocks, hæmatite beds, and basalt eruptions—a combination which has produced native iron in other countries. Steel appears on the tools imported by Assyrians, 670 B.C.; probably the general use of both iron and steel arose among the Chalybes in the north of Assyria.

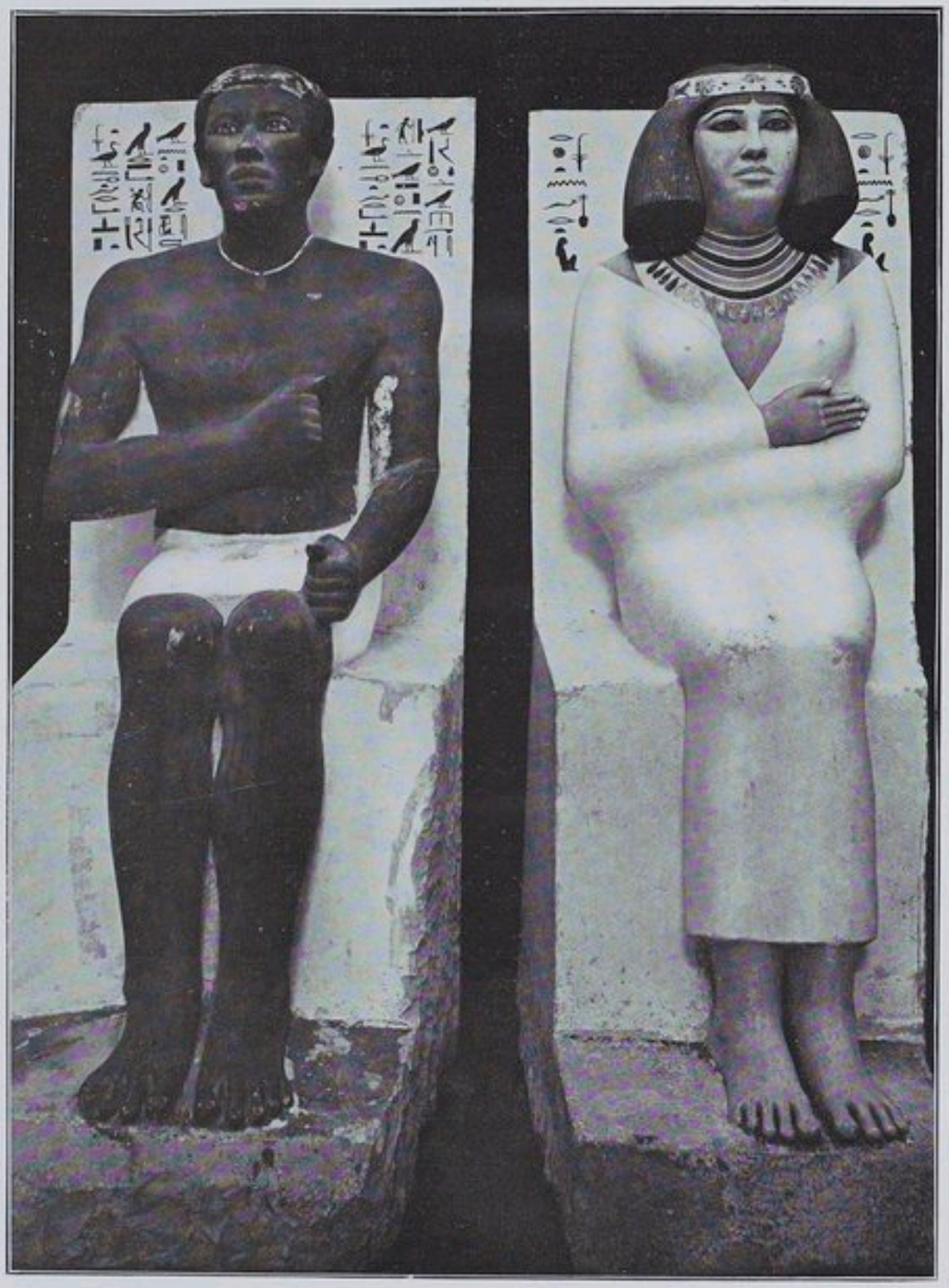
Questions about hardening copper tools have often been raised. It appears that in early times copper was hardened by using arsenical ore, leaving one or two per cent. of arsenic in it; by leaving red oxide in by imperfect reduction, and by hammering. Thus, an edge equal to soft steel can be obtained. Tin does not seem to have been intentionally added till about 1600 B.C. The work in hard stone was all done by hammer dressing, and copper gravers with emery-powder, not by any cutting edge of metal.

Wood was largely used. In pre-historic times the later graves often had a wooden tray for the bodies; and, rarely, a lining of wood round the sides. Couches were framed of wood with carved bull's legs. The early kings were buried in great chambers of wood. The flooring planks rested on beams ten inches by seven; the side boards were let into the floor beams, and the roofing must have consisted of equally large beams in order to cover the span. The sign of a royal architect at that time was two axes for wood work. In later ages we read, at about 4700 B.C. of the building of a ship 170 ft. in length, and 60 ships 100 ft. in length, and of bringing 40 ships of cedar, doubtless from Syria. All this was the work of a single year, showing what a vast quantity of wood-work was done for the navy alone, apart from land work and private work. In the age of great temples, about 1500 B.C., cedars and fir trees were largely imported from Syria; immense doors, 50 to 100 ft. high, were framed of wood, and masts as much as 150 ft. in height were placed before some of the pylons. Wood was used also for some of the best portrait statues.

Stone was not employed at first except for vases. These were made in the pre-historic age of syenite, porphyry, basalt, and other hard rocks. Alabaster came commonly into use in the Ist dynasty, and the hard stone gradually disappeared during the age of the pyramid kings. Only soft stones were used in the later times. The work was done entirely by hand and eye, without a lathe or any circular motion to fashion the outside. The forms are beautifully regular, and it is rarely that any fault can be detected. Emery, probably imported from Smyrna, was used to grind and polish the stones. In the fourth dynasty (4700 B.C.) granite and diorite were sawn by copper saws set with teeth of emery (or polished bort); these saws were over 8 ft. in length. Tube drills of copper set with stones were used to hollow out portions of statues or the axes of stone vases.

Building with stone did not begin till the end of the second dynasty (5000 B.C.); at that time limestone in small blocks was used

for walls, but granite doorways were already cut with inscriptions in relief. By 4700 B.C. the full power of building in stone was developed. In the great Pyramid, the outer casing was of blocks weighing many tons each, dressed true to a hundredth of an inch, and 13 acres of such work covered the outside. In the inside about 50 beams of granite, each about 20 feet long, are used for roofing. Private tombs, also, were built of large stones on a splendid scale. Later



THE STATUES OF MEIDOUM (IIIrd dynasty), PRINCE RAHOTEP AND NEFERT.

than this a remarkable work is the funeral chamber of Amenemhat III. (3200 B.C.) hollowed out of a single block of quartzite about 26 feet by 12 feet over all, finely wrought and polished, weighing about 110 tons. In the XVIIIth dynasty (1500 B.C.) we find granite obelisks over 100 feet high, and nearly 10 feet square, weighing up to 430 tons; also granite colossi of 800 and 900 tons. At about the sixth century B.C. monolith shrines of granite were in fashion, and the greatest of these weighed about 300 tons.

The methods of moving and placing such large masses of stone were simple, and depended more on organisation than on machinery. The great pylon at Karnak, which is unfinished, has still the banks of brickwork against it, which served for a staging to raise the blocks. And in the recent restoration of the hall of columns, the old methods have been tried and found to be cheap, effective, and safe. Piles of earth are filled in around columns as they are built; when they are completely buried, then the architraves can be dragged up the slope and put into place. After the roof is finished the earth is dug out, and the work is complete. In an account of moving colossi, we read of a sloping bank of earth a quarter of a mile long, 94 feet wide, and 103 feet high; this was held up at the sides by 120 facings of brush-wood and beams, framed together in panels of 50 × 12 feet. Doubtless the colossus was dragged up the slope, and then tipped over the end, so that it came on to its place almost upright. By removing earth beneath it the block could be moved gradually into its exact position. The transport of the obelisks is represented; they were placed upon boats, and floated down the Nile. The moving of a colossus across the plain is shown to have been accomplished by rows of men pulling together at ropes; and at present—on a small scale—it is found best to move blocks up to a couple of tons in weight by simply dragging them along at a slow walk without any made road.

The fine working of the faces of stones was tested for flatness in two ways. Surfaces up to three or four feet across were tried with true facing plates smeared with red ochre; where the ochre touched the dressed face the stone was cut away until the touching spots were not more than an inch apart all over. Larger surfaces were dressed by cutting true lines around the edge, and diagonally across the face both ways, tested by stretched threads. The spaces between the test lines were then dressed away.

The accuracy of measurement and working reached to less than one in 10,000, both in line and angle, at 4700 B.C., as in the Great Pyramid; and at 3300 B.C. a granite sarcophagus was cut to within two or three thousandths of an inch.

Glaze and Glass.—Glazing of blue or green colour was usual on beads of pottery or stone in the pre-historic age. In the Ist dynasty glazed tiles and pottery vases were made, and two-colour glazing for designs was adopted. The next great stage of glazing was about 1400 B.C., when a great variety of colours appear. Large objects were glazed in one piece as much as 5 feet high, and hundreds of small decorations were made for stitching on to muslin dresses, or for wearing on necklaces. Inlays of glazed tile also were used on walls. Glazed statuettes for funeral use continued to be made in profusion down to Greek times, and glazed vases continued through Roman into Arab manufacture. The body of the glazed ware was a friable silica paste, which was bound together by a coat of glaze which soaked into it. The blue glaze was made up of crushed quartz, lime, potash, and copper; the proportion of copper and the degree of fritting made all the tints from the palest French blue up to deep purple. Any trace of iron made a green tint, and full greens were made with iron. Cobalt, manganese, and tin were occasionally used.

Glass was never made separately until about 1500 B.C., and it was never blown till Roman times. The earlier vases were formed by winding glass thread on a core, and many patterns were produced by inlaying lines of various coloured threads while soft. From about 500 B.C. much glass mosaic was made, and drawn out hot so as to reduce the pattern to a microscopic fineness. Cutting the bar across into sections the pieces were then used to form repeating patterns for inlaying. Glass beads were made in great variety. From about 1500 B.C. they were all coiled round wires; in Roman times they were drawn out lengthways. The ancient method of coiling is adhered to in the manufacture of modern Venetian beads.

MEASURES AND WEIGHTS.

In the early dynasties there were two measures in use—the finger's breadth of ·729 inches, and the *meh* or head-band length of 20·6 inches, called by us a cubit. These were related to each other, the cubit being the diagonal of a square of 30 fingers in the side. The cubit was roughly divided into 28 fingers of ·736 inches, and hands of 2·94

inches, or, decimally, into tenths of 2·06 inches; but the true diagonal and square system was kept up in land measures. The *arura* was 100 cubits square, or about two-thirds of an acre. Besides these, the northern foot of early Europe, 13·2 inches, is sometimes found; also a short cubit of 6 hands, or 17·7 inches, and the pre-historic Greek and Roman foot occasionally came in before the Greek conquest.

The earliest weight standard was about 200 grains, and was principally used for weighing gold. In the later half of the history this is superseded by the *qedet* weight of 140 grains. Besides these, the Babylonian shekel (126 grains), Phœnician shekel (112 grains), Attic drachma (66 grains), and other standards all came into use, owing to trade.

MONUMENTS.

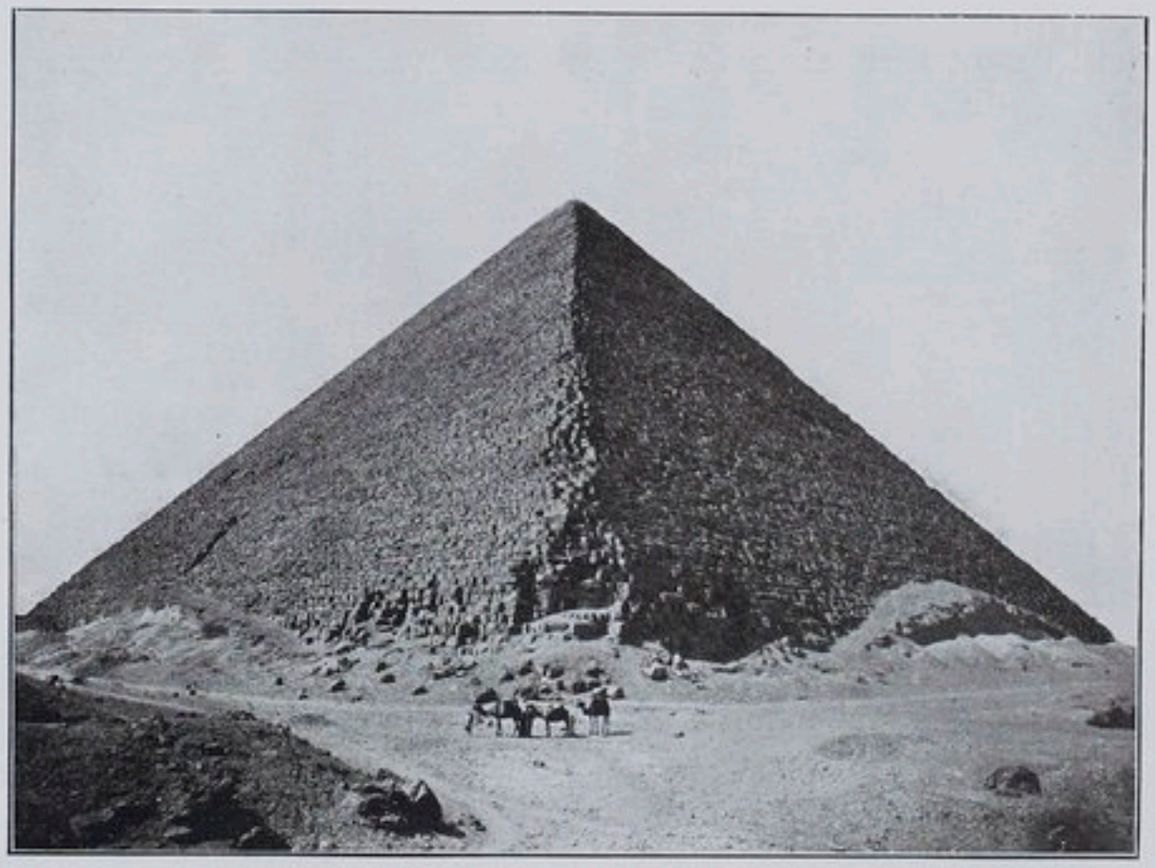
The principal monuments remaining of each age of Egyptian history will have to be shortly described, so as to give a general view of the actual remains, dwelling most on the large works which are the best-known examples. The dating here followed is that given by the Egyptians themselves; and no attempt to shorten it can be made without setting aside some of our remaining authorities:—

Prehistoric Age.—8000 (?) to 5500 B.C. No standing monuments remain of this age, which is only known by the cemeteries and slight remains of settlements along the desert. The objects are best seen at Oxford, Cairo, and University College, London.

Ist Dynasty. — 5500–5250 B.C. The royal tombs at Abydos are the principal remains; they are now filled up again, and the Cairo Museum is the main collection from them. Figures of a king and general are carved on the rocks in Sinai.



STEP PYRAMID OF SAKKARA, KING NETER-KHET (IIIrd dynasty).



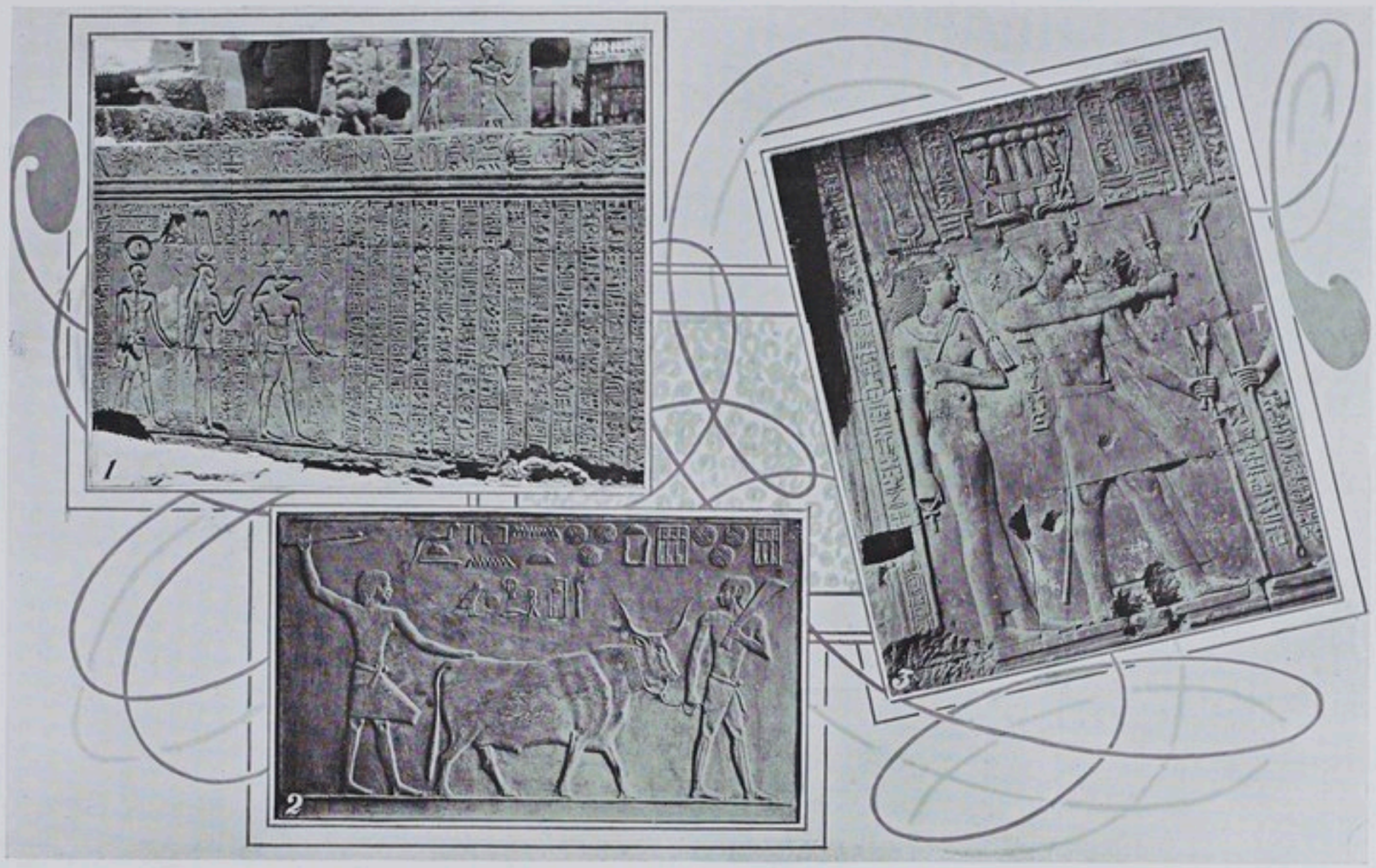
GREAT PYRAMID OF KHUFU (CHEOPS).

IInd Dynasty.—5250–4950 B.C. As the previous dynasty. Of the end of this dynasty a large brick fort remains in good condition at Abydos, now known as Shunet ez Zebib.

IIIrd Dynasty.—4950–4750 B.C. A large brick tomb at Bayt Khallaf belongs to King Zeser, who also built the stone tomb known as the step pyramid at Sakkara. Both of these tombs were developments of rectangular piles of brick or stone, derived from the cap of earth originally placed over the the royal graves. The stone pile was successively enlarged and heightened until it appeared as a series of steps. In this tomb was a doorway of glazed tiles, each bearing the king's name in coloured glazes. At the end of this dynasty, King Senefern built a similar tomb, and then cased over all the steps into a single slope, thus making the first pyramid. Two of the finest statues, Rahotep and Nefert, in the Cairo Museum are of this reign.

IVth Dynasty. — 4750–4450 B.C. This opens with the greatest and most accurate building known—the great pyramid of Khufu (Cheops). This marvellous king reformed the religion, organised the administration, and trained the largest body of accurate workmen that has ever existed. His portrait statuette shows one of the most forceful and compelling characters in all history. The accuracy of the building is only limited by an average error of one in 13,000 of length and 12 inches of angle. Over two million blocks of stone were used; and the finished casing of white limestone covered thirteen acres. This casing was stripped off in the middle ages. Khafra, the next king, built a pyramid nearly as large, and only slightly less accurate; as it is on higher rock it closely matches the great pyramid. About forty courses of the smooth casing still remain on the top of it. His statue in diorite is a noble royal portrait full of dignity. A massive granite temple of his still stands below his pyramid. The third pyramid was built by his successor Menkaura, and is only about half as high. It had about half the area of the casing made of red granite: and the accuracy was less than in either of the other pyramids. Around these pyramids at Gizeh are lesser pyramids of the royal families, and a great number of tombs of the nobles of that age.

Vth Dynasty.—4450–4200 B.C. At this point the old principality of Heliopolis was revived; the kings descended from a priest of the sun-god, were called "Son of the Sun," and built great monuments in honour of the sun, of which one has been excavated at Abu Sir. It consisted of a massive obelisk upon a platform with a temple before it.



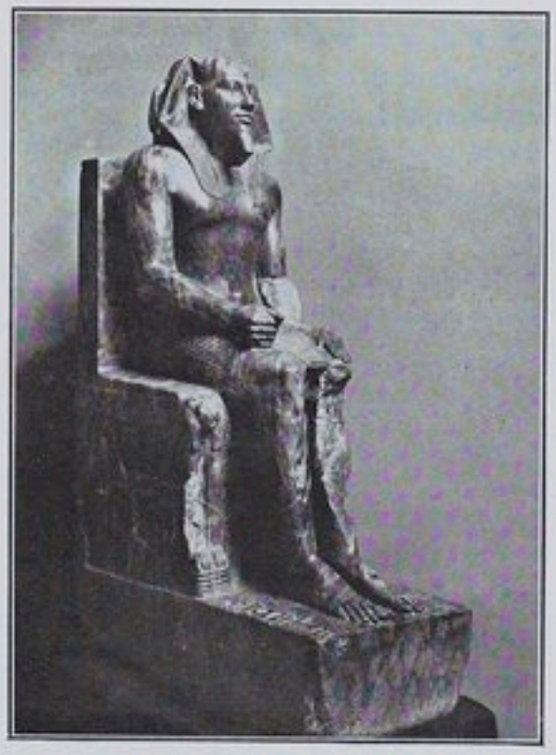
1. KOM-OMBO BAS RELIEFS. Inscriptions (late Ptolemaic). 2. OXHERDS, Vth DYNASTY, SAKKARA. 3. PTOLEMY IX. AND CLEOPATRA II.

The pyramids of this dynasty are at Abu Sir; their construction is less careful than in those of the previous age. The last king, Unas, built his pyramid at Sakkara, and covered the chambers with long religious inscriptions for the guidance of the soul in the future life. Some of the finest sculptures are of this dynasty.

VIth Dynasty.—4200–4000 B.C. In this age there was a great expansion of Egyptian influence abroad; the Eastern Bedouin, Nubia, and the Oases were all subdued and added to Egyptian territory. Pyramids continued to be built at Sakkara, but they were only well wrought on the visible parts, and the bulk consisted of mere rubbish. The walls of the chambers were covered with long religious texts. The remains of temples are found over the whole country, from Tanis and Bubastis, in the Delta, up to Assouan; and quarries and mines were inscribed in the deserts of Hammamat and Sinai. The tombs of officials give interesting records of the expeditions in which they were engaged.

VIIth to XIth Dynasty.—4000–3450 B.C. Irruptions of foreigners now came in, and the country broke up into small principalities. For a few centuries building was interrupted, and no monuments were erected. Gradually the princes of Thebes, named Antef, grew in importance; they conquered neighbouring nomes; and their family began to rebuild the temples of the country at Thebes, Koptos, and Abydos. The main work left of this age is the funeral temple of Mentu-Hotep at Thebes, of which a colonnade of inscribed pillars is still standing.

XIIth Dynasty.—3450–3250 B.C. An age of magnificent monuments now dawned. Some of the monuments remain, though most have been destroyed. The work is not so vital as in the earlier times, but it is more regular and refined. The best-known work is the obelisk of Heliopolis, one of a pair erected before the temple by Senusert I. Another obelisk of his lies at Begig in the Fayoum. The pyramids of Illahun, Dahshur (brick), and Hawara belong to the later kings of this age. They are all built of brick, but the passages and casings were of fine limestone. The attacks on earlier royal tombs led these kings to make very elaborate concealment of the entrances to their tombs. At Hawara, Amenemhat III., contrary to usual custom, placed his entrance on the south side of the pyramid, and not in the middle. The lower part of the entrance passage opened on a passage ostentatiously open, while another passage was blocked up solid throughout. Yet the blocked passage was only a blind. The open passage led to a series of roof trap-doors, of blocks weighing many tons, and after other false pits were passed, the real chamber was reached. This consisted of a single enormous stone, twenty-six feet long, which was entered by a roof slab weighing forty-five tons. Senusert II. made a tomb at Abydos, opening from the bottom of an immense funnel filled with thousands of tons of sand, all of which must be moved before the passage could be reached. The passage then ran into a very deep chamber, high up in the wall. It really continued in the opposite wall. Another such chamber followed. Then it was blocked with red granite for a distance of thirty feet. Beyond this the sarcophagus was built into the side of the passage, which continued for hundreds of feet further, lined with slabs of polished quartzite, and ended in a blank. The whole interior was pulled to pieces by plunderers before the place of burial was

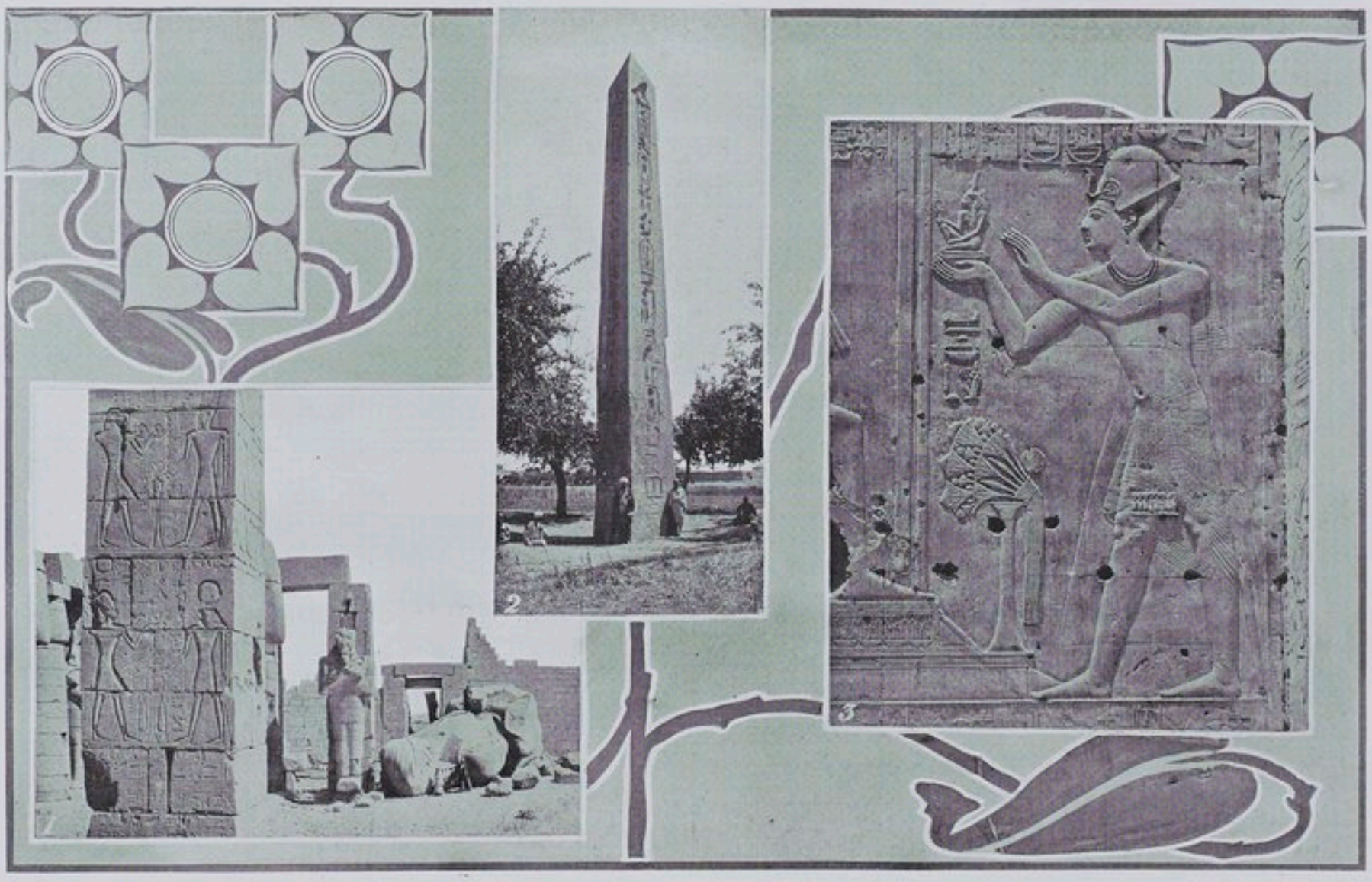


DIORITE STATUE OF KING KHAFRA, CONSTRUCTOR OF THE SECOND PYRAMID AT GIZEH.

discovered. The temples were adorned with monolith columns of red granite twenty to thirty feet high, some of which remain. The public works were the forts and temples of the Nubian frontier at Semneh and Kummeh, and the regulation of the Fayoum lake, so that it served as a reservoir at high Nile, and flowed out again as the Nile fell. As its area was about seven hundred square miles, it held a good deal more than the Nubian reservoir of the present day. Only a metre and a half of flow depth would equal the whole modern reservoir, and probably much more than this was utilized.

The private tombs of the feudal princes at Beni Hasan are celebrated for the variety and detail of the scenes of daily life there represented. They give an insight into all the trades and affairs carried on in the establishments of the great nobles.

XVIIIth Dynasty.—1587–1328 B.C. This age is the best-known and most popular of all in the history of Egypt. The earlier rulers were small black Nubians, but, mingled with Egyptians and Syrians, the family became of the lighter type. Aahmes I. (1587–1562) expelled the Hyksos rulers, and his son, Amenhetep I. (1562–1541), began the great age of monuments at Thebes. He built a magnificently carved temple of the finest limestone, which was pulled down for subsequent enlargements, and the sculptures have only come to light in recent work. Thothmes I. (1541–1516) began the present temple of Karnak at Thebes; three great pylons and the starting of the buildings of his successors are due to him. He also began the temples at Deir-el-Bahri and Medinet Habn at Thebes, and extended his work through Nubia up to Dongola. His twenty-eight years. His monuments are found at thirty-seven sites, and four transported obelisks of Constantinople, the Lateran, London, and New York are of his work. His main buildings are at Thebes, but there are at Karnak two beautiful lotus pillars of granite, two great courts of columns, rooms, and a pylon covered with sculptures; at Medinet Habn the body of the lesser temple; and at Qurnah a funeral temple. Several lesser temples in Nubia are also of this reign, and he completed the great temple of Deir-el-Bahri. The work of all these monuments is fine and careful, and about the highest level of later Egyptian sculpture is shown in it. The effect of the Syrian conquests is plainly seen in the use of Semitic words, new styles of work, and a new and more romantic type of face. Thousands of Syrian captives were brought



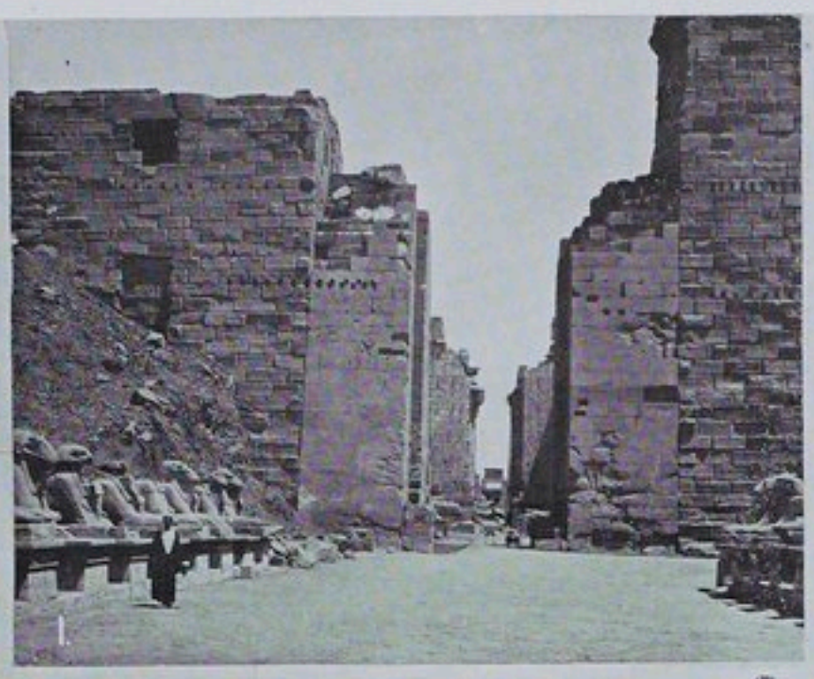
1. RAMESSEUM, TEMPLE AND COLOSSUS OF RAMESES II. 2. OBELISK OF SENUSERT I. AT HELIOPOLIS.
3. SETI I. AT ABYDOS.

XIIIth to XVIIth Dynasties.—3250–1587 B.C. The great civilization gradually decayed during some centuries, though monuments are found from Dongola down to the Delta. Gradually Semitic tribes from Mesopotamia and Syria pushed in and founded the dynasties (XV.–XVI.) of "princes of the desert," or Hyksos, much like the later Arab invasion. This rule was at last overcome by a Berber invasion from Nubia. No public monuments remain, except a great earth fort at Tell-el-Yehudiyeh, twenty miles north of Cairo, which was the centre of the Hyksos rule. This absence of monuments during about five hundred years is just like the barrenness of a similar period after the Arab invasion.

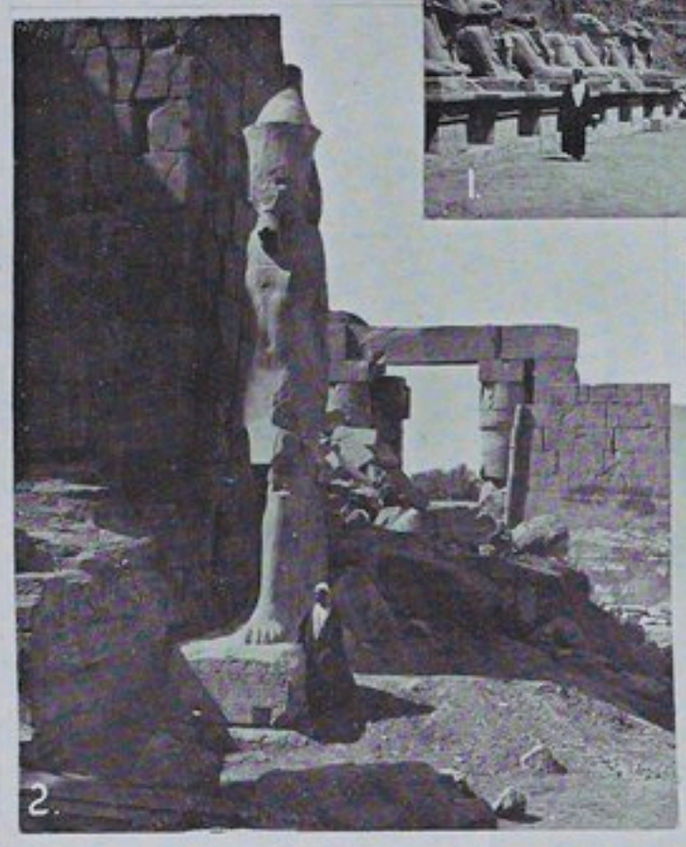
conquests in Asia as far as the Euphrates did not leave any monuments on that side. Thothmes II. was of no importance, but his great sister, Queen Hatshepset, is well-known by her works. The beautifully carved temple of Deir-el-Bahri was built by her, with scenes of the expedition to the land of Punt at the south end of the Red Sea, to obtain incense and other tropical products. She also set up the largest of the obelisks of Karnak.

The culmination of Egypt's foreign power was under Thothmes III., during his long reign of fifty-two years (1503–1449 B.C.). So soon as his aunt Hatshepset died he began the incessant conquests and plundering of Syria and Nubia which continued during into Egypt and settled in the higher families, and all the best artists from Syria were set to producing metal work and sculpture for their new masters. Two unimportant reigns of Amenhetep II. and Thothmes IV. (1449–1414 B.C.) lead to another great monarch.

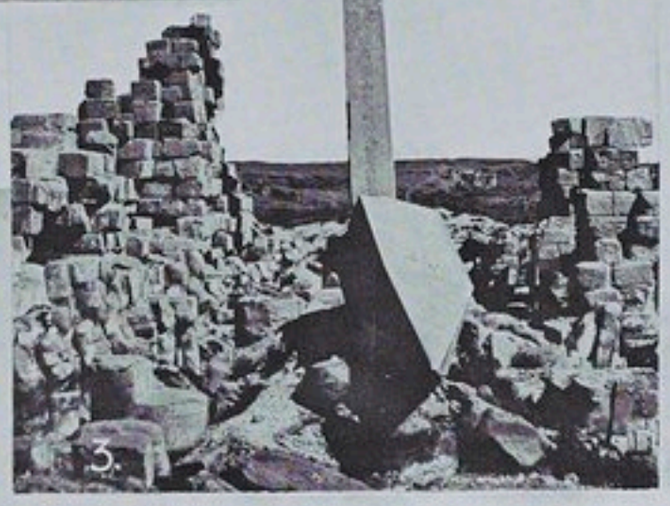
Amenhetep III. (1414–1379 B.C.) was the most magnificent ruler. The arts were specially cultivated by him, and foreign alliances and treaties secured the glory of Egypt abroad. To Karnak he added a vast pylon and two smaller temples. At Luqsor (Luxor) he built a splendid temple, with an avenue of sphinxes. At Qurnah he provided a grand funeral temple, of which only the two celebrated colossi (known as the Memnons), and a gigantic inscription on quartzite 30 feet



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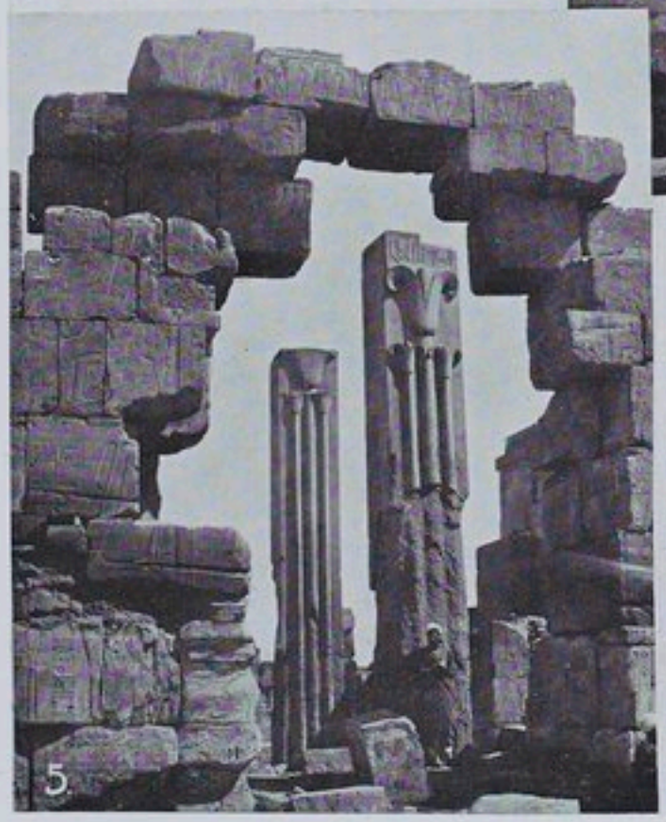
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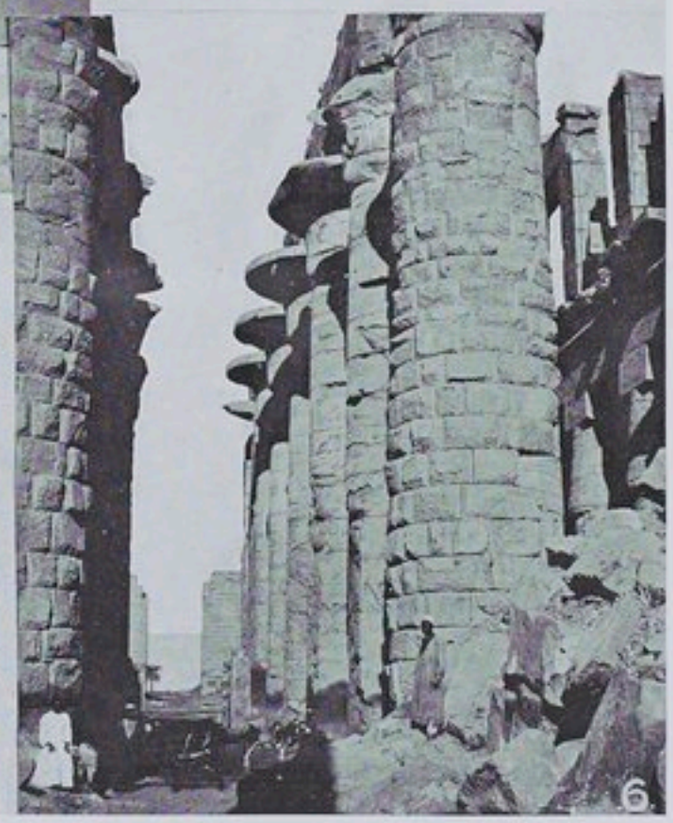
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6.

1. Avenue of Sphinx and the Pylon at Karnak.

2. Statue of Rameses II. at Karnak.

3. Obelisk of Hatshepslt at Karnak.

4. The Colonnade of Taharqa at Karnak.

5. Granite Pillars of Thothmes III. at Karnak.

6. Karnak Temple.

high, remain in place. The principal subject of the sculptures at Luxor is that of the divine birth of the king, the god Amon being his father, and Queen Mutemua his mother. This divine birth of the kings was by their earthly fathers acting as an impersonation of the god, dressed in the divine attributes. The connections with Mesopotamia were close, both in trade and marriage alliances; a large amount of correspondence about this has been preserved on clay tablets, which were found at Tell el Amarna. The summary of them all is published in "Syria and Egypt." They show a very active civilisation existing over all Syria and Mesopotamia at the time.

A most remarkable episode is that of the reforming king, Amenhetep IV., or Akhenaten (1383–1365 B.C.). He abolished all the Egyptian religion, and set up the worship of the sun's rays, a strictly scientific nature-worship. He established a new naturalistic art, and an unconventional ethical reform known as "Living in Truth." He appears as a strict monogamist, and a bigoted reformer, erasing all mention of the gods from all accessible monuments. His standing monuments are limited to a few rock tablets and a beautiful painted pavement at Tell el Amarna, as all his buildings were swept away by a revulsion after his death. The private tombs of this age have many details of the curious court of the king and the life of the time. Some obscure reigns fill the end of the dynasty (1365–1328 B.C.). The last king, Horemheb, built two pylons at Karnak and an avenue of 128 sphinxes.

XIXth Dynasty.—1328–1202 B.C. After the brief reign of Ramessu I. came that of the great builder, Seti I. (1326–1300 B.C.). An obelisk now at Rome is all that is standing of his work at Heliopolis. But the great temple of Abydos and the great hall of Karnak are both noble works. At Abydos the temple was built to honour the early dynasties who were buried there; and a long list of kings on the wall of a corridor is one of the most precious records known. The temple is in good condition, and gives an idea of the original aspect of such monuments when complete. The sculptures are beautifully executed, though they are scholastic rather than natural. At Karnak, the hall of columns is one of the largest halls known. Its area is between that of Notre Dame and Milan Cathedral, 338 by 170 feet, the nave 79 feet high, the sides 46 feet. The columns of the nave are each the size of Trajan's column at Rome; those of the side are 9 feet across. The size of the columns is the fault of the design. Owing to the height, large columns were needful, as the material was soft sandstone built up in sections; and, as the roof spans could not be increased in proportion, the columns crowd the whole area, the spaces being less than the column breadths. As it is, the spans of the roof slabs are dangerously wide, over 30 feet in the nave, and 17 feet in all the rest of the hall. It would be impossible to work on a larger scale except in a much harder material, or without a stone beam roof. On the outside of this hall are scenes of the wars of Seti in North Syria, reaching up to the borders of Asia Minor.



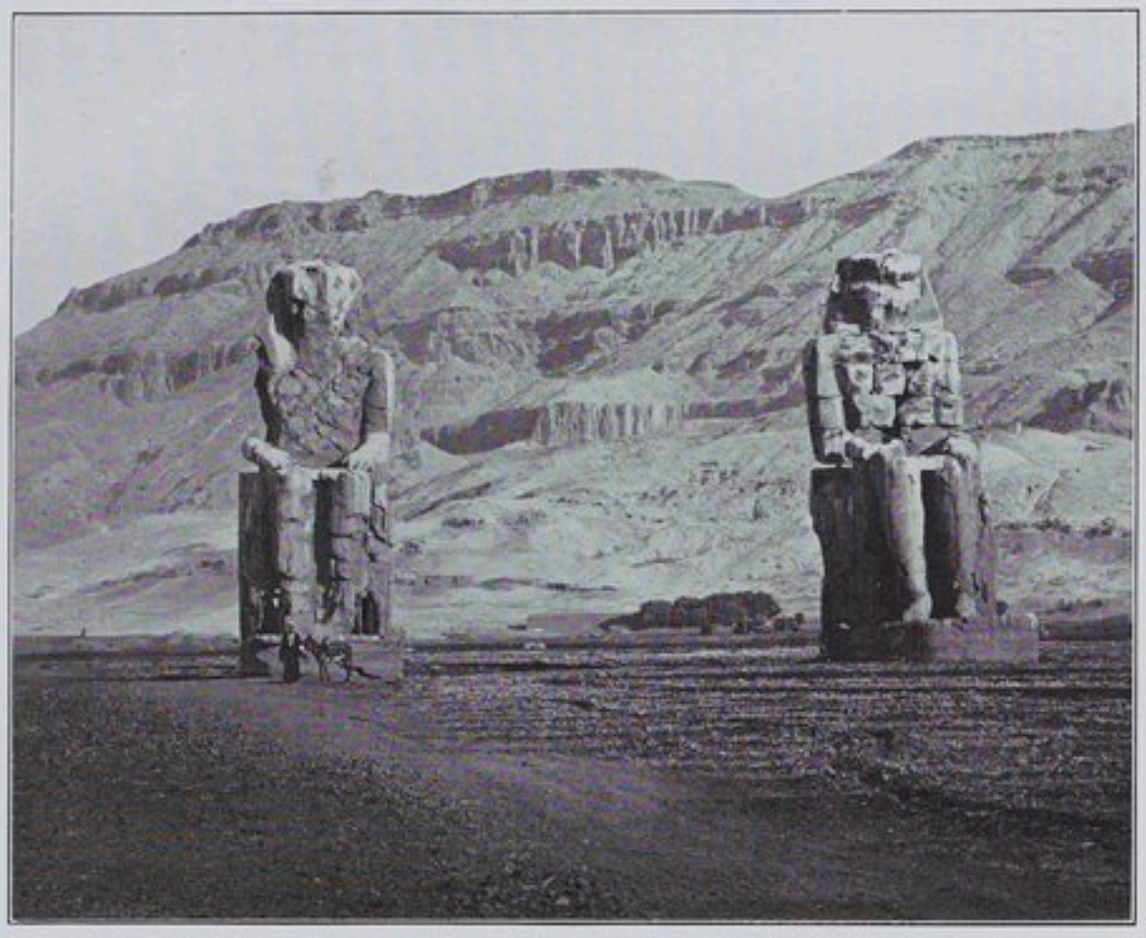
GENERAL VIEW OF THE TEMPLE OF HATASON, AT DEIR-EL-BAHARI.



THE CELEBRATED HATHOR COW, FROM DEIR-EL-BAHARI (XVIIIth dynasty).

Ramessu II. (1300–1234 B.C.) was the most boastful and unscrupulous of all the kings, and by his large works and appropriations he is better known than any other ruler. His own buildings are found at as many as sixty-six sites, and there are innumerable appropriations of the work of earlier kings. His colossal statues are most characteristic; that of Tanis was 92 feet high, and weighed over 800 tons, and that of the Ramesseum was a seated figure 57 feet high, weighing about 1,000 tons. At Luxor are eleven colossi each 23 feet high, all of granite like the others; and at Tanis were four colossi of quartzite. He also made a profusion of obelisks; at Tanis there were ten obelisks; two others were moved from Heliopolis to Rome, and there were two at Luxor, one of which is now in Paris. Besides these, he put his name on many obelisks of earlier kings; and some of his own obelisks he had entirely refaced and re-engraved. Of his great buildings at Tanis, Memphis, and many other northern sites, there is but little left. At Abydos there are sculptures of his on the temple of Seti, and he built a lesser temple also. At Karnak he completed the great hall of Seti, and at Luxor he added a large court before the temple. At the Ramesseum he built and carved a large funerary temple for himself, and in Nubia he carved seven temples, including that of Abu Simbel, which is perhaps the most striking

work of this reign. The four colossi carved in the rock, which are seated along the back of the fore-court of the temple, are 65 feet high. The carvings inside the rock temple are mainly duplicates of scenes of campaigns at Thebes, but are in better condition. All of



COLOSSI OF AMENHETEP III. (His great Temple stood behind these.)

these Nubian temples were mainly carved in the sandstone rock; the material excavated serving to build the fore-courts and approaches, which have now been mostly removed. He had at least one hundred and forty children; so probably every Egyptian now is descended from him.

Merenptah (1234–1214 B.C.) appropriated many sculptures, but there is no building of his standing, except a shrine of Osiris at Abydos. He is best known by his granite statue and long inscription in Cairo. This shows that he repelled a great invasion of Algerian tribes, and fought "the people of Israel" in Palestine. Unimportant kings occupy the rest of this dynasty (1214–1202 B.C.).

XXth Dynasty.—1202–1102 B.C. This is a strange series of one king and eight of his sons; and of these only Ramessu III., the father, was of any importance. Ramessu III. (1202–1170 B.C.) was the last of the great building kings of Egypt for many centuries to come. He built three temples at Karnak, two of which are still in good condition, and, above all, the great temple at Medinet Habu, which is the last of the funerary temples and, therefore, the best preserved. The tower-entrance is the only instance of such a copy of fortifications, the figures of conquered races on either side of the door are careful racial portraits, and the groups of prisoners and scenes of battle by sea and by land are some of the most valuable historical subjects. Three great wars are represented. That of the fifth year was an overthrow of the Algerian and Tunisian invaders from the west; in the eighth year a league of the Hittites and north Syrians with the Cretans and other sea people was repelled by a naval battle and by the Syrian war; and in the eleventh year another attack from Algeria was again repelled. Of the internal affairs and religious endowments, an account is preserved in the papyrus written as a recital of his good deeds to be used by the king's soul in the judgment. About a sixth of the whole area of Egypt was given as religious endowments, in addition to 160 towns in Egypt, 169 towns in Syria, £80,000 of gold (worth vastly more then), and a great amount of other offerings. The XXIst dynasty (1102–952 B.C.) was a time of weakness and division which has left scarcely any monuments.

We should here mention the great rock tombs of the kings of the XVIIIth–XXth dynasties, as they are some of the most striking monuments. They are cut in wild and desolate valleys at Thebes, remote from all traffic. About thirty tombs of kings and princes are known, many of which have been discovered in recent years, and from some of them most valuable furniture and jewellery has been removed to the Cairo Museum. Most of these tombs are covered with religious sculptures, to give a guide to the royal soul in its journeys in the under-world; they are thus entirely funerary and not historical. The most elaborate of all these tombs is that of King Seti I. It is 328 feet long in the rock. The passage alternates between steep staircases and sloping corridors, descending more than a hundred feet, and opening into six halls with pillars. The carving is as fine as that in the temple at Abydos; and of special interest are the bold free-hand drawings in perfectly smooth outline, which had not yet been sculptured.

XXIInd Dynasty.—952–749 B.C. This opens with Shishak, who conquered Judæa and carved his scene of triumph on the outside of the great hall at Karnak. But there are no buildings of this dynasty or of its continuation in the XXIIIrd dynasty, 755–721 B.C., except a chapel to Osiris at Karnak and blocks of granite forming a great pylon at Bubastis. The Ethiopian occupation from 748–664 B.C. has left but few remains. The great column of Taharka in the fore-court at Karnak is one of a colonnade which has been removed in the last century. Two other chapels and pylons comprise all the rest of the original work. Egypt was divided into twenty little principalities, which were ruled by suzerains in Ethiopia or Assyria.

XXVIth Dynasty.—664–525 B.C. Another age of great monuments now begins, but owing to most of these monuments having been of limestone they have all perished, and there is not a single building to be shown of the whole period. It was one of the rich and flourishing ages of Egypt, well-known to us by its contact with the Greek world; and an abundance of small objects in museums show that there was a high level of art. The Persian XXVIIth dynasty (525–405 B.C.) is similarly bare, excepting the temple in the Oasis of Khargeh.

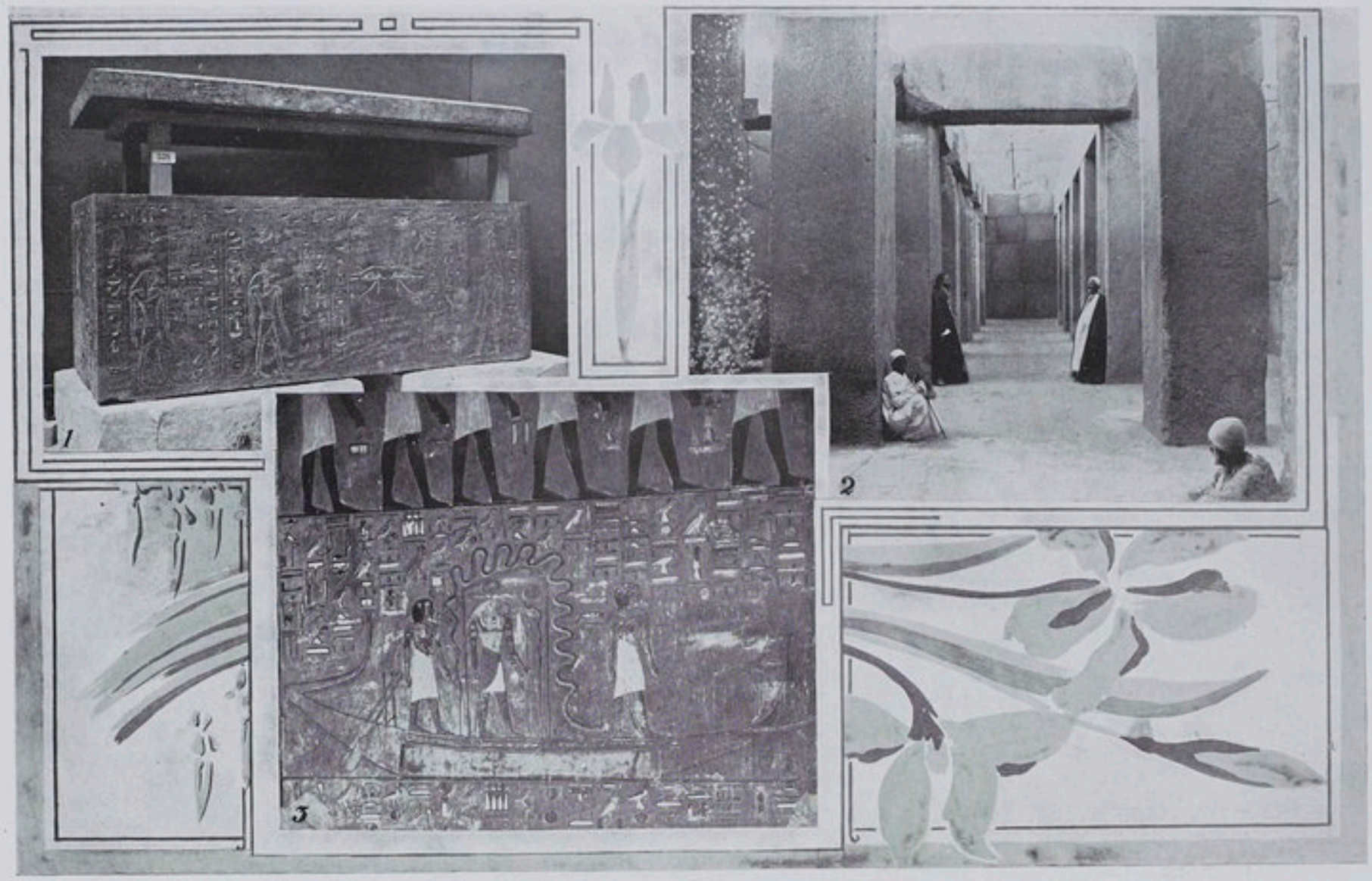
XXIXth–XXXth Dynasties.—399–342 B.C. The same dearth of buildings continues, owing to their destruction for lime. The great sandstone pylon of Karnak was begun and the great pylon of Philæ was sculptured by Nekht-nebef. Six shrines of granite remain also of this age, at Edfu and in the Cairo Museum.

Ptolemies.—332–30 B.C. Egypt flourished greatly in this dynasty, and the wealth of the great temple estates led to a large amount of building. The most complete temples all belong to this age, and, though inferior in art, they are the only buildings which enable us to realise the grandeur of such works when complete. Philæ was built during various reigns, from Nekht-nebef, 350 B.C., to Aurelius, 170 A.D. It was by far the most beautiful group of buildings in Egypt for its arrangement and situation and for the condition of the colouring. But it has been sacrificed to money-making enterprises. Edfu temple was built entirely in the Ptolemaic age, 237 to 57 B.C. It is the most complete of all the temples, and shows the perfect type of temple with advanced pylon and girdle wall. Ombos is later, having been built between 60 B.C. and 90 A.D.; it is

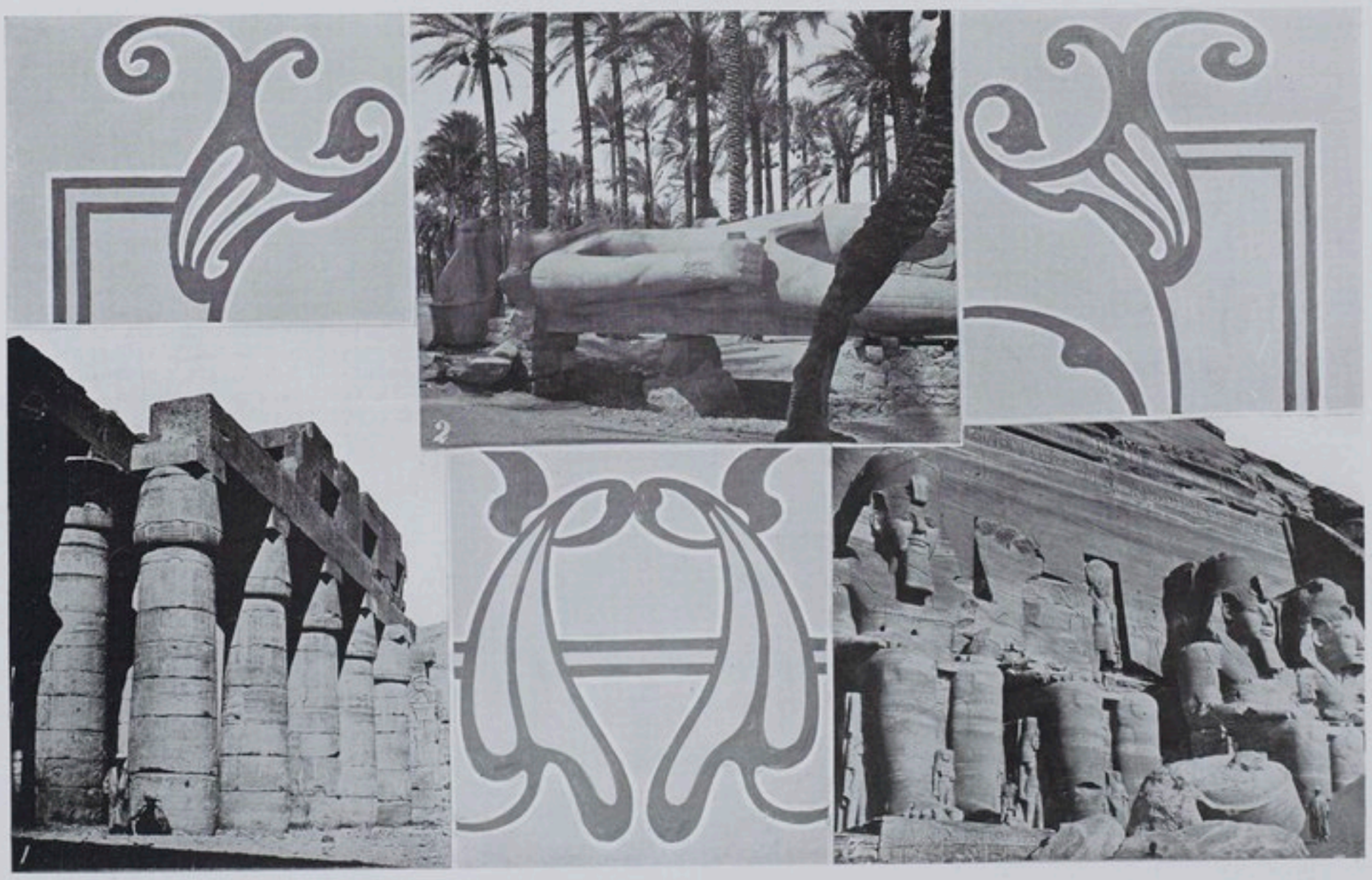


THE HEAD OF RAMESSU II. (XIXth DYNASTY).

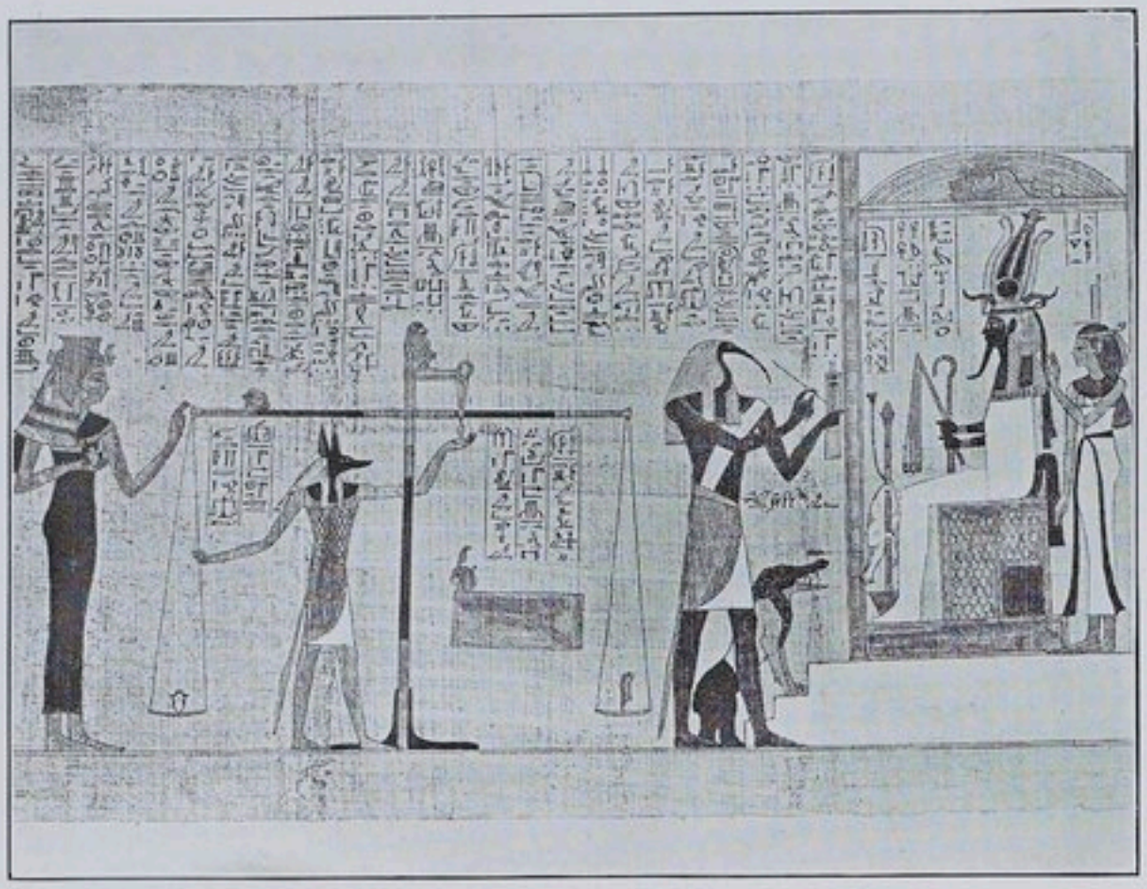
remarkable for being a double temple with two shrines side by side for Horus and the crocodile god Sebek. Esneh temple dates from 150 B.C., but its great portico is Roman, and it contains the latest example of hieroglyphic names, that of Decius 250 A.D. At



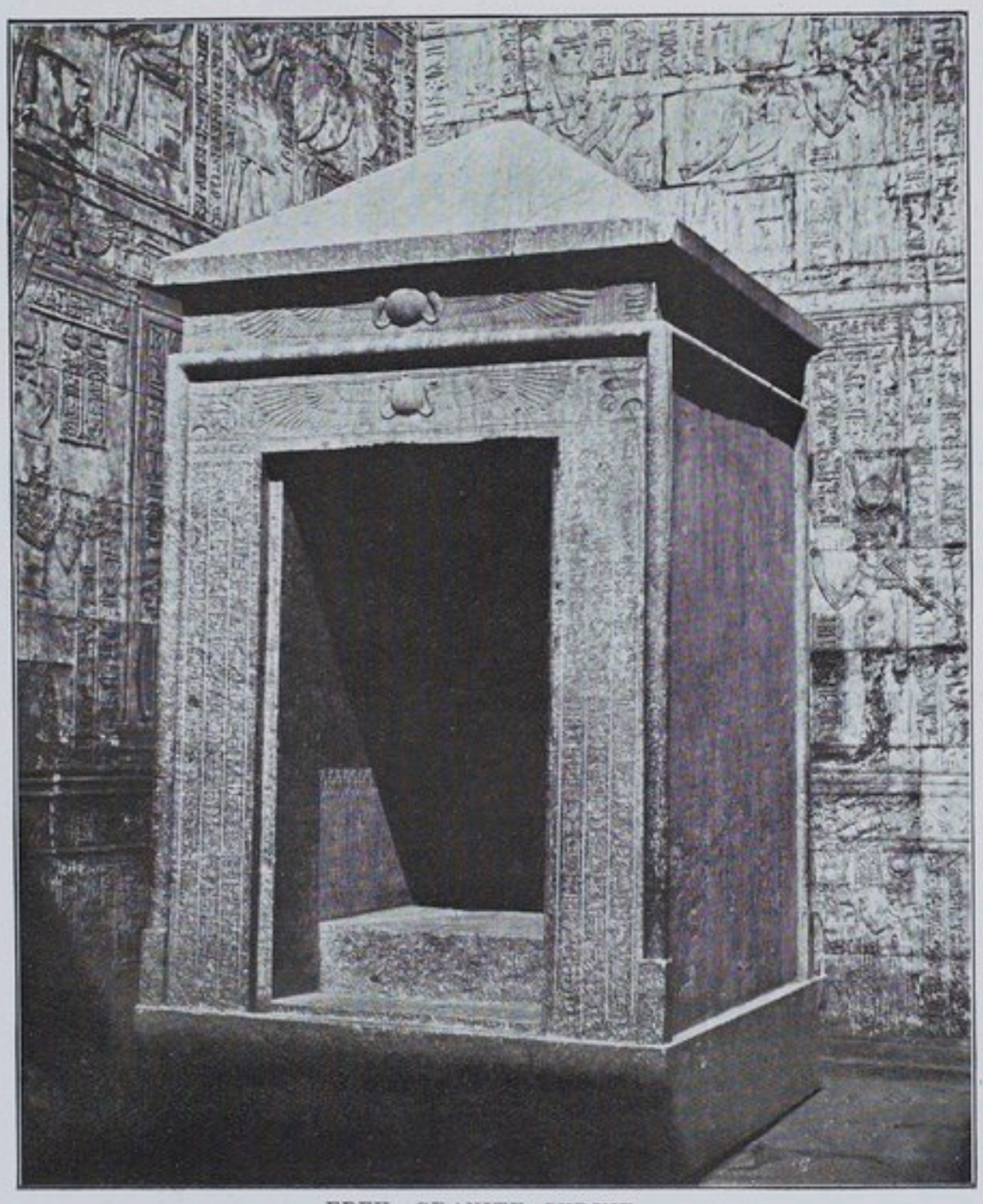
1. SARCOPHAGUS OF QUEEN HATSHEPSET (XVIIIth DYNASTY).
2. GRANITE TEMPLE OF KHAFRA, GIZEH. 3. TOMB OF SETI I.



1. RAMESSEUM, THE COLONNADES. 2. STATUE OF RAMESSU II. AT SAKKARA. 3. ABUSIMBEL. TEMPLE OF RAMESSU II.



JUDGMENT BY OSIRIS.



EDFU. GRANITE SHRINE.

Athribis, opposite Sohag, there are walls of another large temple dating from 60 B.C. to 130 A.D. And at Dendeneh there is a fine temple, of which the approaches were never finished. It begins with Cleopatra and her son Cæsarion, and was continued till 120 A.D. All of these temples are much alike in general effect, but Edfu is the most instructive and Philæ was the most beautiful.

Entering on the Christian age a remarkable translation of the temple form to the design of a church is seen at the Deir-el-Abyael, near Sohag, the work of Theodosius, 380 A.D.; while near it is another church built probably twenty years later, which has finally lost the temple pattern and is the first of the long series of Coptic churches of the middle ages. Happily, the Theodosian temple is being admirably cleaned and set in order without any imitation of the original sculpture.

RELIGION.

The Egyptian remains are so bound up with the religious systems of the country that some outline of the latter is needful to an understanding of the ancient people. Owing to the burying of the towns with their civil life under the Nile soil, we are dependent on the tombs in the desert-edge for our acquaintance with the ancient life. Hence, we have come to regard the ancient Egyptian as mainly concerned with the future life and religious views. Probably such aspects did not really occupy much more attention than in other ages.

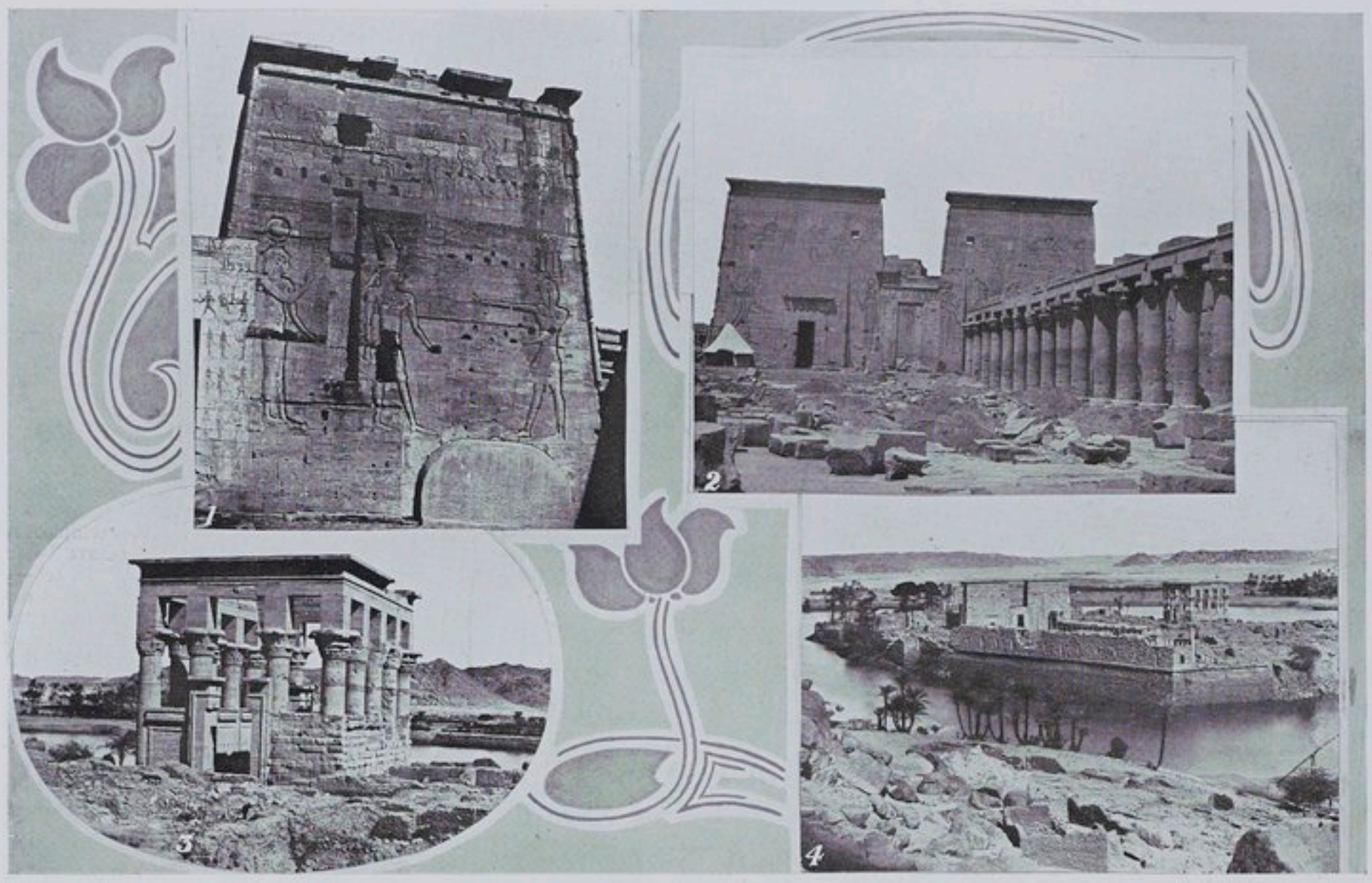
The various races that entered Egypt each brought in their own gods, and gradually an accumulation of contradictory beliefs and worships was piled together; one or other part or combination of all these ideas became prevalent at various times. Here we will note the main layers of the religious beliefs. The most ancient relate to animal worship, while species of different animals were sacred at different places—hawks at Edfu, baboons at Eshmuneyn, bulls at Memphis, rams at Thebes, &c. This worship became combined with that of later gods at each place, but yet the animal worship was the most fervently held by the populace down to the Roman age.

Another group was that of the human gods —Osiris, Isis, Horus, Nebhat, &c. These probably belonged to the introduction of the prehistoric civilisation. In the early dynasties Osiris hardly appears officially, he was more worshipped in the XIIth, still more in the XVIIIth–XXth dynasties, and by Greek times Osiris and Isis eclipsed all the other deities in importance. The main aspect of Osiris was as god of the dead, who all went to the kingdom of Osiris, and there enjoyed a life like that upon earth.

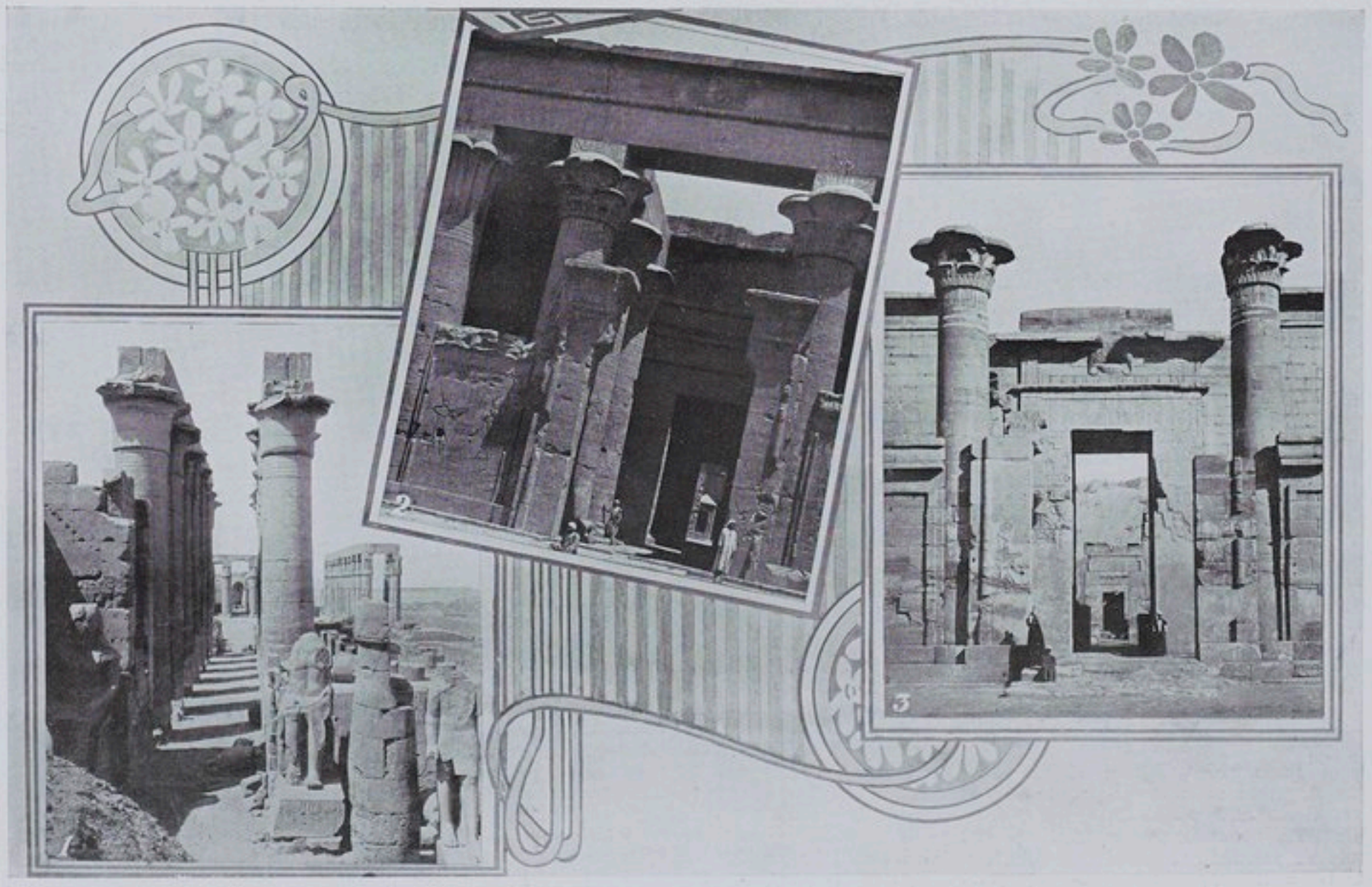
Another group is formed by the nature-gods. Ra is the sun, Aah the moon, Seb the earth, Nut the heaven, Shu is space. None of these was dominant except Ra; the Vth dynasty specially worshipped him, and all the kings became called sons of the sun. In the XIXth dynasty the future life was believed to consist in joining the sun.

The abstract gods form a different group. Min, the father god; Hathon, the mother god; Ptah, the workman god who made all things; and Sekhmet, the goddess of vengeance.

There were similarly entirely different beliefs about the soul. According to one race it hovered about the cemetery like a bird, and needed food and drink, which were placed with the body. Others thought that it went to the kingdom of Osiris, was weighed

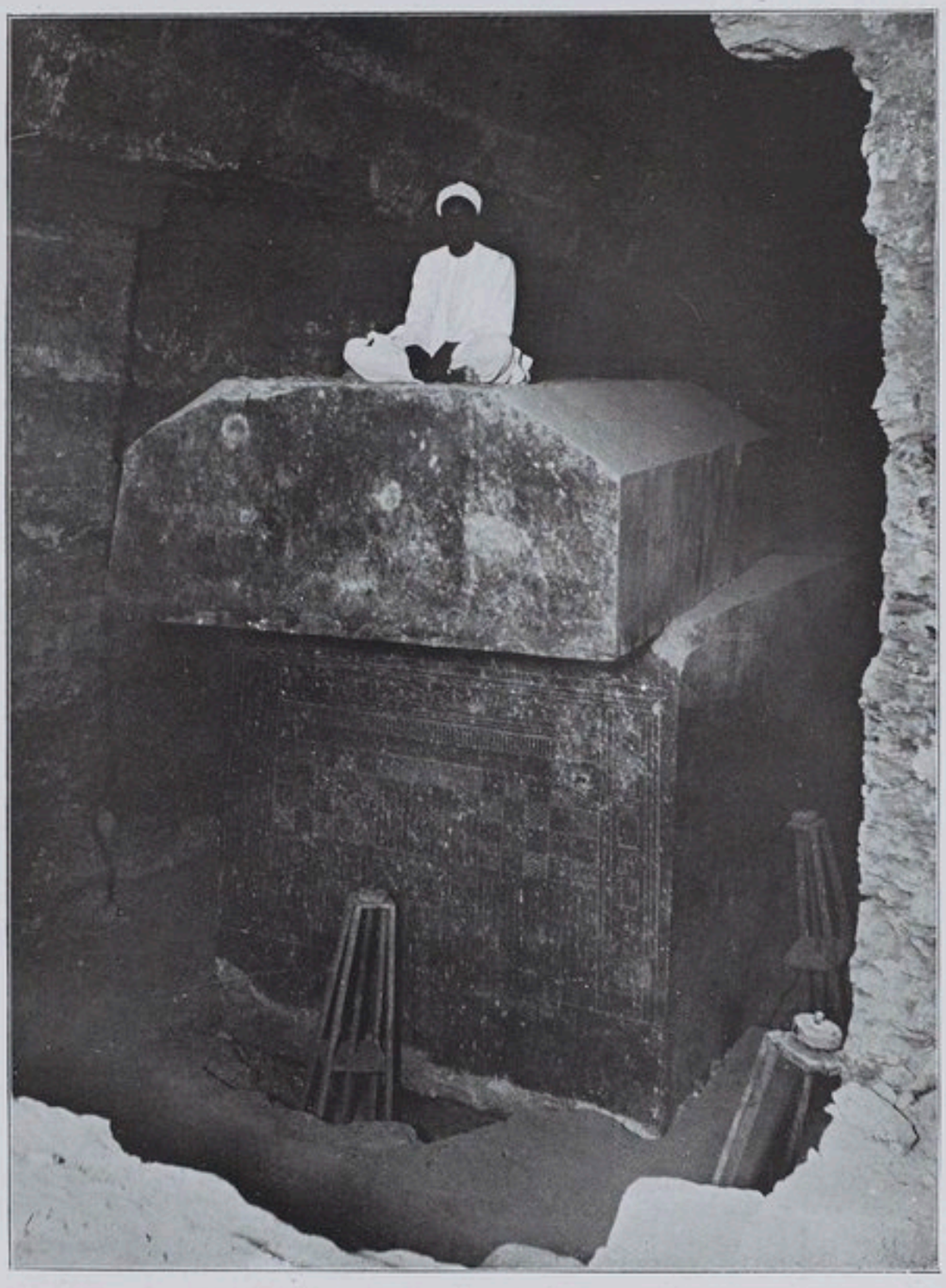


1. PHILÆ, PYLON WITH GRANITE ROCK CARVED IN PLACE BELOW (late Ptolemaic).
2. PHILÆ, PYLONS WITH THE COLONNADES OF THE TEMPLE OF PTAH (late Ptolemaic).
3. PHILÆ, PAVILION OF TRAJAN.
4. PHILÆ, BEFORE THE DAM WAS CONSTRUCTED.



1. EDFU, LATE PTOLEMAIC TEMPLE, GRANITE SHRINE IN DISTANCE.
2. LUXOR TEMPLE.
3. MEDINET HABU, LATE PTOLEMAIC GATE.

in judgment before him, and then enjoyed a heavenly world of planting and reaping, eating and gaming. For this class were provided hundreds of figures of slaves in the



SARCOPHAGUS OF A SACRED BULL AT SAKKARA.
(Dating from the time of Cleopatra.)

tomb. Another belief was that the soul joined the boat of the sun, and therefore a model boat was placed in the tomb for the conveyance of the soul to the sun. When the sun-worship first became dominant an actual full-sized boat was provided. Others, again, thought of a bodily renewal at a future time, and deposited amulets with different parts of the body to renew them from the mummified state in which they were carefully preserved.

All of these religions and beliefs were mingled together in different proportions, at various times and places and by various people. This complex mixture, which can scarcely be yet distinguished by scholars, is what is commonly known as Egyptian religion.

THE POSITION OF RESEARCH.

After the system of Consular plundering, varied by free fights, which went on in the earlier part of the last century, there came the period of personal control by Mariette, which involved the exclusion of every one who could be kept out of the subject in Egypt. Unfortunately, Mariette had no sense of the delicacy of his responsibilities, and much was indirectly destroyed and lost during his dictatorship (1858–80). The policy of his successor, Prof. Maspero, has always been liberal, and in the interests of scientific research. But his administration has been incessantly hampered by political considerations. Beginning with the British Occupation, there has been a commercial expansion of the business of the country, which involved at every turn interference with the preservation of its remains. The fatal political taint, owing to the Department of Antiquities being regarded as a French preserve, debarred it from that full co-operation of the police and other branches under British influence which was essential if it should cope with the new difficulties and conditions. It has been always understaffed and underpaid, and unable to deal with the rising tide of commercial, tourist, and dealers' interference. The tombs and monuments have been broken and mutilated for selling purposes, the cemeteries have been plundered wholesale by illicit digging without any record; and too late, in many cases, have iron gates been put on the tombs, and a few active English inspectors given an impossible task of controlling hundreds of miles of country. The demolition of the temples of Nubia and Philæ must result in a century or two from the commercial enterprise of the great dam at Assouan, though a very small percentage of the profits to be realised by that would have moved all the temples to higher ground, where they might have lasted for thousands of years longer. In every direction a want of imagination and of interest, and a political canker, has made the last quarter of a century the most fatal in all history to the antiquities of Egypt. All that has been done for their preservation is only a minor part of what was needful.

Meanwhile the fair policy of Prof. Maspero has encouraged much public work by European students; and the system of allowing the half of the antiquities discovered (which is not necessary for the Cairo Museum) to be distributed to public museums, has brought in a steady flow of foreign resources to the work. Here we will mention those bodies which publish the results of their researches.

The largest of these is the British School of Archæology, supported by private subscription, publishing usually two volumes yearly. This institution is mainly occupied in the excavation of the temples of Memphis, the great capital—a task which will engage it for many years. Subsidiary work is carried on at other sites, and an annual exhibition is held at University College, London. The Egypt Exploration Fund, also privately supported, publishes yearly. The results of the Theodore Davis excavations at the Tombs of



THE HEAD OF SETI I. (XIXth DYNASTY).

the Kings are generally published each year. The German Oriental Gesellschaft issues a small journal and occasional volumes. The

American work for California has begun to publish. The French School publishes a series occasionally. It is much to be wished that it were compulsory for all results to be fully published at once, and that various other courses of excavation should be either stopped or made public. The standing difficulty in the way of British work is that the higher posts in Egyptian antiquities are pledged to other nationalities, so that no prizes of position are open to the numerous British students who wish to enter on the work as a profession. There is no country that has produced so many workers, raised so much money from private interest, or published so many volumes of work as England, and this has been done without any of the Government grants and support and diplomatic help that have been freely used for other nationalities.

DIMENSIONS OF THE PYRAMIDS.

THE GREAT PYRAMID (KHUFU).

	Originally ft.	To-day. ft.
Length of side at the base ...	785	775
Height	461	451
Flat space at top		30 (29)
Entrance (above ground) ...		45
Total length of passages (about)		600
Queen's Chamber (size) ...		17×19×20
King's Chamber (size) ...		35×17×19
„ „ height above base		140
Size of air-shaft (North) ...		234×$\frac{3}{4}$×$\frac{1}{2}$
„ „ „ (South) ...		174×$\frac{3}{4}$×$\frac{1}{2}$

KHAFRA'S PYRAMID.

	ft.
Length of side at the base ...	700
Height	450
Upper entrance (above ground)	50
Upper passage	105
Lower „	100
Belzoni's Chamber (size) ...	46½×16½×22½

MENKAURA'S PYRAMID.

Length of side at the base ...	350
Height	215
Entrance (above ground) ...	13
Total length of passages ...	200
First Chamber (length) ...	40
Second „ („) ...	44
Third „ („) ...	?

THE SPHINX.

Length of body	150
„ „ paws	50
„ „ head	30
Width of face	14
Total height	70

MUSEUM OF EGYPTIAN ANTIQUITIES, CAIRO.

BY H. E. BRUGSCH PASHA, Conservator.

THE foundation of this museum—the richest in the world—is due to Auguste Mariette, a Frenchman, born on February 11, 1821, at Boulogne-Sur-Mer, where he received his education. This successful student of archæology attracted the attention of Charles Lenormant, a pupil of the celebrated Champollion de Saulcy, and Longperier. Invited to Paris, Mariette became attached to the museum of the Louvre in 1848. Two years later he left for Egypt with the concurrence of the French Government, in order to study Coptic and Syriac manuscripts. On his arrival, he found so many difficulties in the way of obtaining access to the different monasteries and libraries, that, not willing to waste his time, he set himself to study the sites of the ancient Egyptian temples and cities. He commenced with Sakkara, where he spent several years, and made the great discovery of the Serapeum, the burial-place of the sacred bulls. This work was followed by excavations around the great Sphinx at Gizeh, and resulted in the discovery of the granite temple of the Sphinx. Returning to France, Mariette was again attached to the Louvre, but he came back to Egypt in 1856, after the death of the Viceroy, Abbas Pasha, who had suspended Mariette's operations, and was deputed by Said Pasha to make excavations and establish a museum. The building placed at his disposal for the latter purpose had served as offices for the Government and the Nile Steam Navigation Company, and was not very suitable for a museum. With great skill, however, Mariette converted it into a museum, which, small at the start, was soon filled with monuments from Sakkara, Gizeh, Abydos, Thebes, Meidoum, Tanis, and other places. Many of the principal monuments of interest and value date from this time. Included among them are the statue of the chief of the village, the Shepherd monuments, the statue of King Khafra, the statues of Meidoum, and the jewellery of Queen Aah-hotep.

Upon the death of Mariette, which took place on January 17, 1881, Mr. J. Maspero, Professeur du College de France, was appointed to the museum. His term of office was marked by the discovery of the royal mummies in Deir-el-Bahari; by the equipment of a new room with Coptic monuments which had been rather neglected by Mariette; and by the addition of so many other objects that the accommodation of the museum was exhausted.

Nevertheless, for three years after Mr. Maspero's resignation, in 1886, his successor, Mr. Grebant, was obliged to remain in the old building. At length, when even the magazines were crowded with monuments, the urgent necessity for more adequate accommodation could no longer be denied, and, on January 12, 1890, after a year of arduous labour, the palace of Gizeh, built by Ismael Pasha, was opened as a museum.

At the end of a little more than five years, Mr. Grebant left the service, and the vacancy was filled by Mr. J. de Morgan, who added to the museum the splendid jewellery



DOCTOR BRECCIA,
Director, Alexandria Museum.

H. E. BRUGSCH PASHA,
Conservator, Cairo Museum.

CAPTAIN S. S. FLOWER,
Director, Zoological Gardens, Cairo.

belonging to the XIIth dynasty that he found in Dashour.

Though containing over one hundred rooms, and large enough to meet all requirements for years to come, the palace of Gizeh had the serious disadvantage of not being fireproof, and the Government therefore decided to erect a special building in Cairo. The work was executed without delay, and the inauguration took place on November 15, 1902, under the directorship of Professor Maspero, who, in the meantime, had returned to Egypt to resume his old duties, Mr. de Morgan's régime having lasted five years, and been followed by that of Professor Loret for two years.

Since that date the number of antiquities added to the collection has been so great, and others are arriving so rapidly, that an extension of the existing accommodation is inevitable in the near future. The present building occupies, between the ground floor and upper storey, about 12,000 square metres. The ground floor contains all the heavy monuments—sarcophagi, statues, sphinxes, stelæ and architectural pieces, and sacred shrines (Naoi)—arranged chronologically, and commencing with the Memphitic period. Amongst them are granite and alabaster sarcophagi (principal gallery, west wing) of the IVth dynasty, and large stelæ of the IVth, Vth, and VIth dynasties. Room B contains the celebrated wooden statue of the chief of the village, the diorite statue of King Khafra, the constructor of the second pyramid at Gizeh; and a painting on plaster representing geese in the act of feeding, and dating back to the IIIrd or IVth dynasty. In room D are placed the two remarkable statues of Meidoum, which also belong to the IIIrd or IVth dynasty. They are of painted limestone and represent Prince Ra-hotep and Princess Nefert. The eyes, made of quartz, look as bright as natural ones. In the same room there are many stelæ and statues. Prominent amongst them are three in life-size dating from the Vth dynasty—two of them representing a high priest named Ra-nofir, and the third, Ti, the owner of the celebrated tomb in Sakkara.

The middle empire monuments fill four rooms. Amongst the most remarkable are the ten large limestone statues of King Ousertasen I., XIIth dynasty, found in Lischt; the wooden statue of King Horus, from Dashour, XIIIth dynasty; and the tomb of Hirhotep from Thebes, XIIth dynasty. There are, also, a great number of granite and limestone statues representing kings and high functionaries of that time. In the side wing are the celebrated monuments of the Shepherd Kings found at Tanis, Lower Egypt. They take the form of statues and sphinxes, and their strange features show that they belonged probably to an Asiatic race. Amongst them are a double group of two standing figures bearing on their outstretched hands waterfowl, intermingled with lotus flowers, their heads covered with large wigs, their upper lips shaved, and their chins covered with long beards (XIVth–XVIth dynasties).

The adjoining rooms (I—M) are reserved for statues, stelæ, and bas-reliefs belonging to the XVIIIth and XIXth dynasties. In room I in the middle of the eastern wall is seen the chapel of the Hathor Cow, found in 1906 at Deir-el-Bahari. In front of it stands the cow, one of the best pieces of animal work ever discovered in Egypt. Other remarkable pieces are a statue of King Thothmes III.; the head of King Menephtah (according to Mariette); and the head of Queen Tayi, wife of King Amenophis III. A granite stela of King Thothmes III. is inscribed with a poem celebrating the monarch's victories; and a stela of Amenophis III. depicting the King driving his chariot over the corpses of his fallen enemies, recalls his victories in Mesopotamia, Ethiopia, Palestine, and Syria. The west wall is covered with stelæ and bas-reliefs of the time of Amenophis IV., the heretic king.

The north gallery (rooms K—M) contains bas-reliefs and stelæ of the XIXth and XXth dynasties. At the east end is the famous table of Sakkara, found in the tomb of Tounari, enumerating a long list of kings from the Ist to the VIth, and the XIth, XIIth, XVIIIth, and XIXth dynasties.

In the north portico a celebrated stela bears long inscriptions on both sides. That on the eastern side is in honour of King Amenophis III., while that on the western side is of much later date and refers to Menephtah, son of Rameses II., and bears the year 5 of the king's reign. The inscription relates to his campaign against the Libyans and the state of the conquered lands of the Kheta, Canaan, Ascalon, and Syria. In this inscription the name of Israel written in Egyptian characters appears for the first time.

The great group of compact limestone, over 22 feet high, representing King Amenophis III., his wife, and three daughters, comes from Medinet Habou. It was brought to the museum piece by piece, and reconstructed in 1908. Some parts had been lost and were replaced, but the beads remain intact. To the east of this group is a sarcophagus of silicious red sandstone, which belonged to King Thothmes I., and to the west there is a similar sarcophagus of Queen Hatasou. Both were removed from Thebes. The rest of the monuments in the Atrium take the form of colossal statues of the kings of the XIIth and XIIIth dynasties, usurped more or less by Rameses II. and his son Menephtah. A quadrangular altar of granite with the name of Ousertasen I., and a pyramidion of black granite with the name of King Amenemhat I. (probably the tip-stone of his pyramid) are seen near the entrance. Both date from the XIIth dynasty. The eastern wing and the side rooms are devoted to monuments dating from the XIXth to the XXVIth dynasties. Room O contains a large sphinx from Tanis, a splendid red granite column with lotus-bud capital, and a great number of statues of the XIXth and XXth dynasties.

The room containing the monuments of the XXVIth to the XXXth dynasties is known as the room of the Naoi, from the great number of such monuments placed in it. The most noticeable feature is a group on the southern side, composed of the cow Hathor, the god Osiris, the goddess Isis, and a table of offerings (Serpentine) found in Sakkara in the tomb of a certain Psammetichus, who is represented with the cow stretching her neck over him to protect him. The modelling and preservation are perfect.

The next room contains the monuments of the Græco-Roman period. The most valuable of these are the two bilingual stelæ, containing the decree issued by Canopus in the city of Canopus in honour of Ptolemy Euergetes I., and written in hieroglyphic Demotic and Greek characters. In the side gallery are exposed the Ethiopian monuments from Gebel Barkal and Meroë.

The adjoining room is fitted up with Coptic monuments, stelæ, capitals, long bands of sculptured limestone, showing foliage, spirals, meander-like processions of animals, cupids, and nereids. The stelæ are mostly epitaphs.

The east wing of the principal gallery contains the granite sarcophagi of the Saïtic and Ptolemaic period, most of them from Sakkara. They are more or less richly ornamented with representations taken from the "Book of the Dead."

The upper storey of the museum is occupied by objects characteristic of ancient Egyptian domestic and civil life, such as furniture, pottery, tools, jewellery, weapons, alabaster ware, models of boats, mirrors, musical instruments, toilet requisites, coffins, and mummies. They relate chiefly to the Pharaohs of the XVIIIth, XIXth, and XXth dynasties, amongst these (in the northern gallery, west wing) being Amosis I., Seti I., his son Rameses the Great, the Thothmes family, Amenophis III., Queen Nefritari, Queen Aah-hotep, &c. In the principal galleries of the first storey there is a collection of several hundred wooden coffins. The majority of these date from the XXIst and XXIInd dynasties, and are painted in bright colours, highly ornamented, and in a splendid state of preservation. They belong to the High Priests of Amon and their families, and were found east of Deir-el-Bahari, Thebes, in 1891.

The collection of papyri is a rich one and fills two rooms. The design and colouring of some of the specimens show great skill, and the colours are as fresh as if the artist had finished his work only yesterday.

The smaller Coptic objects, placed in one of the side rooms comprise terra-cotta vases, bronze lamps, chandeliers, censers, incense burners, bottles, paintings, keys highly ornamented (from monasteries), carved wooden and ivory panels, silver crosses inlaid with gold, &c.

The next room contains a collection of objects with which the tombs were furnished. Conspicuous in this collection are funeral barks—some manned by sailors, and others bearing the deceased in his coffin.

The long east side gallery is filled with cases containing amulets, furniture, writing materials, funeral statuettes, cartouches, pectorals, &c. Room R contains weights, cubic and liquid measures, scales, squares, levels, plumb lines, models of houses, and ornaments in enamelled earth.

In Room N there are thirty leaves of parchment, pages 2 to 10 of which contain part of the apocryphal gospel of St. Peter, pages 13 to 19 a fragment of the Apocalypse of St. Peter, and pages 21 to 66 the greater part of the book of Enoch. In the big showcases of the same room there are whole series of terra-cotta and glass ware, portraits of the Græco-Roman period, and monuments bearing inscriptions in the Aramaic, Phœnician, and Syrian dialects.

The north gallery contains mummies and coffins of the Græco-Roman epoch, terra-cotta ware, bronzes, portraits painted on wood, and heads of coffins made in plaster-of-Paris. In the centre room a collection of jewels is exhibited dating from the Ist dynasty up to the Byzantine period. The most remarkable objects in this, the finest collection of its kind in the world, are the four bracelets of the Ist dynasty, the jewels of the XIIth dynasty found at Dashour, gold jugs, gold bracelets bearing the name of Rameses II. (XIXth dynasty), the treasure found on the mummy of Queen Aah-hotep (XVIIIth dynasty), the jewels of Queen Tayi, and a choice collection of finely worked jewels found with the dead of the Græco-Roman time. The royal mummies referred to are to be seen in the western wing of the north gallery.

An assortment of bronze figures showing all the Egyptian divinities in their different forms occupies the north hall. The western gallery is reserved for coffins of different periods. The "Salle Th. Davis" is of very great interest, for in it are exposed the mummies of Tuiyu and Tuiya, parents of Queen Tayi, wife of King Amenophis III. (XVIIIth dynasty). The coffins are the finest and richest ever found. Besides three beds, a chariot, armchairs, canopic vases, &c., there is a great quantity of minor funeral objects, which fill six showcases.

In one of the following rooms are exposed wooden sarcophagi of the XIIth dynasty with all their funeral apparatus, such as barks, granaries, and servants; the sarcophagus of a great military governor, Masahuti, from Siout (XIIth dynasty); two companies of Egyptian infantry (each forty in number) armed with shields and spears; and two companies composed of Libyan tribes with bows and arrows.

The last room of the west gallery contains the most ancient monuments found in Egypt —those from the Abydos necropolis. They include stone vases, flint knives, slate palettes for mixing paints, models of dogs and lions in rock crystal and ivory, and pottery jars with cones of unbaked clay, bearing the names of primitive kings of the Ist, IInd, and IIIrd dynasties.

The last two rooms contain specimens of the flora and fauna of old Egypt. The plants flowers, grains and seeds were discovered in tombs dating as far back as the IVth dynasty. The dogs, cats, fishes, falcons, gazelles, crocodiles, bulls, serpents, and eggs constitute a collection that is absolutely unique.

Opposite to the apartment in which these exhibits appear is the flint room containing flint tools and weapons, found in almost every part of Egypt. The collection was commenced in 1870 and is being added to rapidly as the result of excavations made by the Government and by private enterprise.

SIR GASTON CAMILLE CHARLES MASPERO, K.C.M.G., Director of the Cairo Museum of Antiquities, is one of the leading Egyptologists of the day, and his name will always be associated with the discovery of the written pyramids at Sakkara, in 1881–83, and of the royal mummies at Deir el Bahari in 1881. Born in Paris on June 23, 1846, he was educated at the Lycée Louis-le-Grand, and from 1865 to 1867 at the Ecole Normale, Paris. In 1869, he was appointed Maitre des Conferences at the Ecole des Hauts Etudes pour l'Archéologie Egyptienne, and in 1874 Professeur de Philologie et d'Archéologie Egyptienne at the College de France. He founded, in 1880, the Institute Français d'Archéologie Orientale in Cairo, and on the death of Mariette Bey he was appointed Director of the Cairo Museum Service on February 8, 1881. He vacated the post in 1886, but was re-appointed on October 1, 1899, and has discharged the duties ever since. He was elected a member of the Academie des Inscriptions in 1883, and an Hon. Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, with the hon. degree of Doctor of Civil Law, in 1887. The honour of knighthood was conferred upon him by King Edward on the occasion of the recent International Archæological Congress in Egypt. Of his numerous publications, the most widely known is his "Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Orient," first issued in 1875. It has run into nine editions in the French language, while a more extended history in three volumes was translated into English, and has had several editions in that language, under the titles "Dawn of Civilization," 1894; "The Struggle of the Nations," 1896; and the "Passing of Empires, 1900. Other of his publications are "Les Contes Populaires de l'Antique Egypte," 1881; "Egyptian Archæology," 1889; "Lectures Historiques," which have been translated into English under the title of "Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria," 1891; "Mélanges de Mythologie et d'Archéologie Egyptienne," in four volumes, 1892–1899. His "Guide du Visiteur au Museè du Caire," 1902 (translated into English) is not only a catalogue of the collection of which he has the charge, but a practical treatise of Egyptian archæology with illustrations from the monuments in the Museum. Finally, mention must be made of the review he founded in 1869 and has directed ever since, the "Recueil de Travaux relatifs à la Philologie et l'Archéologie Egyptiennes et Assyrosus," thirty-one volumes of which have appeared since its foundation.

H.E. EMILE BRUGSCH PASHA, the writer of the article on the Cairo Museum, was born in Berlin in 1842, and was educated there and at Göttingen. He came to Egypt in 1869, and in the following year entered the service of the Egyptian Government as Assistant Conservator of the Cairo Museum. Since 1882 he has held the position of Conservator.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF ARAB ART, CAIRO.

LATER than could have been wished, but happily not altogether too late, the National Museum of Arab Art was raised to stem the stream of curious and beautiful relics of Mahomedan Art which flowed from Egypt into public and private collections elsewhere. The foundations of this barrier—which renders to the cause of national art and architecture, by ensuring its permanence and development, a service not unlike that rendered to the cause of agriculture by the various Nile barrages—were laid in 1869, when H.H. Khedive Ismael, at the suggestion of the architect Salzmann, instructed H.E. Franz Pasha, Chief of the Technical Department of the Wakfs Administration, to set aside a Government building for use as a museum. Although this design was not fulfilled, it was not forgotten, and eleven years later, at the instance of H.H. Khedive Tewfik, Franz Pasha made a collection of such articles of real value as he could find in the ancient mosques, and these found a temporary resting-place in the eastern cloister of the Mosque of El Hakem. A Commission was appointed in 1881 "to devote its attention to all objects discovered which may be of interest in regard to Arab art," and valuable assistance in the work of classifying the multifarious articles acquired, and in deciphering the inscriptions upon them, was given by H.E. Yacoub Artin Pasha, the late Rogers Bey, Grand Bey, Mr. Ambroise Baudry, and Franz Pasha.

A building, larger and better adapted to the requirements of the museum, was erected in the court-yard of the mosque in 1883, but even in these premises it was not possible to display the collection to the best advantage. Eventually, the attention of the Government having been called to the matter, the existing museum was opened by the present Khedive on December 28, 1903. An example of the



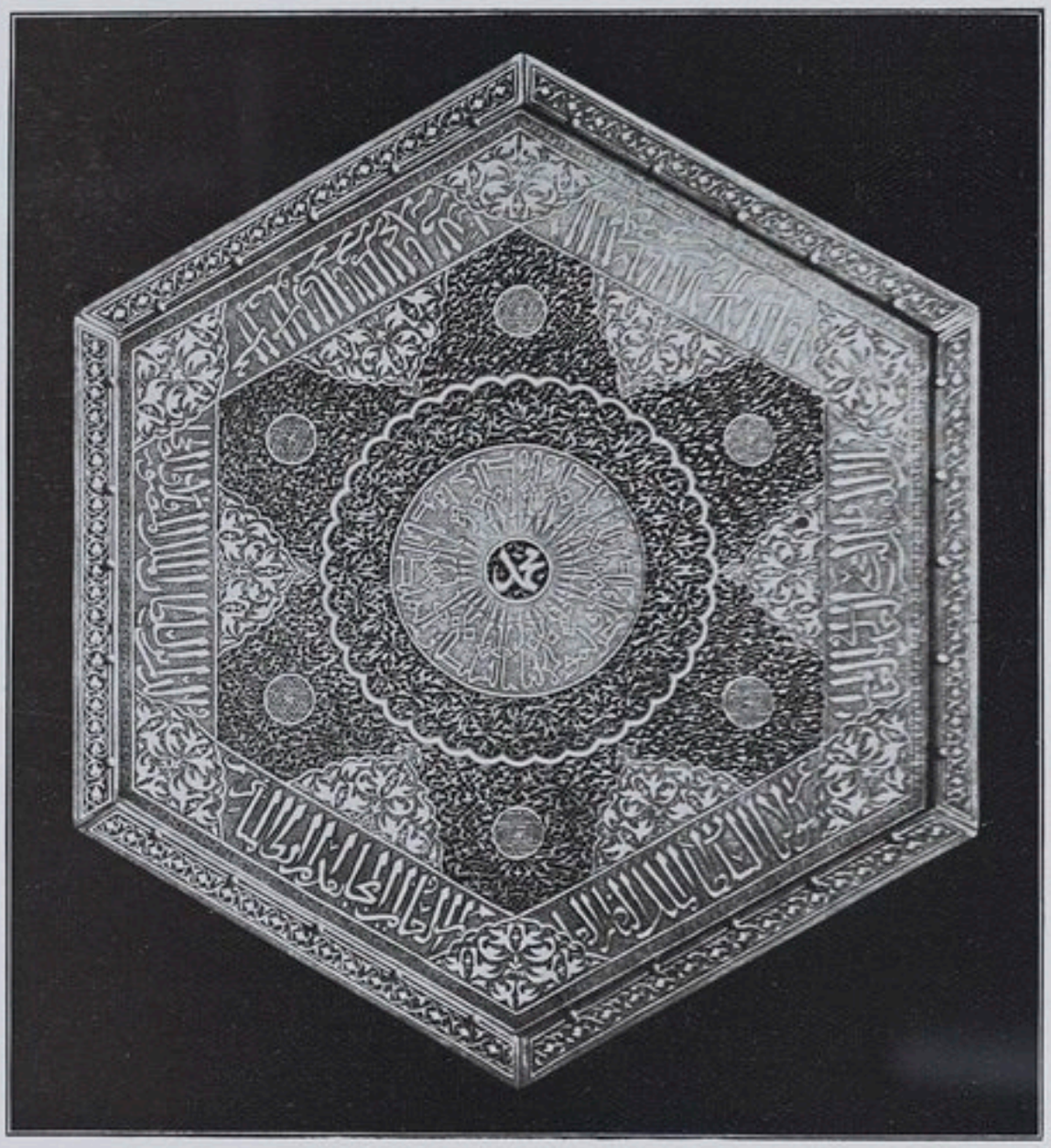
HEXAGONAL TABLE,
BRASS INLAID WITH SILVER.

modern Arabic style of architecture, the building stands in the Bab el Khalk Square, Cairo, and contains both the museum and the Khedivial library, which occupy respectively the ground floor and the floor above.

The work of arranging the exhibits in their new home devolved upon Max Herz Bey, who in 1902 had been appointed Director of the Museum. For convenience of classification and reference the museum is divided into sixteen halls. The first three of these are devoted to stones bearing inscriptions, ornamental and architectural stonework, and mosaic and plaster; the next five to examples of woodwork; the ninth and tenth to metal objects; the eleventh and twelfth to pottery; and the thirteenth and fourteenth to miscellaneous objects, tissues, and textiles. Finally, in the fifteenth and sixteenth halls are displayed the chief glory of the museum—the beautiful collection of lamps in enamelled glass. So far as possible the objects are arranged in due chronological order, and the visitor, assisted by the excellent descriptive catalogue which has been compiled by Max Herz Bey, may trace, almost without interruption, the progress of Arab art from a point not far removed from its dawn to the present day. One of the facts most clearly written across the whole history of this progress is that with the Arabs art has always been the handmaiden of architecture, content to contribute to one great end—the perfection of the mosque as a unit of structural beauty, conceived as a whole, and so designed that all its parts and furniture, down to the smallest detail, should be in intimate harmony one with another.

STONE, MARBLE, AND PLASTER.

Most of the objects in the first hall are tombstones in stone and marble, found principally in the old Mahomedan cemetery to the South of Cairo. The oldest in the collection is the lower part of a marble stela, with a text of the Koran graven in sunken Cufic characters, dating from 803 A.D., or some three centuries after the Hegira. In these fragments, it is interesting to trace the changes and modifications in the various forms of caligraphy—Cufic, the earliest writing of the Mahomedan civilisation; the flowing Naskhi, which was introduced at the time of the passing of political power from the Fatimide to the Ayubide Caliphs; and the Sulus, which was adopted at the time of the Turkish occupation. Two of the most valuable of the fragments bearing Naskhi inscriptions are a marble slab, of about the year 1187 A.D., mentioning the construction of a building by order of Sultan Salah-ed-Din, and a tombstone in serpentine, with a skilfully executed inscription in which the vowel points are marked for every syllable, found in the town of Kos, Upper Egypt. Two sundials, belonging to the Turkish period, are worth special notice. The first, according to its Sulus inscription, claims to be "a perfected sundial without a rival." Passing to the second hall, which contains stone and marble relics, bearing ornamental designs, attention is drawn to a fragment of a limestone carving, sculptured with a trail of foliage and an eagle with outstretched wings, found in the Bab el Shaarieh quarter of Cairo, and classified as an example of the work of the tenth or eleventh century. A number of valuable marble jars, probably used to provide water for thirsty devotees attending the mosques, are shown, the finest specimen being one of solid white marble, covered with arabesques, and bearing in quadruplicate a Cufic inscription meaning "eternal strength." Two slender, ribbed columns in serpentine marble, of Christian origin, as indicated by the sculptured cross on the capital, are among the most interesting of a collection of small columns such as flanked the sides of prayer-niches. They were obtained from the mosque of the Emir Kussûn es Sâki, a splendid fourteenth century mosque which has now almost entirely disappeared. In the third hall, devoted to marbles, mosaic, and plaster, there are a number of salsabils, well-mouths, basins, and spouts of fountains. The salsabil was a form of water-cooler, over which the water flowed into the public drinking fountains. The best example in the museum is of marble, the sill sculptured in ripples, and the border containing a series of animals. It dates from the beginning of the fifteenth century, and originally formed part of the sebil of Sultan Farag, situated in front of the Bab Zueila gate.



TOP OF HEXAGONAL TABLE.

Among the mosaics are an oblong panel of very delicate workmanship, derived probably from the tomb-mosque of Sultan Barsbay, and a panel with a pattern of arches in close mosaic. The various examples illustrate the two constructive methods, inlay and incrustation, and they also point to the fact that the increased employment of mosaic effects synchronised with the introduction of marble during the thirteenth century.

The fragments of plaster ornaments have a special interest, as, from the earliest beginnings of Arab art, stucco has been used as a means of architectural embellishment. Some of these fragments formed part of the mural decoration of the mosque of Ibn Tulûn, the oldest Arabic building extant; there is also the capital of an engaged column, from the same mosque, in which the Arab style may be seen, as it were, in process of evolution, and in which the fact is clearly evidenced that the craftsman had for model a Corinthian capital. One of the most effective uses of plaster, and that in which the artist attained the highest degree of skill, was that of filling windows and openings in the walls. Slabs of plaster were cut through to form the most delicate traceries, and some beautiful examples are to be seen in the museum—among them one from the mosque of Emir Kidjmâs, Master of the Horse to Sultan Kaïtbay.

WOODWORK.

Timber has always been employed in Egypt as a building material, especially in roof-work and ceilings; but the art of working in wood reached its zenith in the construction of doors, shutters, chairs, pulpits, Koran coffers, tables, benches, and other articles of furniture for religious and domestic buildings. Of these the museum has a valuable, though relatively small, collection. The two systems employed—panelling and mashrabieh—are peculiar to Egyptian woodwork, and give scope to the Arab love of interlacing lines, whilst at the same time allowing of the strictest economy in a material of which the country afforded but limited supplies. The multiplication of panels developed the joiner's art in a marvellous degree, until it became one of the glories of the craftsmanship of the middle ages; and the decoration of the panels themselves perfected the arts of wood-sculpture, inlay, and painting. The system known as mashrabieh consisted in the building up of surfaces by attaching together turned pieces of wood, and, like panelling, lent itself to the most bewildering combinations of design within design.

Nothing more than a very brief indication can here be given of the specimens of this work that are to be found in the museum. The fourth hall contains prayer-niches, cenotaphs, Koran readers' chairs, &c. A wooden prayer-niche from the mosque of Sayeda Nefisa is an example of panelling of delicate workmanship, in which the bacciferous design, a favourite pattern in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, may be traced. A screen or partition from the same mosque is a beautiful specimen of the earliest kind of mashrabieh work. Of the cenotaphs the most interesting is one commemorating Husn ed Dîn Tâleb, an Emir of the Ayubide dynasty. It is beautifully ornamented, and the inscriptions are lavishly decorated. The Koran-stand from the mosque of the Emir Inâl el Atabeki shows the primitive form of this article of furniture; later the stand and the reader's bench were combined, as may be seen in other exhibits.

In the fifth hall are objects in mashrabieh, and lattices or window lights of laths or rods. Among the more valuable are a partition from the mosque of El Bakri and a beautiful piece of carving supposed to have come from the cemetery of Imam esh Shâfaï. The sixth hall offers special attractions to the student, for in it may be traced, in an almost unbroken chain, the development of Arab ornament from the

earliest period down to modern times. The pre-Fatimide specimens include cross-pieces from frames, carved with floral designs, and a richly sculptured fragment, probably from the side of a cenotaph. A very handsome relic of the Fatimide period is a panel from the ceiling of the mosque of El Kalaun. Of Coptic workmanship, it is ornamented with sprays of foliage and arabesques, birds, and human figures. The Ayubide period is represented by the ceiling over a doorway, with a large middle field of small panels, geometrically grouped and finely sculptured, flanked by two oblong panels. A sculptured board, from the mosque of Sultan Kalaun, bearing vine foliage and grapes, introduces the Mameluke period; while another very old fragment of painted wood, from the pulpit of the El Mârdâni mosque, shows the brightness of the tints used in Arab colouring at that period.

In a collection of doors and panelled work in this hall one of the chief treasures, a pair of folding doors from the mosque of Sultan Barsbay at El Khanka, is remarkable in that both sides of the doors are treated in the same rich fashion—an arrangement of ebony and sandal-wood panels. A pair of doors from the mosque of Sheikh Ibrahim ed Dessuki possess two curious features—an ingenious system of wooden bolts with a wooden lock, and an arrangement of the moulded planks to present a square design when viewed from the front, and a right-angle or vertical design when seen from the side. A noticeable specimen of its kind is the pair of folding doors from Damietta, but the substitution of grooves for panels, and the way in which the arrangement of these imitation panels is subordinated to the geometrical design, indicate a decadence in the art of wood-carving at that period—the close of the seventeenth century. Among the very finest examples of carved work in the museum are the fragments of a cenotaph in Turkish oak to be found in the seventh hall. They come from the mausoleum of the learned Imam esh Shâfaï; and the extra-



AN OLD ENAMELLED GLASS LAMP.

ordinary delicacy of the carving, which is arranged in different planes, deserves special attention as illustrating the perfection attained during "the splendid age of Arab art" under the Ayubides. This hall contains, also, a number of showcases of inlaid work, eloquent alike of the patience of the craftsmen, their fertility in design, and their sound conceptions of beauty. Here, too, are to be seen some fine examples of kursi, or hexagonal tables. They formed important articles of furniture among the Arabs, serving in domestic use to support trays of food, or in mosques as stands for candlesticks. They were covered with a fine mosaic in ivory and tin and in various hard woods, even the feet, as may be seen in the specimen from the mosque of Sultan Shaaban, being often encrusted with these materials. Another gem from this mosque is a Koran-coffer, the lid covered outside and in with delicate mosaic, and the hinges of bronze inlaid with silver and gold. Inside the box slots are provided for the thirty parts of the Koran. Doors and wall-cupboards of the Turkish period, with more excellent examples of mashrabieh work, constitute the chief features in the eighth hall. A cupboard from the mosque of El Azhar, a panelled balcony, and a grating made up of pieces forming geometric designs are noteworthy exhibits, the last-named illustrating the cleverness of the Arabs in combining simple lines.

METAL WORK.

Objects of copper and its alloys, inlaid with silver and gold, were in general use among the Arabs in the middle ages. In the ninth and tenth halls are to be found numbers of doors overlaid with bronze, cauldrons, coffers, tables, cups, censers, candlesticks, lamps, and lanterns, skilfully worked in arabesque designs. The doors from the mosque of Sâleh Talaï and from the tomb of Imam esh Shâfaï are excellent examples of overlaid work, and possess that curious property of seeming to change in design under the very eye. A Koran-coffer from the tomb-mosque of Sultan et Ghuri is an elaborate specimen of wood plated with sheet brass, richly engraved and inlaid with silver and gold; while a copper vase with lid from the mosque of Sultan Hassan is, perhaps, one of the finest examples of repoussé work. A relic of the period when astronomy flourished among the Arabs is a brass quadrant, made, according to the more probable reading of the Cufic inscription, in the year 838 A.D. The outstanding feature of the whole collection of metal objects is, however, the kursi from the hospital of Sultan Kalaun. In shape it is a hexagonal prism; its sides are divided into compartments, some of which are inlaid and some openwork; and the workmanship throughout is excellent.

The tenth hall contains door-facings, metal-covered doors, knockers, brass plaques, candlesticks, lamps, &c. There is one large cylindrical lamp in six tiers, with openwork panels adorned with arabesques and geometrical designs.

POTTERY.

At an early date, pottery was manufactured by the Arabs of the Nile valley, and comprised not only simple domestic requisites, but also remarkable articles of glazed and enamelled ware. In the collection in the eleventh hall may be seen examples of the use of glazed ware in mosaic work, and many beautifully coloured tiles and panels, besides vases, inkstands, cruets, lamps, and fire grenades; while in the twelfth hall the collection of European, Syrian, Persian, and other specimens, is interesting as showing some of the influences which have been brought to bear on the potter's art as practised by the Arabs in Egypt.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Among a variety of interesting objects in the thirteenth hall are several plaster casts



PIERCED METAL-WORK LAMP.

of prayer-niches, and a corner of a room from Rosetta, a town justly renowned for its woodwork.

TISSUES AND TEXTILES.

Spinning and weaving were developed to a remarkable degree by the Copts, to whom the Arabs were indebted in many ways. The Kasab, bucalimun, sharûb, and badanah cloths of Egyptian manufacture were known far beyond the limits of the country, though some of the finest were made exclusively for the use of the caliphs. The most valuable exhibit in the fourteenth hall is a piece of fine linen cloth with a band of embroidered silk, having above it an inscription in Cufic characters so minute as to appear largely like a dark line in the stuff. This inscription is of some historical importance, as it shows that the cloth was made in the public broidering establishment at Masr, by order of El Fadl, for the son of the famous Abbaside Caliph Harûn er Rashid, known to all readers of the "Arabian Nights." The examples of leather-work in the museum consist chiefly of book-bindings, and illustrate the three groups of Oriental bindings found in Egypt—the Egyptian-Arab, the Persian, and the Turkish. The most beautiful of the Arab methods consisted in cutting out an intricate design in leather, and imposing the delicate tracery so obtained upon a background of silk, the effect being enhanced by edging the

design with lines of gilt. The wealth of arabesques formed by the interlacing lines excites wonder and admiration, and it is difficult to realise that these results were obtained with a limited number of the simplest tooling-irons. Besides the bindings, there are two Koran cabinets covered with leather, and a number of votive tablets of wood, leather, and paper presented by devout Mahomedans to mosques and tombs.

GLASS.

The craft of glass-working has been practised among Eastern peoples for ages, and it flourished among the Arabs from the beginning of their domination in Egypt. Small glass discs, that can with certainty be assigned to the first centuries of the Hegira, were used as weights, and, later, glass vessels were made in such quantities that they were commonly used by grocers, druggists, and others to contain their wares. The highest degree of perfection, however, was that attained in the manufacture of enamelled glass lamps for use in mosques, and of these the museum possesses about one-half of the total number existing in the world. They are displayed in the fifteenth and sixteenth halls, and are so mounted that their beauty of ornamentation and colouring may be fully appreciated. There is little variation in the shape of the sixty or so lamps exhibited; all have a wide funnel-shaped neck, a bowl furnished with handles and swelling towards the base, and a small pedestal, so that they might be placed on a stand, if necessary. The oldest lamp in the collection dates from about 1293 A.D.; and one of the most beautiful is that from the mosque of the Emir Almâs. The neck of this last is bordered with delicate designs, with an inscription in blue enamel on a gilt background enfoliaged with white leaves, and with yellow, red, and green flowers. On the bowl the inscription consists of letters left clear on a background of blue enamel; while the pedestal is ornamented in a similar manner to the neck. On many of the lamps are shown the arms of the personages for whom, or in whose honour, they were made. For instance, two polo sticks are represented in green, back to back, on a medallion on a richly decorated lamp, ornamented with flowers in red, white, blue, green, and yellow enamel, and bearing the name of a Mameluke of one of the En Naser sultans. A number of lamps from the mosque of Sultan Hassan are hung as they were in the mosque. Chains of brass or silver were attached to the handles, and carried over the neck to unite beneath an ovoid, to which was fastened the long chain which hung from the roof. The ovoids were usually of wood or glazed earthenware, but were sometimes merely the shell of an ostrich egg. In the lamps from the mosque of Sultan Hassan, however, they are of enamelled glass, in keeping with the whole design. The oil and wick were carried in a glass vessel which was suspended inside the lamp by means of chains. In these lamps, as indeed through the whole range of Arabic artistic productions, no one can fail to be struck by the inherent decorative qualities in the Cufic and Naskhi caligraphy; the texts from the Koran and the eulogistic phrases in themselves fulfil to the eye all the requirements of ornamentation.

The smaller glass objects in the museum include a large number of phials and bottles in blown and cut glass, both plain and coloured; numerous fragments of enamelled bracelets, beads, several standard coin and other weights; and stamps or seals. The last named being used to denote the capacity or contents of the bottles to which they were affixed.

From the foregoing it will be clear that the museum, though a book from which many pages are missing, contains much valuable material for the student, and fulfils a useful purpose in securing to posterity such models as have been entrusted to its keeping.

MAX HERZ BEY, director of the National Museum of Arab Art, and chief architect for the preservation of Arab monuments, was born in 1856, in Otlaka, Hungary, and was educated at Buda Pesth, and at the Vienna Polytechnical School, where he gained his diploma as an architect. In 1881, he came to Cairo as an architect under the Wakfs Administration, and in 1890 he received his present appointment. Besides the museum catalogue, which appeared in English, French, and Arabic, he has written numerous articles in the Journal of the Committee for the Conservation of Arab Monuments, a monograph on the Mosque of Sultan Hassan, several papers for the Institute Egyptien and other societies, and a "History of Moslem Art" for a Hungarian publication dealing with the arts of all countries.

ALEXANDRIA MUSEUM OF ARCHÆOLOGY.

BY DR. E. BRECCIA, Director.

THE Archæological Museum of Alexandria is of very recent origin, its existence dating back only sixteen years. The deed constituting its foundation was signed on June 10, 1892, and provided that the municipality of Alexandria should provide the funds for the foundation, maintenance, and future development of the museum, while the service of Antiquities of Egypt would be responsible for the technical direction.

First installed in a private building in the Rue Rosette, the museum was transferred, in July, 1895, to its present quarters, which were specially constructed for the purpose. The rapid increase in the number of its monuments, resulting from the excavations carried out on the site of the ancient city and its surrounding necropolis, necessitated the addition of new wings from time to time. In this manner, the rooms, which originally numbered ten, were increased to twelve in 1896, and to sixteen in 1899. They now number twenty-two, without taking into consideration several rooms set apart for the offices and library. But, notwithstanding these enlargements, the space available is inadequate, and further extensions are contemplated.

Unfortunately, this rapid development of the young institution came late in the day, when almost all the territory occupied by the ancient city had been covered over with modern constructions. It is greatly to be regretted that the museum was not established earlier, when, with the discoveries of the casual and clandestine excavations, carried out without any system, such important collections as those of Anastasi, Passalacqua, Zizinia, Harris, Pugioli, and Demetrin were formed — collections which were eventually disposed among the various museums of Europe and America.

The foundation of the museum was due in large measure to the Athenæum, a literary society which contributed much through the columns of its organ, *La Rivista Quindicinale Egiziana*. One of the members of the society, Dr. Guiseppe Botti, and one of the principal contributors to the *Rivista Quindicinale*, was appointed curator of the newly formed museum. During his tenure of office (from June, 1892, to October, 1903), Dr. Botti set to work, with great energy and activity, to enrich the collections of antiquities confided to his care.

To define the character of the museum, the rather inappropriate name of Græco-Roman Museum was chosen. This was intended to imply that the principal object of the new institution was to gather together as large a number as possible of monuments discovered on the site of Alexandria, or on that of other cities in the Valley of the Nile, provided they were adapted to illustrate the period of Egyptian history comprised between the foundation of Alexandria by Alexander the Great (331 B.C.), and the conquest of the city by Amr Abu el Ass (Amru), general of the Caliph Omar (641 A.D.). In fact, the museum, though containing a few groups of monuments of the period of the Pharaohs, is principally formed of monuments referring to Greek, Roman, and Christian art and civilisation.

The series of Greek and Latin inscriptions in room VI. is important. Many of these inscriptions are honorary or votive dedications to the Ptolemaic kings or Roman emperors. Some record the building of works of public utility or of public monuments; others refer to historical events. A considerable number of inscriptions comprise epitaphs—many of which give the names, birthplaces, and sometimes even the profession of persons who inhabited Alexandria soon after its foundation, or in the succeeding centuries; and others describe summarily the life of soldiers or Roman citizens who spent part of their lives or died in Egypt.

Worthy of mention, too, are the Greek papyri, *i.e.*, manuscripts on papyrus paper. The collection comprises, besides some literary fragments of Homer, Callimachus, and Isocrates, public documents such as law-suits, petitions, and contracts, as well as private letters of much interest. The group of monuments of the period of the Pharaohs (rooms VII.–X.)—statues of kings, deities, sphinxes, and inscriptions—are of importance because, having been found in Alexandria, they show how the Ptolemies despoiled the ancient cities of Egypt of their monuments to enhance the temples and public squares of the new capital. Close to the collection of Egyptian monuments are placed various specimens of Græco-Egyptian art (room XII.), some of which serve to show that Greek and Egyptian art

coming into contact on Egyptian soil, did not remain alien to each other, but were reciprocally influenced. In some cases they have blended together; in others they have only been placed in juxtaposition. Although the museum contains but few remains of the celebrated temples and vast palaces of the Alexandria of the Ptolemies and Romans, there can be seen in rooms XIII.–XVI. the large Corinthian and Ionian capitals in calcareous nummolite stone and in marble, as well as parts of columns, and these are sufficient to recall the celebrated city and to justify its great fame for beauty. The collection of architectural remains which belonged to private dwellings, small temples, and chapels, is much richer. Most of these remains are in yellow calcareous stone, worked with great delicacy, and enhanced by polychromy. Even in architecture, and still more in sculpture, one can perceive the blending of Greek and Egyptian art, a blending which has often produced very charming effects.

Amongst the numerous antique sculptures existing in the museum, there are many of importance, either on account of their intrinsic beauty or by reason of their contribution to the history of Greek and Roman art. Two theories prevail regarding Greek art. According to some archæologists, all the countries of the Greek world felt more or less the influences of Alexandria after the conquests of Alexander the Great. This city, according to them, would have given the tone and tendency to all productions and to the artistic taste of the Greek period and would have greatly influenced Roman art. Other archæologists, however, refute this statement, and attach no special importance to Alexandrian art, maintaining that Alexandria was not the sole, or even the most notable, centre of art during the above period, and that Roman art was more probably influenced by Asia Minor. Hence the importance attaching to the sculptures of the Greek and Roman periods, discovered in Alexandria or in Egypt, for the solution of this much debated question (rooms XIII., XIV., and XXVI.).

The collection in the Alexandrian Museum offers examples of the ideal style, which, without modelling the details with excessive preciseness or delicacy, renders the human form with softness (mortidessa) and delicate shading, so that the faces assume an indefinite expression as in a dream. Other examples show the existence of a realistic style or naturalism, which represents the human figure with unnecessary detail or with grotesque expressions. To the first category belong, for instance, the soldier's head and the feminine busts—some of them portraits of Ptolemaic queens—exhibited on the right side of room XIII. and in the glass cases. To the second category belong all the torsi of fauni and satyrs, exhibited in glass case A, and some of the male and female busts (Nos. 20 and 21, &c.). In room No. XIII. attention is drawn to some small portraits, more or less ideal, of the founder of the city, Alexander the Great. They are easily distinguished by the description left us by Plutarch. The great conqueror wore his hair long and parted in two on the forehead. His look is directed a little upwards, with a slight inclination of the head and neck. There is a rich collection of portraits of the Roman period, and amongst the many other monuments worthy of attention mention must be made of the large statue of Serapide (room XVI., No. 43), a god, whose worship became very popular soon after its creation or introduction by the Ptolemies.

The first image of the god executed by the sculptor Briaxis was in wood, adorned with gold, silver, and precious stones. Copies of it multiplied very quickly during several centuries. The copy in the Alexandria Museum is one of the most important reproductions known, and, together with the other copies, more or less complete or of smaller size, contained in the collection, gives an adequate idea of the beauty of the original.

The rooms that follow (XVII.–XXI.) are specially set apart for the sarcophagi and mummies of the Græco-Roman period, and for the funeral equipments attached to them. Some of the mummies found in the museum are characteristic examples of complicated bandages. The encaustic painted portraits on rectangular tablets, fixed on that part of the mummies corresponding to the face, are of no little importance. These portraits, which came into fashion in the first and second centuries of the Christian era, were hung on some of the walls of the houses as long as the person was alive, and at the moment of his death were attached to the corpse. There are also a large number of masks in plaster intended to represent the countenance of the deceased which was hidden by the wrappings in which the mummy was enveloped. Exceedingly rich is the series of cinerary urns in terra-cotta, some of them glazed black with relief adornments, and overlaid with decorations in white; others ornamented with various zones of geometrical and floral elements in dark crimson or brown, with the light yellow of the vase as a background.

The Alexandria sarcophagi in marble or in granite are nearly all adorned with festoons of flowers in relief, sustained by genii and skeleton heads of oxen. The magnificent sarophagus in marble exhibited in room XVII. is an exception, for it has the external surface of the front and sides covered with figures in relief. On the lateral surfaces are reproduced fauni and maenades in the act of dancing, while on the front side is seen the meeting of Dionysus with Ariadne in the Island of Nasos. Leaning against the wall on a high base, in room XVII., is a colossal statue in porphyry, representing a high personage—perhaps Jesus Christ—in the form of Pantacrator, seated on a throne (about the fourth century of the Christian era). In the next room, the floor of which is covered at both ends by two beautiful mosaics is to be found the interesting collection of painted terra-cotta statuettes, representing young women in various dresses and adornments. Less aesthetic, but not less interesting, are the other statuettes in terra-cotta, masks of actors, caricatures, and other subjects *de genre*. The lamps show a great variety of form and style. The Greek vases—both those glazed black with red embellishments in relief, and the more commonplace specimen—exist in great variety. There is a quantity of large amphoræ in terra-cotta, which must have been used for carrying liquids and food from the various parts of the Greek world to Alexandria. There are also thousands of handles of such amphoræ still bearing the signature of the magistrate (from Rhodes, Cyprus, Crete, and Thassos) in whose time the amphoræ had been manufactured and stamped as verified.

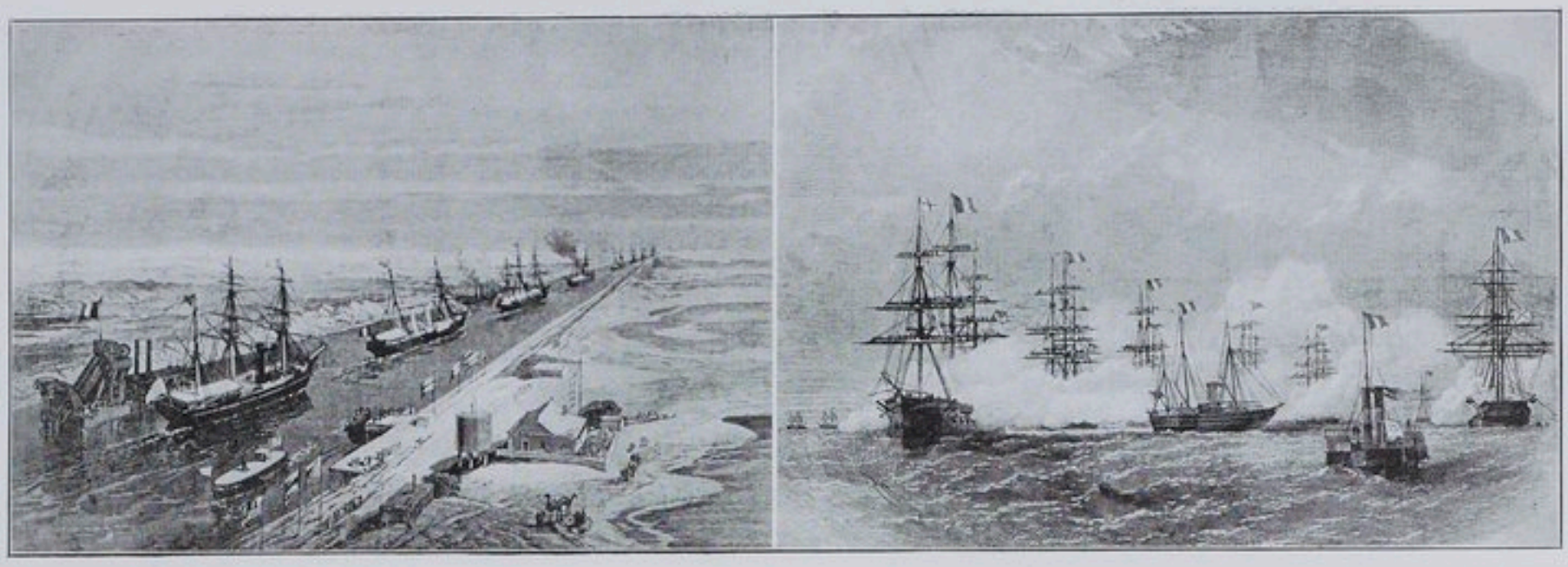
A fine mosaic can be seen in room XIX. It comes from a private Roman dwelling which stood in close proximity to Alexandria, in the locality at present known as Chatby, not far from one of the necropoli of the first Ptolemaic period. This necropolis and the one of Ibrahimieh (discovered and explored during the last few years) have supplied several interesting objects which help to give an insight into the life of the ancient city. Mention need be made only of the painted stelæ, the coloured terra-cotta statuettes, the small vases in glass, the cinerary urns, the various household utensils in iron, bronze, or bone, the artificial wreaths in gilded bronze and in coloured and gilded terra-cotta.

In room XXII. are gathered together architectural fragments of sculptures, vases in terra-cotta, &c., saved from the ruins of Canopus. This rich city, situated near Alexandria, was famous for its temple of Serapide—to which pilgrims from all parts of the then known Greek world flocked—as well as for its gorgeous extravagance, its orgies, and its vices.

The Christian antiquities (rooms I.–V.) comprise a notable series of monuments, funeral inscriptions, large and small marble capitals, and other architectural elements, a fine sarcophagus cover in porphyry, coptic stuffs, lamps, and vases in terra-cotta.

The numismatic room, intended more especially for the series of Ptolemaic and Imperial Alexandrian coins, contains over 7,000 coins. There is, also, attached to the museum, a collection of photographs, engravings, and drawings referring to monuments of Alexandria. Topographical plans are exhibited for the purpose of demonstrating the development of the city.

The Archæological Library, which forms part of the museum, is open to the public during the same hours as the museum. It contains a fair number of archæological works, especially those which relate to the history of Greek and Roman art and antiquity.



THE OPENING OF THE SUEZ CANAL.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

By THOS. H. REID, Fellow of the Royal Colonial Institute.

The Mysterious East—Early Egyptian Canals—Napoleon and India—Ancient Fallacies—Waghorn and the Overland Route to India—Passage Rates in the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries—M. Ferdinand de Lesseps—Inception of the Suez Canal—First Concession by Mohammed Said—Political Antagonism in England—Report of International Commission of Engineers—The Scheme Ridiculed—Lord Palmerston and Mr. Disraeli's Predictions—Flotation of the Universal Company of the Maritime Canal of Suez—Commencement of the Work—Foundation of Port Said—Withdrawal of Forced Labour—Arbitration by the Emperor Napoleon III.—Compensation to the Company—Mechanical Contrivances for Cutting the Canal—The Work Described—Dimensions—Cost of Construction—Visit of Prince and Princsss of Wales—Opening Ceremony by the Empress Eugenie—Costly Festivities—Financial Arrangements—Board of Administration—Britain's Purchase of Khedive's Shares—Arabi Pasha's Revolt—Seizure of the Canal—Neutralisation of the Canal—Traffic Statistics—Influence on International Trade.

THE East has always had a fascination for the bold, the enterprising, and the adventurous spirits of the West. Throughout the ages imagination painted brilliant pictures of Eastern life and manners, which even the experience of personal contact has never wholly obliterated. The mystery in which it was enshrouded for centuries, was penetrated only by a few intrepid travellers at long intervals—men like Marco Polo, who, taking their lives in their hands, moved ever eastward towards the rising sun, meeting and fraternising with new, strange peoples, and opening out a vista of modes of life outgrown and forgotten by the denizens of Europe.

Upon the return of travellers from out the hinterland of shadow and mystery, men listened, incredulous at times, to wondrous tales of the gorgeous courts and stately palaces of princes and emperors seated on bejewelled thrones, surrounded by beautiful courtesans and armed retainers, clad in fine raiment and adorned with magnificent jewels, maintaining their right to rule by personal prowess and mental capacity, and able to call into the field trained hosts of cavalry and foot soldiers. The early Romans carried on a foreign trade with Arabia and India, and every year, Gibbon tells us in his ponderous work on "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," about the time of the summer solstice, a fleet of a hundred and twenty vessels sailed from Myos-hormos, an Egyptian port on the Red Sea, returning in December or January, their rich cargoes being transported on the backs of camels from the Red Sea to the Nile, and thence to Alexandria. The limited trade in spices and essences of unknown flowers, in delicately tinted silks and rich tapestries and embroideries, in gold and silver ornaments of barbaric design and skilled workmanship, which filtered overland from Asiatic states, served to whet the appetite and to kindle the imagination of others than the Venetian merchants who controlled the trade of the western world. Gradually the haze which obscured this phantasy of opulence and luxury was penetrated by Portuguese, Spanish, and Dutch voyagers. Braving the dangers conjured into existence by ignorance, these enterprising sailors gradually explored the western shores of the African continent. The Cape of Good Hope was circumnavigated. A new means of communication between the East and West had been discovered. Islands undreamt of came under the dominion of Portugal, Spain and Holland, and soon the French and English, already rivals in Europe, were fighting to control the destinies of India, and to obtain a footing in the Farther East. The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries added enormously to Europe's knowledge of the world, but it was left to the nineteenth century, the great age of mechanical invention, to apply this knowledge to the advantage of the human race, and to render possible the tremendous development of international trade which will be witnessed in the present century.

Nothing has contributed more to the enormous increase of sea-borne trade than the construction of the Suez Canal. It has revolutionised traffic between Europe and the East. It synchronised, fortunately, with the more general application of steam for the propulsion of vessels over long distances, and it may be readily admitted that the one rendered the success of the other possible. Alternative and speedier routes to India had long been sought—the discovery of the American continent was one outcome of that desire. Napoleon, conqueror of the Alps, and fired with the spirit of Alexander to conquer new worlds, had conceived the possibilities for military purposes of a waterway to afford easy communication for his ships between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea.

It was left, however, to another Frenchman, M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, to achieve seventy

years later this grand conception of a new highroad for international trade.

Historians tell us that successive Egyptian kings had contemplated a canal through the Isthmus of Suez, but this is more or less conjectural, and appears to be based solely on the assumption that the remains of canals that have been found were part of a scheme to link the two seas. Had there been any necessity for a free waterway between the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, it may be assumed safely that the rulers of Egypt, with the resources of labour at their command which built the pyramids and other great national works, would have carried their ideas into execution.

Rameses II. (or Sesostris) is credited with having made the canal, 92½ miles long, from Bubastis (now called Zagazig) to the head of the Gulf of Suez, passing through the Bitter Lakes. That was in 1330 B.C. This canal era, saw the canal "covered with vessels." Plutarch, describing Cleopatra's flight after the battle of Actium, states that she endeavoured to save the remnant of her fleet by passing through the canal into the Red Sea, but was frustrated by the lowness of the Nile.

This canal was re-opened in the days of the Caliphs (600 A.D.), and was styled "The Canal of the Commander of the Faithful." For a century and a half it afforded facilities for trade, but was filled up by orders of the Caliph of Irak, during the Mahomedan revolt, "so that provisions should not be carried by it to Mecca."

It is recorded that the Venetians, who had suffered serious loss of trade owing to the discovery of the sea route to the East round the Cape of Good Hope, advocated the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez, and Liebnitz propounded a similar scheme to Louis XIV. in 1671.

un jour sa gloire dans l'exécution de ce projet." He often recurred to this subject during his exile in St. Helena.

It must be presumed that M. Lepère's survey was superficial or incomplete through lack of proper instruments, for he reported that the Red Sea was 10 metres (33 feet) above the level of the Mediterranean. He suggested that, if a canal were contemplated, it should be made with locks. M. Talabot favoured the construction of a canal from Suez to Cairo, to carry it over the Nile on an aqueduct, and then to continue it to Alexandria. The idea of a serious difference of level, however, was exploded by three eminent engineers between 1841 and 1847—Mr. Stephenson, the celebrated English railway engineer; M. de Negrelli, the Austrian engineer; and M. Bourdaloue, the French engineer—all agreeing that the project was possible of accomplishment.



PANORAMA OF THE SUEZ CANAL.

appears to have fallen into disuse, and to have been allowed to silt up or fill up by wind-borne sand. A Thebain Pharaoh, who has been identified as Nekku, who reigned in the sixth century before the Christian era, set about the rescue of this ancient public work. At a sacrifice of 120,000 men, he is reputed to have re-excavated the canal within the space of six months, and he is reported to have dropped the extension of the project because an oracle predicted that it would only benefit the barbarians (the Persians). It would appear from the inscriptions found on archways at Serapeum, near Suez, that the work upon the Rameses Canal was completed by Darius, King of Persia. When Herodotus visited Egypt he saw the canal full of water, and describes it as wide enough for two vessels to pass. Its width was from 100 to 200 feet. Again partially destroyed by sandstorms and decay, it was restored by the Ptolemies, and once again during the Roman occupation in the reign of Trajan (A.D. 98–115). Strabo, who visited Egypt shortly before the Christian

It was on December 30, 1798, that Buonaparte came upon the old remains of the Rameses Canal. That was sufficient to suggest to the great strategist the advantages of a canal whereby he could transfer large bodies of troops to India and drive out the English. He appointed his engineer Lepère to survey the route and prepare a report, and one result was to perpetuate the belief that there was a material difference of level between the Mediterranean and the Red Seas. Lepère wrote:

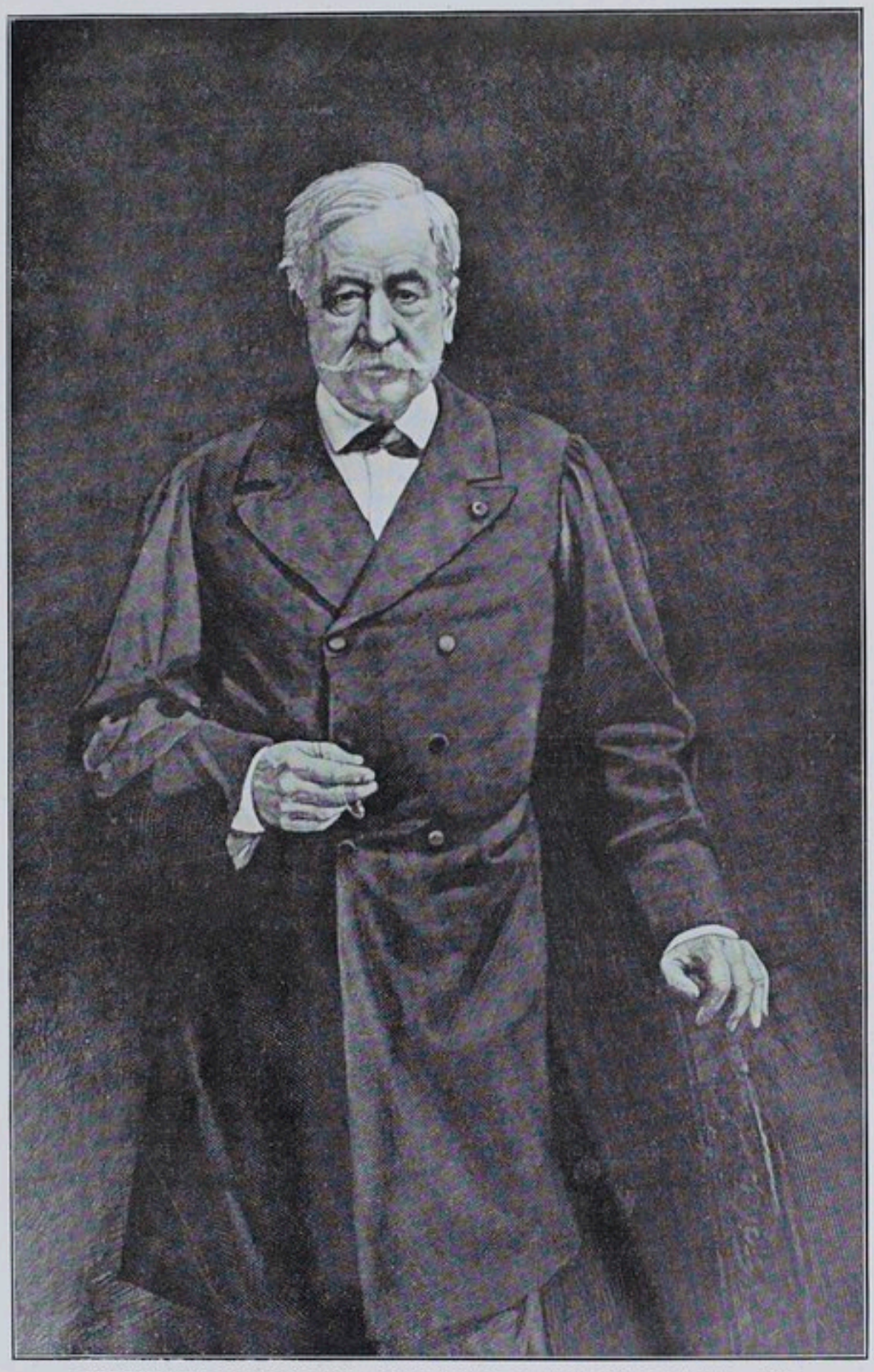
"It is certain, after due study of the surveys we have made, that the Delta is liable to be inundated by the waters of the Red Sea, and that the fears entertained by the ancient Egyptians of submersion in case a canal were made were well founded, in past times, when the Delta and the bed of the Nile itself were undoubtedly at a lower elevation."

When Lepère presented his report, Buonaparte is reported to have used these prophetic words: "La chose est grande; ce ne sera pas moi qui maintenant pourra l'accomplir, mais le gouvernement turc trouvera peut-être

In 1857, M. Elie de Beaumont and M. Charles Dupun, who were appointed by the French Academy of Sciences to examine the project of a sea-to-sea canal, also reported its feasibility; and a Dutch Commission came to the same conclusion.

The way had therefore been prepared for some far-seeing projector to appear on the scene. That personality was forthcoming in M. Ferdinand de Lesseps. Gifted with imagination, courage, tenacity of purpose, and enthusiasm, undaunted by political intrigues and international jealousy, undeterred by the sneers of false prophets and the predictions of technical experts, undiscouraged by financial difficulties, possessed of his one great idea, he had the satisfaction, after years of toil, worry, and vexation, not only of seeing the inauguration of the canal, but of living to see it carried to financial success. Before relating the interesting story of M. de Lesseps' struggles against conspiring obstacles, his alternations between hope and exasperation, it is not without profit to turn to the contemplation

of the efforts of an enterprising and equally far-sighted Englishman to press upon the attention of his dull-witted countrymen the advantages of an overland route to India. In no sense does it detract from M. de Lesseps' grander conception to say that it was his contemplation, while resident in



FERDINAND DE LESSEPS, PROMOTOR OF THE SUEZ CANAL AND FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE COMPANY.

Egypt, of Lieutenant Waghorn's efforts to popularise the overland route that fired his own imagination to conceive the overwhelming advantage of a canal for the passage of large vessels laden with travellers and merchandise.

Thomas Waghorn was born at Chatham on June 20, 1800. At the age of twelve he entered the navy as a midshipman, and, on board the *Tigris* frigate, served on the Home and West India stations. In five years he had passed his examination for the rank of lieutenant in the Royal Navy. Later, he joined the service of the Honourable East India Company, saw service in Bengal, and distinguished himself. He turned his attention early to the study of the possibilities of steam communication, and, at first, advocated an accelerated postal service from England to the Far East by way of the Cape of Good Hope. Soon, however, he was urging the authorities to develop the service through Egypt, and we read that he "undertook to deliver in London within three months an answer to the despatches he took to Bombay," and that he succeeded in doing so.

In these days of postal enterprise it is astounding to read that both "the Post Office and the East India Company were opposed to steam navigation as a mode of conveyance of mails." One has only to stand on the deck of the mail steamers at Port Said or Brindisi nowadays and see the rapidity with which the enormous amount of mail matter is handled to realise how far the British postal authorities have travelled since 1827.

Waghorn, in 1830, published a pamphlet entitled "Particulars of an Overland Journey from London to Bombay by way of the Continent, Egypt, and the Red Sea," describing himself as "a plain sailor not possessing the art of description." He was aiming, then, at the transit of a despatch from England to India, or vice versâ, in fifty days.

On October 28, 1829, after vexatious delays and the failure of the authorities to give him special facilities, he started on the "Eagle" stage-coach from Gracechurch Street, his luggage weighing only about twenty pounds, "not including firearms," and in ten days he had the satisfaction of putting the *Times* newspaper into the hands of Lieutenant-Colonel During, the British Consul at Trieste—a feat never before accomplished. He had to spend four or five days at Trieste before he could get passage to Alexandria on a Spanish ship, and was sixteen days on the voyage. A donkey ride took him to Rosetta, and he proceeded by boat to Cairo; but after five days and nights again resorted to donkeys. No steamer was waiting for him at Suez—he had expected to be met about December 8 by a vessel belonging to the East India Company—so he crossed to Jeddah in an open boat and got to Mocha, where he was taken on board one of the Company's brigs and landed at Bombay. The trip occupied four months and twenty-one days, but he claimed that forty-two days should be deducted for unforeseen delays at Trieste, Cairo, Suez, Kosseir, and Jeddah. The route he proposed to the authorities was over the Continent to Ancona (nine days), steamer to Alexandria (seven days), Alexandria to Suez (five days), Suez to Bombay by steamer (twenty-three days)—in all, forty-four days. Without the aid of Government steamers, he calculated upon carrying on a courier service between Bombay and London of fifty to sixty days, and offered his services to the Government.

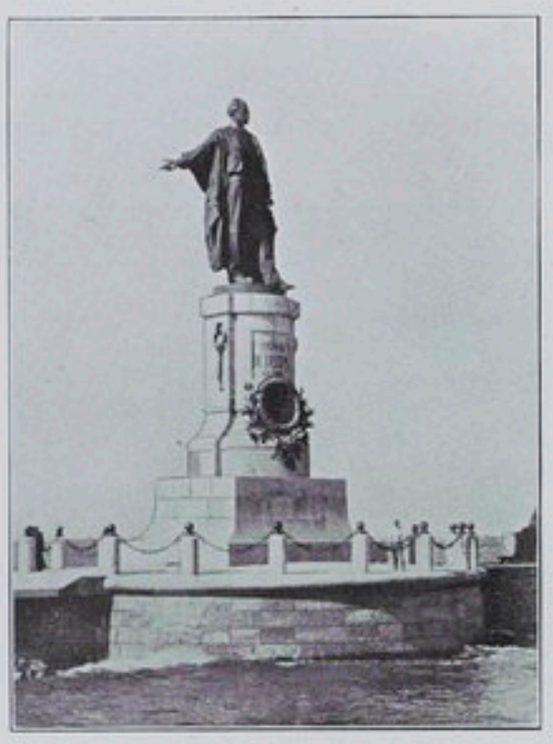
"I did not offer my services," he wrote, "in order to gain a situation; I am well satisfied with this I now hold; but I do so from another motive, namely, a conviction that it would be the means whereby more distant Settlements might be brought much nearer in communication."

Like many other inventors and innovators, before and since, he was a voice crying in the wilderness.

From 1831 to 1838, Waghorn carried on a courier service through Egypt, and tried to persuade the British authorities to adopt it as the mail route to India. He built eight halting places for travellers in the desert between Suez and Cairo, built three hotels, established regular caravans, substituted English carriages for dromedaries and donkeys, and introduced small steamers on the Nile. Only in 1837 was the Overland Route adopted for mail matter. In that year he organised a shipping business with George Wheatley, and this was the inception of the well-known firm known to-day as

Messrs. G. W. Wheatley & Co. In 1844 he stated that in twenty successive expresses the average journey was forty days.

In 1846, Messrs. Waghorn & Co. issued an Overland Guide to India, by three routes



MONUMENT TO FERDINAND DE LESSEPS AT PORT SAID.

to Egypt, giving general hints and information to passengers. This guide informs the traveller that "The Transit Administration was established by His Highness the Pacha, who has the entire transmission of mails, passengers, &c., &c., in his own hands. There are now horses, with steam and track boats on the canal, steamers on the Nile, and vans over the desert, with hotels the whole distance from Alexandria to Suez, as well as stations and sleeping places on the



LIEUTENANT THOMAS WAGHORN.

desert; and parties should be particularly cautious not to be misled by any other conveyance, otherwise they will lose the steamer at Suez or Alexandria, and be delayed a month in Egypt."

The trip was made in three stages, *i.e.*, from Alexandria to Atfe, on the canal (44 miles), the passage boats being towed by steam tugs; from Atfe to Cairo, by the Nile (120 miles), a sixteen to twenty hours' journey in steamers; from Cairo to Suez, across the desert (84 miles).

In the summer and hot months the various stages of the desert journey were made at night. For transport, there were coaches to accommodate six or eight passengers, drawn by four horses; two-wheeled vans for four persons and drawn by two horses; and donkey chairs—slight sedan chairs slung upon poles and carried by two donkeys. Saddle horses, donkeys, and dromedaries were also provided.

First-class passengers were conveyed from Alexandria to Suez, or vice versâ, for £12; second-class for £10; third-class for £8. In case all the seats in the vans were taken by gentlemen, ladies, children, and female servants, the administration reserved to itself the right of sending the male European servants and mechanics by dromedaries or donkeys at a reduced price, and a considerable reduction in the tariff was made to gentlemen who wished to cross the desert by this method of transport.

It is interesting to give the fares to Far Eastern ports by the Overland Route in 1846. Sailing from Southampton they were as follows:—

	Lady.	Gentleman.
Ceylon	£135	£125
Madras	140	130
Calcutta	150	140
Penang	157	147
Singapore... ...	167	157
Hongkong ...	192	182

There were extra charges for baggage.

The following are the charges by the principal mail lines to-day to ports east of the Suez Canal:—

	First-class.	Second-class.
Ceylon ...	£57 4 0	£35 4 0 to 41 16 0
Madras ... Calcutta ...	46 4 0	35 0 0
Penang ... Singapore	66 0 0	44 0 0
Hongkong	71 10 0	48 8 0

The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company also carries passengers by intermediate steamers at lower rates to these ports.

How far the canal dues affect passage rates may be learned from the statement of Sir Thomas Sutherland at the last annual meeting of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. He explained that the canal dues, in the case of mail steamers, are such that after allowing for those dues in the matter of coal and cargo capacity, the residuum deflects about £8 per head on every passenger carried through the canal by the Peninsular and Oriental Company. From the accounts submitted to that meeting, we learn that the shipping company paid £328,180 1s. 2d. for commanders, officers, and crews for the year ended September 30th, and £304,704 12s. for provisioning passengers, commanders, officers, and crews, whereas the Suez Canal dues on ships and passengers amounted to £329,576 13s. 8d. The canal dues, in fact, were more than the Company receives under the Government Service contracts to India, China, and Australia by £19,654 17s. 7d.

The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, which was the pioneer company to establish steam communication between Suez and India, Ceylon and China, carried passengers from Alexandria to Suez, from January 1, 1845. "It was a picturesque but uncomfortable passage by canal boat and steamer to Cairo, then by a two-wheeled



THE WAGHORN STATUE AT CHATHAM.

omnibus for 90 miles across the desert to Suez. Even the coal for the boats at Suez," adds the writer of the article in the Encyclopedia Britannica, "had to be transported in this fashion, which was cheaper than sending it by sailing vessel round the Cape. The construction of a railway across the Isthmus in 1859 simplified the transit."

Lieutenant Waghorn died in January, 1850, at the early age of 49, "a disappointed man in that he had been neglected by the authorities, who had profited by his devotion to the absorbing enterprise of his later years in the establishment of the Overland Route, upon which he had expended all his private means." Tardy recognition of this brave man's life-work came when his fellow countrymen realised the value of that work to the British Empire. A statue to commemorate the founder of "The Overland Route" was unveiled at Chatham by Lord Northbrook in August, 1888, and M. Ferdinand de Lesseps paid touching homage to the heartbroken Waghorn by placing a bust of him at the entrance of the canal at Suez.

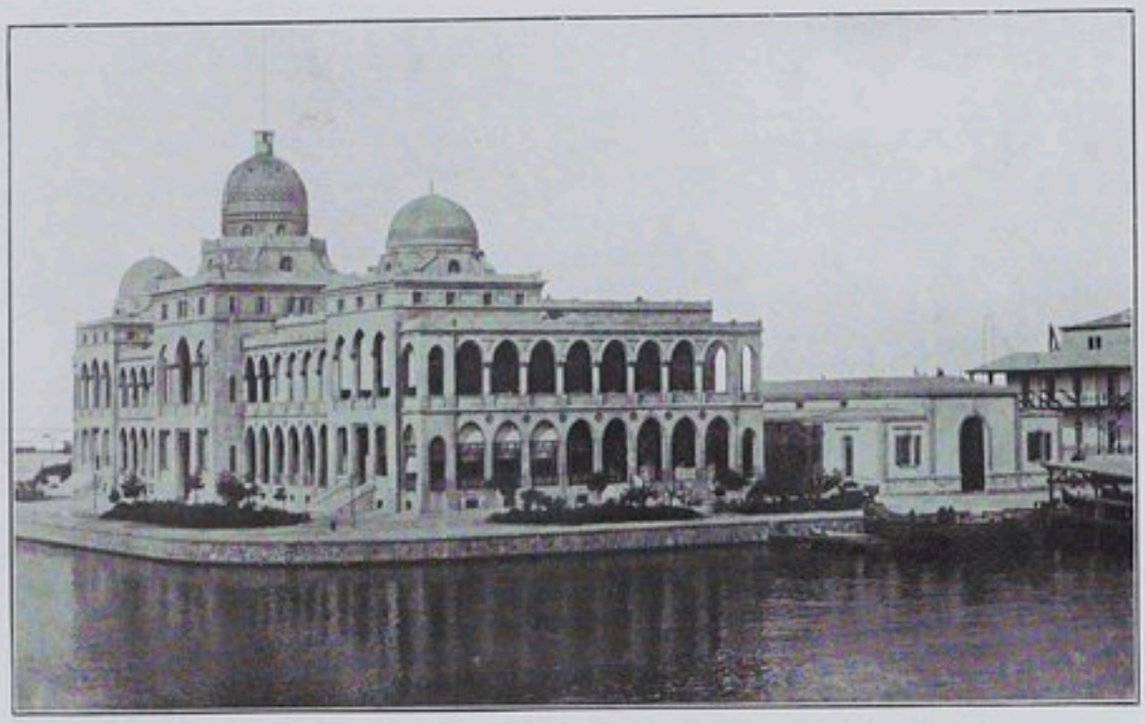


THE WAGHORN STATUE AT PORT TEWFIK.

We now come to the dominating figure in any history of the Suez Canal—Ferdinand de Lesseps.

When M. de Lesseps resigned from the French diplomatic service in 1849, he was

about fifty years of age and had spent twenty-nine years in the service, having been successively Consul in Tunis, Egypt, Rotterdam, Malaga, and Barcelona, and Minister at Madrid and Rome. Most men at that age would have considered their life's work



THE SUEZ CANAL COMPANY'S OFFICES AT PORT SAID.

accomplished, but not so M. de Lesseps, in whose fertile brain an idea implanted many years before was germinating to fruition.

On his way to Tunis, the vessel on which he was travelling was detained in quarantine at Alexandria. A friend in the diplomatic corps sent off to him Denon's work on "The Expedition to Egypt," and there he found Lepère's report to Napoleon Buonaparte on the piercing of the Isthmus of Suez. From that day, the construction of the canal was the aim kept constantly before his mind. Everything bearing upon the work, from the time of the Pharaohs down to the Napoleonic epoch, was conned by him. A study of the statistics of trade with the Far East revealed to him that the traffic by the Cape from East to West doubled itself every ten years. He calculated that, given facilities for quicker transit, this trade would increase, and that his judgment was correct may be verified by reference to the canal statistics of tonnage published in this article.

Not till July 8, 1852, did M. de Lesseps write about his scheme, and then only under pledge of secrecy to a diplomatic friend in Egypt. An attempt on his part to enlist the sympathies of the Porte took him to Constantinople in that year, but he met with a chilling reception, recognised that the moment was not opportune for pushing his project upon public notice, and retired, like Cincinnatus, to agricultural pursuits at La Chênai, near Berry.

It would be useless to speculate on what would have been the future of the canal scheme had M. de. Lesseps chosen to accept this initial rebuff and terminated his interest in the canal project. He it was whom Providence had ordained to carry out this great work; and it is interesting to recall from a lecture delivered by him, before the Société des Gens de Lettres, at Paris, in April, 1870, a few months after the opening of the canal, how the call came to him to enter upon the campaign which led to its completion. He was on the roof of his house at La Chênai, in 1854, engaged in the prosaic duty of superintending the work of some tradesmen, when a newspaper was handed to him containing news of the accession as Viceroy in Egypt of Mohammed Said, son of Mehemet Ali, in succession to Abbas Pasha. Many years before, de Lesseps' *père* had been brought into contact with Mehemet Ali, and a friendship had sprung up between their sons, and this friendship between Mohammed Said and de Lesseps had been renewed in later life. To read of Mohammed Said's accession was to foresee the realisation of his dreams in regard to the canal. To think



SHIPS PASSING THROUGH THE CANAL.

was to act. No time was lost. The month of November saw this retired French gentleman in Alexandria, enlisting adherents to his scheme and ascertaining the prospect of obtaining the influence and support of the Viceroy. Amongst the officials in immediate attendance on Mohammed Said was one Zulfikar Pasha, and it was arranged during a military expedition in which M. de Lesseps had joined the Viceroy that Zulfikar would give him a hint when it would be favourable to broach the subject to the Viceroy. Here is how de Lesseps described the momentous occasion :—

"Two months passed, and on the day named, the 30th of November, 1854, I presented myself at the tent of the Viceroy, placed on an eminence surrounded by a wall of rough stones, forming a little fortification with embrasures for cannon. I had remarked that there was a place where one could leap with a horse over the parapet, there being a terrace outside on which the horse had chance of a footing. The Viceroy welcomed my project, and requested me to go to my tent to prepare a report for him, which he permitted me to bring him. His councillors and Generals were around him. I vaulted on my horse, which leaped the parapet, galloped down the slope, and then brought me back to the enclosure, when I had taken the time necessary to draw up the report, which had been ready for several years. The whole question was clearly set forth in a page and a half; and when the Prince himself had read it to his followers, accompanying it with a translation in Turkish, and had asked their advice, he received the unanimous answer that the proposal of the guest, whose friendship for the family of Mehemet Ali was known, could not be otherwise than favourable, and that it was desirable to accept.

"The concession was immediately granted. The word of Mohammed Said was as good as a contract.

"On arriving at Cairo, he received in front of the citadel the representatives of the different Governments, who came to congratulate him on his accession to the Vice-Royalty. He then said to the Consul-General of America, 'I shall queen the pawn against you Americans. The Isthmus of Suez will be pierced before yours.'"

The following is the full text of the First Concession by His Highness Mohammed Said, Viceroy of Egypt :—

Our friend M. Ferdinand de Lesseps having called our attention to the advantages which would result to Egypt from the junction of the Mediterranean Sea with the Red Sea by a passage navigable by large vessels, and having shown us the possibility of constituting a Company formed of capitalists of all nations for this purpose, we have accepted the combinations he has submitted to us, and have given him by these Presents the exclusive power of constituting and directing an Universal Company for cutting through the Isthmus of Suez and establishing a Canal between the two seas, with power to undertake, or cause to be undertaken, all works and constructions, the Company being charged with indemnifying private individuals in case of expropriation for the public use ; the whole within the limits, conditions, and charges settled in the Articles which follow :—

Article I. M. Ferdinand de Lesseps will form a Company, the direction of which we confide to him, under the name of the "Universal Company of the Maritime Canal of Suez," for piercing the Isthmus of Suez, and opening up a passage navigable by large vessels, the foundation or appropriation of two sufficient entrances, one upon the Mediterranean, the other upon the Red Sea, and the establishment of one or two ports.

Article II. The Director of the Company is always to be nominated by the Egyptian Government, and chosen, as far as possible, from among the shareholders most interested in the undertaking.

Article III. The length of the grant is for ninety-nine years from the day of the opening of the Canal between the two seas.

Article IV. The works will be carried on at the exclusive expense of the Company, to which all necessary land, not belonging to private individuals, will be granted gratuitously. The fortifications which the Government may see fit to erect are not to be at the charge of the Company.

Article V. The Egyptian Government will receive annually from the Company 15 per cent. of the net profits arising from the Company's balance, without prejudice to the interest and dividends accruing from the shares which the said Government reserves to itself at the time of their issue, and without any guarantee on its part for the carrying on of works, or in the Company's operations. The remainder of the net profits will be allotted as follows :—

75 per cent. to the benefit of the Company ;
10 per cent. to the benefit of members founding the Company.

Article VI. The tariff of the right of way through the Suez Canal arranged by the Company and the Viceroy of Egypt, and levied by the Company's agents, always is to be the same for all nations, no one nation being able to stipulate for any advantage to its own profit in particular.

Article VII. In the case of the Company judging it necessary to connect, by a navigable way, the Nile with the direct cutting of the isthmus, or in the case of the Maritime Canal taking an indirect course, which is supplied by the waters of the Nile, the Egyptian Government is to give up to the Company those portions of the public property now uncultivated which would be watered and cultivated at the expense or by the care of the said Company.

The Company will enjoy possession, without taxes, of the said property for the term of ten years from the day of the opening of the Canal ; during the eighty-nine years which will still remain before the expiration of the grant it shall pay tithes (dimes) to the Egyptian Government ; after which time it is only to be allowed to continue in possession of the lands above mentioned so long as it pays to the said Government the regular tax equal to what is laid on land of the same nature.

Article VIII. To avoid all difficulty on the subject of land given up to the Company, a plan drawn out by M. Linant Bey, the engineer appointed by us to the Company, will indicate the lands granted, whether for the passage and the establishment of the Maritime Canal and the Canal of supplies derived from the Nile, or for the purposes of cultivation, in conformity with the stipulations of Article VII.

It is, moreover, understood that henceforth all speculation upon the portions of public land to be granted is forbidden, and that lands formerly belonging to private individuals, which the proprietors may wish, later on, to be watered by the Canal of supplies made at the Company's expense, shall pay a fine of . . . on each cultivated feddan (or a sum fixed amicably by the Egyptian Government and the Company).

Article IX. Power is finally granted to the Company to work all mines and quarries belonging to the public lands without paying for materials necessary for the works of the Canal and the constructions belonging to it ; also to enjoy free importation of all machines and materials from abroad for the working of the Concession.

Article X. At the expiration of the Concession, the Egyptian Government will take the place of the Company, and enjoy its rights without reserve, and enter into full possession of the Canal of the two Seas, and all the establishments thereunto belonging. An amicable arrangement or arbitration will determine the indemnity allowed to the Company for the surrender of materials and moveable articles.

Article XI. The Statutes of the Society must ultimately be submitted to us by the Director of the Company for our approbation. Modifications which may be introduced hereafter must receive our sanction beforehand. The said Statutes will mention the names of founders ; we reserve to ourselves the right to approve of the list. This list will comprehend all persons who, by their labours, their learning, exertions, or capital, have contributed to the execution of the great undertaking of the Suez Canal.

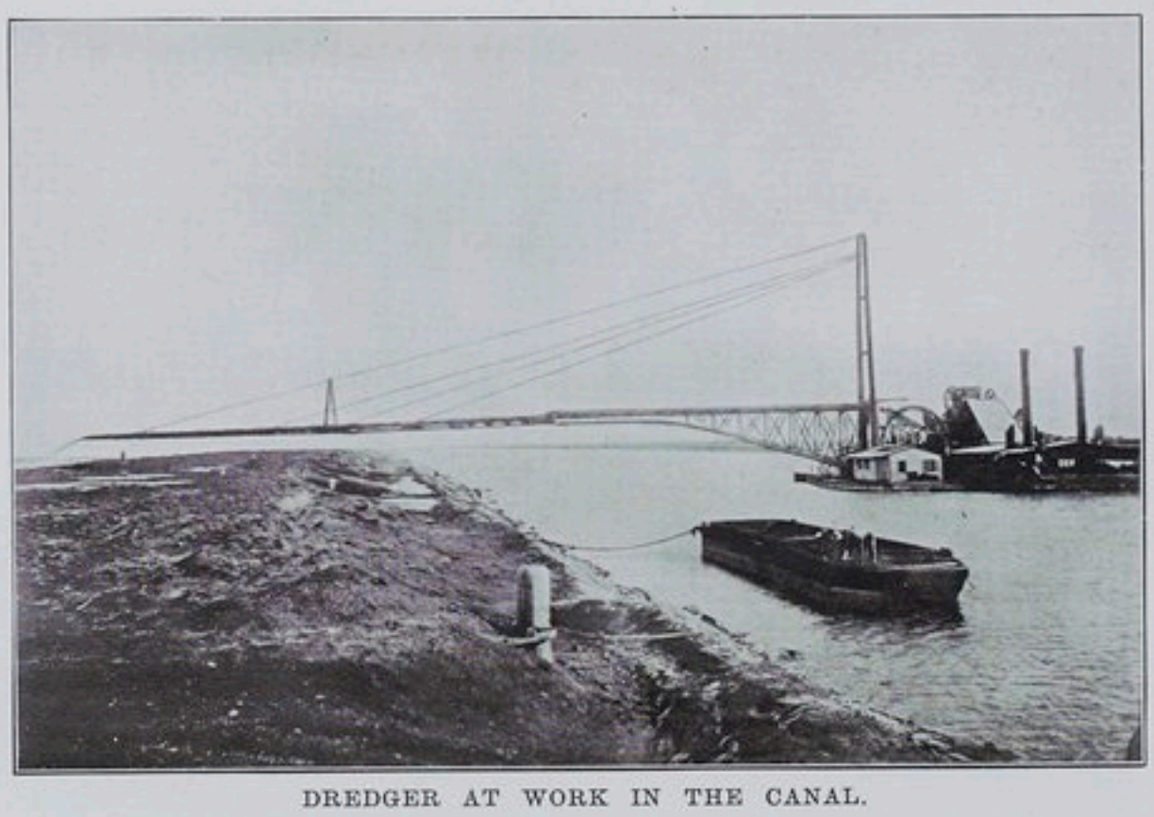
Article XII. Finally, we promise our good and loyal concurrence, and that of all the functionaries of Egypt, in order to facilitate the execution and administration of these present powers.

Cairo, November 30, 1854.

The Second Act of Concession and Specification for the Construction and Management of the Great Maritime Suez Canal and Supplementary Works, dated January 5, 1856, is a longer and more formal document. It contains a clause revoking the above-quoted document, and any other conditions not in conformity with the new Act and Specification.

In the revised Act of Concession, which came later still, it was stated explicitly that though the canal at the expiration of the ninety-nine years' concession reverted to the Government, the Company were allowed to renew for successive terms of the same length, at a gradually increasing percentage —20 per cent. for the second year, 25 per cent. for the third, and so on till 35 per cent. was reached, when this was to become the limit. In this connection, we observe that in Lord Cromer's report on Egypt for 1905, he writes :—"I should remark that, in 1968, the Suez Canal becomes the property of the Egyptian Government, when a large asset will be placed at its disposal, which can be used for the reduction of debt."

Three French engineers were associated with M. de Lesseps for the furtherance of the scheme—Mougel Bey, Linant Bey, and M. Aivas—but several years of strenuous opposition had to be overcome before a spade could be lifted to begin the excavation. Strangely enough, the head and front of this opposition was the British Government, inspired, apparently, by their Ambassador at Constantinople, Sir Stratford Canning (afterwards Lord Stratford de Redcliffe). The *Times* ridiculed the scheme and treated as Quixotic the idea that the entrance at Pelusium (now Port Said) could be kept open.



DREDGER AT WORK IN THE CANAL.

M. de Lesseps had the sympathy of the nephew of Napoleon Buonaparte and the hearty support of the Empress Eugénie, who was afterwards to take a leading part in the opening ceremony; but on the Continent there was an earnest anxiety to avoid incurring the displeasure of Britain, and so the concessionaire was left to fight his own battles without the diplomatic support of French officials. It must be confessed that at this period M. de Lesseps showed marvellous patience and fertility of resource. In after life he poured withering scorn upon those who insinuated that he was purely an adventurer seeking to obtain the money of a gullible public. To combat the assertions of those who said the engineering difficulties were unsurmountable, M. de Lesseps was successful in getting an International Commission appointed in 1855 to investigate and report on the scheme. The members composing this Commission were :—

Austria—Mr. de Negrelli, Inspector-General of Austrian Railways.

Italy—Mr. Paleocapa, Sardinian Minister of Public Works.

Spain—Mr. Montesino, Director of Madrid Public Works.

Holland—Mr. Conrad, Director-General of Water Service.

Prussia—Mr. Lentzé, Chief Engineer of the Works on the Vistula.

Britain—Mr. Rendel, Mr. Maclean, and Mr. Manby, along with Captain Harris, East India Company's Navy.

France—M. Renaud, Inspector-General of Public Works; M. Lieussou, Hydrographic Engineer to the Navy; and Admirals Rigault de Genouilly and Jaurès.

Mr. Conrad was chosen to be president, and Mr. Manby and M. Lieussou agreed to act as secretaries.

The delegates met in Paris, and refused to accept payment, even of travelling expenses, giving their services in the interests of science and civilisation.

A sub-committee of five was appointed to carry out the technical investigations, and nearly a year elapsed before the Commission issued its report, which was altogether favourable, notwithstanding difference of opinion regarding the method of construction. The Viceroy bore the cost of these investigations, amounting in all to £12,000.

Without waiting for the report of the Commission, opponents of the scheme waged a vigorous campaign in England. The *Edinburgh Review* was exceptionally virulent in its attack. It proved to its own satisfaction that the scheme was a mere piece of "French fancy work." Its criticism of engineering details have been shown to be absolutely wrong. Some of its dicta may be quoted to show the nature of the opinions held by educated men half a century ago: "It would cost far more to send goods by the Red Sea route because of the dangerous navigation of the Red Sea"; "It is questionable whether steamers will ever be able to compete with sailing vessels for goods traffic"; "The Canal will never pay working expenses"; and "It will neither shorten the passage to India nor materially facilitate intercourse between the Mother Country and its dependencies!"

We shall have occasion again to refer in its proper place to some of the differences of opinion held by engineering experts. M. de Lesseps set himself to wear down the opposition in England. He conducted a propaganda throughout the length and breadth of the land. He held twenty-two meetings in England, Scotland, and Ireland, winning public sympathy in the centres of manufacture and commerce by his personality and obvious sincerity. "While finding sympathy in commercial and lettered classes," he told the Société des Gens de Lettres in 1870, "I had found heads of wood among the politicians." He did ask for financial support because he thought that if this were given it would cause the withdrawal of the political opposition to his scheme, but he was to learn later, when his company was floated, that there were few financial supporters of the canal project outside the Viceroy and M. de Lesseps' own compatriots.

Lord Palmerston, then Prime Minister, constituted himself the protagonist of M. de Lesseps.

On July 7, 1857, Lord Palmerston stated in the House of Commons, in answer to a question by Mr. H. Berkeley:

"The obvious political tendency of the undertaking is to render more easy the separation of Egypt from Turkey. It is founded also on remote speculations with regard to easier access to our Indian possessions, which I need not more distinctly shadow forth, because they will be obvious to anybody who pays any attention to the subject. I can only express my surprise that M. Ferdinand de Lesseps should have reckoned so much on the credulity of English capitalists as to think that by his progress through the different commercial towns in this country he should succeed in obtaining English money for the promotion of a scheme which is in every way so adverse and hostile to British interests. That scheme was launched, I believe, about fifteen years ago, as a rival to the railway from Alexandria by Cairo to Suez, which, being infinitely more practicable, and likely to be more useful, obtained the pre-eminence. M. de Lesseps is a very persevering gentleman, and may have great engineering skill at his command; at all events, he pursues his scheme very steadily, though I am disposed to think that probably the object he and some others of the promoters have in view will be accomplished, even if the whole of the undertaking should not be carried into execution. If my hon. friend the Member for Bristol and his friends will take my advice, they will have nothing to do with the scheme in question."

Speaking on July 17, Lord Palmerston said:

"I therefore think I am not much out of the way in stating this to be one of the bubble schemes which are often set on foot to induce English capitalists to embark their money upon enterprises which in the end will only leave them poorer, whoever else they may make richer."

But the opposition to the scheme was not confined to one political party in England. Questioned in the House of Commons as to whether the Conservative Government adopted the policy of its predecessors towards the canal scheme, Mr. Disraeli replied: "It is a most futile attempt and totally impossible to be carried out," adding: "Even if it were feasible, the operation of nature would, in a short time, totally defeat the ingenuity of man." Mr. Disraeli's opinion may have been based, like Lord Palmerston's, on the opposition of Mr. Stephenson, the engineer for the railway from Alexandria to Suez, who took advantage, honestly enough it may be, of his having a seat in the House of Commons to assail the canal project.

Meanwhile, the ventilation of the subject in its political and engineering aspects was weakening the opposition in England, and it became apparent that if the canal could be neutralised the voice of British opposition would be stilled. A debate in the House of Lords and a Cabinet meeting led up to a communication by the British Ambassador at Constantinople to the Porte, and negotiations were opened up with the various Maritime Powers with a view to neutralisation.

M. de Lesseps felt that the psychological moment had come. The Universal Company of the Maritime Canal of Suez was floated in Paris to raise the funds necessary to begin the work. Money flowed into the Company's office at No. 16, Place Vendôme. Peasant, priest, soldier, man of letters, and financier—all flocked to support the scheme. As an index of the universality of the applications for the £20 shares, upon which £2 had to be paid on subscribing and £6 on allotment, it may be mentioned that in Paris alone 21,035 persons applied for 20,711 shares. It need not embitter international relations to allude to the fact that subscriptions were the more readily forthcoming from quarters where it was believed that a blow was being struck at "*la perfide Albion*." Notice was duly given to M. Rouher, the Minister of Public Works, on December 26, 1858, that the Company was duly constituted.

On March 9, 1859, the work of construction was begun on the site of Port Said. Progress was interdicted by the Sultan in April, 1860, but the French Emperor intervened and work was resumed.

It is, of course, conjectural, but it is by no means improbable, that the delay to the commencement of the work contributed unintentionally to the financial success of the canal so soon after its completion. Improvements were being rapidly introduced in steamship construction, and time was given to shipowners by the heated and prolonged controversy that advertised the scheme to adapt their vessels for the conditions likely to ensue from change of route to the Far East. If French capital built the canal, British capital paid the dividends.

Prince Jerome Napoleon was appointed Protector of the Company; M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, President. Mougel Bey was the Chief Engineer to the Company; M. Hardon the first contractor. Other engineers engaged on the work were Messrs. Voisin, Borel, and Lavalley.

No time was lost in creating the harbour at Port Said. According to naval officers and engineering experts, much depended upon the ability of the Company to maintain a safe port of entry at the northern end of the canal, one which it would be safe to approach in all states of the weather, where adequate anchorage could be obtained which would not silt up in consequence of the action of the tides. Any one gifted with the ordinary powers of imagination has only to look at the present surroundings of Port Said to be able to picture the desolation which marked the site of what is now a busy port, the most cosmopolitan meeting place in the world, through which almost the entire bulk of the Eastern and Australasian trade passes to-day. An unpromising strip of yellow sand separating the blue waters of the Mediterranean from the stagnant marsh of Lake Menzaleh has been converted into a prosperous town, with busy, well-kept streets, well-built houses, thriving shops, and a native bazaar, where Japanese curios are exposed side by side with Benares ware, Turkish and Persian produce, and the treasures of Egypt and Equatorial Africa.

Two long arms of masonry were thrust out by the engineers to act as piers and breakwaters. Upon the western pier stands the colossal bronze statue by the sculptor Fremiet of Ferdinand de Lesseps, head erect, the

whole bearing of the figure implying confidence, and the right hand thrown out, as if pointing to his finished work and challenging the criticisms of his former opponents. This statue is four times the natural size, and stands on a pedestal 10½ metres high. In the left hand there depends an unfolded plan of the canal. The statue was unveiled with great ceremony on November 17, 1899, the thirtieth anniversary of the opening of the Canal.

The western pier is at right angles to the shore, and is slightly curved eastward towards its extremity. It is 6,940 feet long. The eastern pier is 6,020 feet in length. Both piers are composed of specially prepared blocks 12 cubic yards in size and weighing 22 tons each. They are composed of a mixture of sand and hydraulic lime imported from Theil, in France, in the respective proportions of two-thirds sand to one-third lime. These component parts were worked together with salt water. The mixture was then run into great moulds and allowed to harden, and afterwards allowed to slide into position. There were nearly 30,000 used. Each block cost £16. The fears expressed that the piers would be swallowed up by the quicksands of the shores of the Mediterranean have not been realised.

In 1906, the total trade of Port Said was valued at £2,557,485 Egyptian, about £220,000 less than it was in 1904.

In that year considerable progress was made with the harbour improvements, an extensive basin being dredged on the eastern side of the canal for colliers and petroleum ships. The Abbas basin on the western side is to be made available for ships trading direct with Egypt. At the same time the Cherif basin on the western side has been doubled in size and deepened to 30 feet.

The Canal Company's workshops are being removed to the eastern side of the harbour, where a new village is established for workmen, and the tract of land formerly occupied by the workshops will be dredged away and deepened, making a new large basin of the arsenal, with wharves reaching up to the railway station.

Another most important work in contemplation is the renewal of the old eastern breakwater and its continuation towards the western breakwater, so as to protect the shipping in harbour during winter gales.

At the Suez end, the situation was not such as to cause so much anxiety. Nevertheless, it was deemed advisable to construct a mole, 850 yards long, across the entrance to the canal to serve the double purpose of protection from southerly gales in the Gulf of Suez and to mitigate the action of the tide at high water.

With the actual cutting of the canal from sea to sea no great difficulty was ever contemplated, provided the labour was forthcoming and an adequate water supply could be maintained for the labour force. Under the revised Act of Concession, the Viceroy bound himself to provide twenty thousand men, replaced every three months, and these were forthcoming under a system of "forced labour" until it aroused the outcries of humanitarians in England and led to its withdrawal, forcing the engineers and contractors to resort to machinery of their own invention to carry on the work of excavation. Three thousand camels were employed to bring water to the labourers, and until the Fresh Water Canal from Port Said to Ismailia was finished in 1863 it cost the Administration 8,000 francs a day to keep up the water supply. The Fresh Water Canal was to have been constructed by the Egyptian Government, but the slow progress of the work compelled the Company to take over the construction. In the arbitration which followed on the withdrawal of the "forced labour," the Fresh Water Canal was handed over to the Egyptian Government, which paid the Company compensation to the extent of £400,000. As many as eighty thousand men were employed on the works at one time, and the interference of the Porte, at the instance of the British Government, so seriously affected the enterprise that work was suspended for nearly two years. In the arbitration which followed, the Emperor Napoleon III., who had called in the assistance of technical experts, gave his award in favour of the Company. For the withdrawal of labour the Company was awarded £1,520,000, for the Fresh Water Canal £400,000, for tolls relinquished £240,000, and for ceding to the Viceroy the Company's title to all lands capable of cultivation by means of the irrigation from the Fresh Water Canal £1,200,000—in all an indemnity of £3,360,000.

The serious check to the work occasioned by the abolition of "forced labour" was the engineers' opportunity. They set themselves to devise machinery to continue the excavations. Dredges were transported ingeniously from Port Said by means of the Fresh Water Canal into the desert, and, with other mechanical appliances, were used cleverly to carry on the work. The first patent dredger invented had an endless cloth band, moving on rollers, which was to remove 1,000 cubic yards of mud per day of ten working hours. In four or five years it was superseded by great elevators and machines *à couloir* which did nearly four times the work.

A writer in the *Illustrated London News*, of April, 1869, thus describes the dredges in operation :—

"There is a different kind of mechanical apparatus, called the *drague à long couloir*, which is used in immediate connection with the dredging vessels where the banks are not so high above the water. The dredges are furnished with iron buckets fastened on an endless chain revolving over two drums, one being fixed at the end of a long movable arm, regulated by the depth at which the mud is scooped up, the other being at the top of a strong iron framework mounted upon the hull of the dredging vessel. They vary in size and power, the smallest being 15 horse-power and the largest 75 horse-power. The boxes, or caissons, have each a capacity of four cubic yards, and seven of them fit into one of the attendant punts. One end of a box is made to open like a door on hinges, so as to let its contents run out when lifted by the elevator, and carried by the tramway to the other end, when it is discharged. The elevator is an inclined plane, about fifty-two yards long, carrying two lines of rail. It is supported in the middle by an iron frame, which rests on a carriage, movable upon rails laid for the purpose along the bank of the canal, at a height of six feet above the water, the lower end of the elevator reaches over the water and is supported by a steam float. When the machine is at work, the lower extremity is three yards above the water, while the upper end has an elevation of twelve yards, reaching far over the embankment. Each box of earth is lifted from the punt by a steel wire rope, and placed on a truck which carries it to the upper end of the incline. Having reached this point, the box is suspended vertically, when its end-door opens, so that it empties itself on the ground beneath. The empty box then runs down the other line of tramway, and is returned by the punt to the dredging-vessel.

"The *long couloir*, or long duct, is of curved or half-elliptical form, sometimes seventy-five yards long, but often smaller, with a slightly inclined channel five feet wide and two feet deep, which is supported by an iron framework on the deck of a barge; a steam pump keeps a stream of water flowing through this channel, by which the dredged-up matter, when dropped into its upper end, is carried off and cast ashore on the bank of the canal; this process being aided in some cases by the action of the *balayeur* (scrapers or sweepers), an endless chain passing along the centre of the channel and bearing a number of iron scrapers to remove the half-liquid slime and mud. By means of the *long couloir*, which has a reach of seventy-five yards, the dredge can work in the very middle of the canal, and, with a very easy movement, can deposit its dredgings almost horizontally, or at a moderate elevation, well beyond the water-line on each side. The float or barge, which supports the *long couloir* in the water, is fastened by chains alongside the dredging vessel."

These dredging machines carried off from two thousand to three thousand cubic metres a day, and as there were sixty of them in operation they extracted monthly as much as 2,000,000 cubic metres (about 2,763,000 cubic yards).

The route of the canal lay along a natural depression. Only at two places was the ground above sea-level. At El Guisr, the highest point on a plateau 10 miles long was 59 feet; at Serapeum, where seven miles of plateau had to be excavated, it reached 36 feet above mean level.

From Port Said to Kantara, across the Lake of Menzaleh, was a difficult piece of work. There excavations 4 feet deep had to be made in the liquid mud forming the floor of the lake. This mud had not the consistency to form embankments, but the native workers squeezed out the water by pressing the mud against their chests, and then laid it in lumps upon each other. The material thus obtained must have been similar in character to what is known as Canton mud, used for waterworks and embankments in Southern China. Eventually, walls 6 feet high were raised above the water, and these were soon converted into a solid mass, leaving a clear channel for the navigable waterway.

In cutting his way through the plateau at El Guisr, the contractor, M. Couvreux, laid three lines of tramway, and with the aid of six large engines and 250 waggons he had completed the excavations by January, 1868.

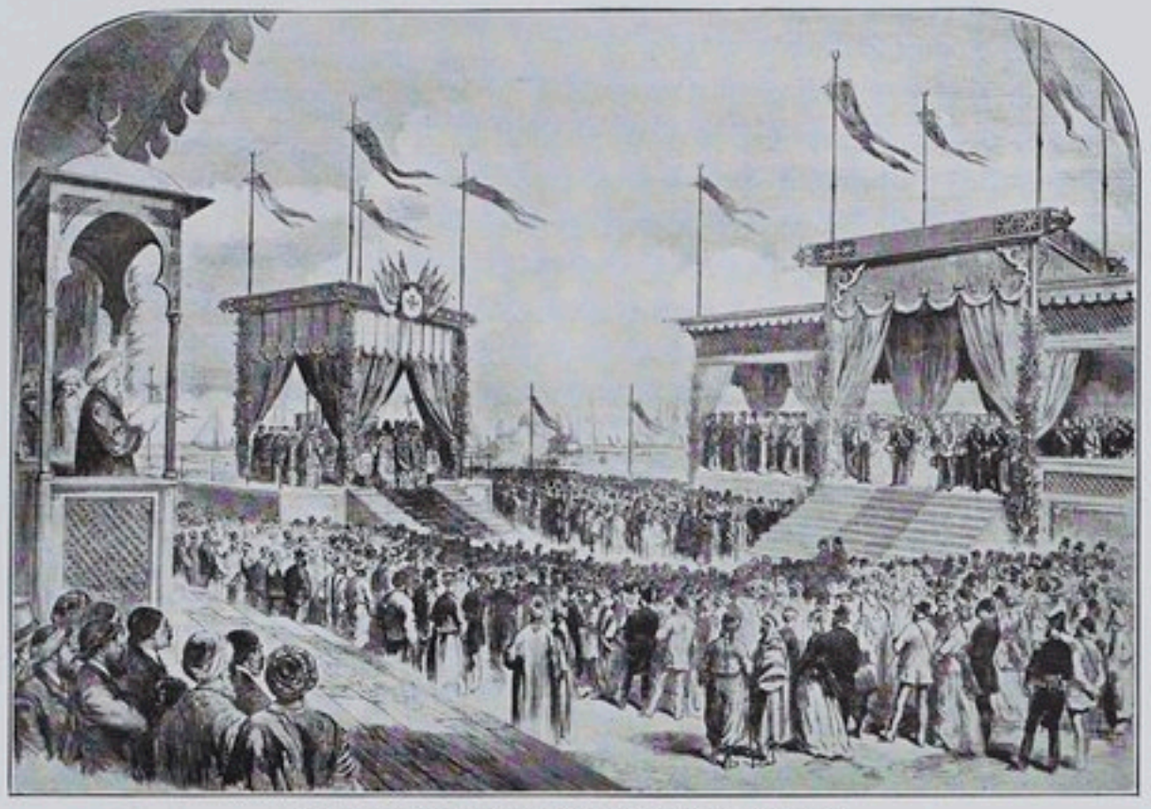
At Ismailia, a new town was created, and by 1862 communication had been established between the Mediterranean and Lake Timsah, and a waterway for flat-bottomed boats of light draught was available.

It was at the cutting of the Serapeum plateau that the dredgers were so ingeniously introduced by means of the Fresh Water Canal, and the Chalouf cutting between the Bitter Lakes and Suez was the last portion of the canal to be finished.

Judging from the deposits of salt found on the ground now known as the Bitter Lakes, it is supposed that this was an inland sea in former days. As this section was below sea-level, all that had to be done here after flooding was to ensure a proper depth of water for a fairway and to mark it off by buoys and beacons as it appears to-day.

The total length of the Suez Canal is 98 miles—66 through dry land and 32 through the Menzaleh, Ballah, Timsah, and Bitter Lakes. It is estimated that 96,938,066 cubic yards of mud, sand, &c., were dredged and excavated. The average depth is about

30 feet. This has been attained gradually by dredging to meet the growing demands of traffic through the canal. On the eve of the opening of the canal a portion of 22 miles had been excavated to a width of



THE OPENING OF THE SUEZ CANAL.
Blessing the Canal at Port Said in the presence of the Imperial and Royal Visitors.
(From the *Illustrated London News*, Dec. 11, 1869.)

196 feet at the surface of the water and 26 feet deep for 72 feet at the bottom, while the remainder of the canal was 327 feet wide at the water's surface. Since January 1, 1902, the maximum draught allowed of vessels using the canal was raised to 26 feet 3 inches (8 metres). In 1906, it was raised to 27 feet, and in 1908 to 28 feet. The report presented to the shareholders at their last annual meeting foreshadows a continued improvement in this respect until a depth of 36 feet 8 inches is attained, through a series of systematic works extending over four or five years. These, when completed, will allow the passage of a vessel drawing 35 feet of water. The machinery used in the construction work cost £2,400,000, and the coal £40,000 per month.

The navigable dimensions of the canal in 1906 were practically double what they were twenty years ago, the superficies of the vertical profile having been increased from 320 to 580 square metres in the ordinary channel, and to 740 square metres in the numerous "gares," or crossing-places. From 1898 to 1904, owing to the increasing size of ships, larger gares were begun, some twenty in number, at intervals of three miles, each gare having an effective length of 820 yards, with approaches of 328 yards at either end. At each gare, the bottom width of the canal is 50 yards, the width at the water level over 100 yards, the depth of water being 31 feet.

Taking the canal as a whole, its width on the water level in the northern half is now from 100 to 120 yards, and in the southern half, from 80 to 100 yards.

At first, passage for large steamers was slow and tedious, but since the introduction of electric light, night traffic became possible, and the average duration of passage nowadays is a little under eighteen hours. In 1886, it was over forty-eight hours.

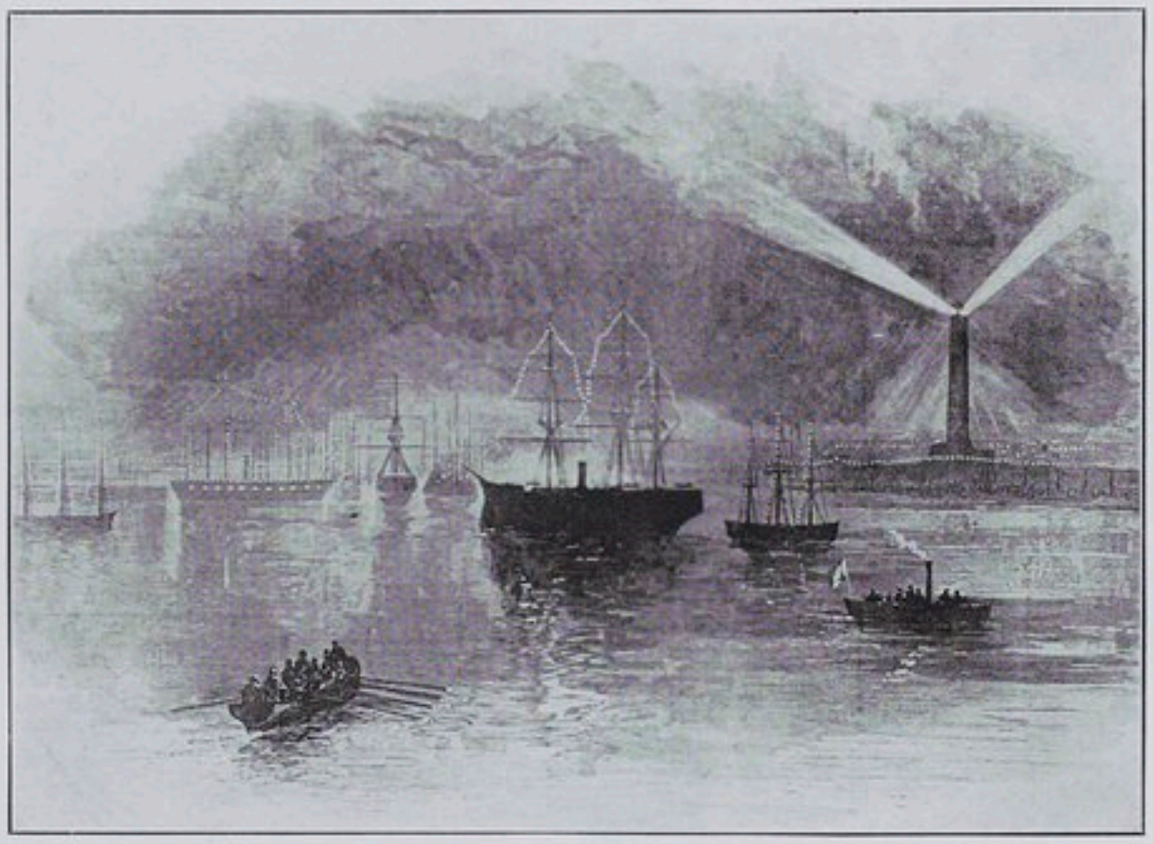
The total cost of construction and incidental expenses was about £20,000,000. Of this amount, the shareholders bore £12,800,000, the remainder falling on the Viceroy or Khedive.

To M. de Lesseps the ten years from 1859, when the digging of the canal was begun, till 1869, when it was formally opened with universal acclamation, were years of constant worry and vexation. New problems presented themselves, threatening ruin to the project—political intrigue and international interference, engineering difficulties arising out of the withdrawal of forced labour, and financial tribulations as the progress of the work revealed the necessity for expenditure beyond all previous estimates. Genius and a happy temperament were needed to overcome these problems. M. de Lesseps rose superior to them all, and in his speech to the Société des Gens de Lettres, in 1870, we seem to hear the triumphant note which must have been predominant when he welcomed the Empress to inaugurate the work on its completion on November 17, 1869.

Prior to this, however, M. de Lesseps had identified the King of England and Queen Alexandra with the scheme. As Prince and Princess of Wales, they were travelling in the East in 1869, and on March 24 visited the works at Suez. On the following day a more extended examination of the work was made in H.M.S. *Prompt*, the first steam vessel to enter the canal by the Red Sea entrance. After breakfast, the royal party, accompanied by M. de Lesseps and the members of the engineering staff, journeyed along the banks of the Chalouf section to Ismailia, where the Princess inaugurated the inlet of the waters of the Mediterranean to fill up the Bitter Lakes. The night was spent at Ismailia, and the party sailed to Port Said, whence the Prince and Princess embarked on H.M.S. *Ariadne* for Constantinople.

It was fitting that the Empress Eugénie should perform the inaugural ceremony. Amidst the court ceremonials and gaieties of the Tuileries, the most brilliant Empress in Europe had found time to learn the details at first hand of M. de Lesseps' scheme. It appealed to her imagination, and throughout the protracted negotiations that threatened to wreck the projector's hopes she had generously and graciously given him her unstinted support.

The opening ceremony was made a magnificent international function. An opera house was built at Cairo at a cost of £60,000. Verdi, the composer, wrote the Egyptian opera "Aïda" for the occasion, and no composition is more popular during the Cairo season to-day, when it is produced with all the splendour that marked its first performance. For the Empress Eugénie's convenience, a palace was built at Ismailia at a cost of £40,000. To enable her to visit



THE OPENING OF THE SUEZ CANAL.
The Illuminations at Port Said. (From the *Illustrated London News*, Dec. 11, 1869.)

the Pyramids and Sphinx, a new road was constructed in a few days. Preparations were made on a regal scale for banquets and other festivities. The Viceroy brought five hundred cooks and a thousand servants from Trieste, Genoa, Leghorn, and Marseilles. Nothing that money could buy or fancy suggest was omitted to mark a great historic event.

When the Imperial French yacht *Aigle*, with the Empress and her suite, arrived at Port Said, on November 16, there were 160 vessels of various nationalities in the harbour. French, British, Austrian, Russian, Italian, Prussian, Turkish, Egyptian warships thundered a welcome, and royalties put off in state barges to pay personal homage to the principal figure in the approaching ceremonials.

Next morning, amidst the booming of naval guns, the royal visitors assembled to form the imposing procession to the pavilions erected for the performance of the religious rites that were to open the day's programme. It is thus described by an eye-witness :—

"The Heir Apparent of Egypt came first, with the Princess of Holland on his arm. The Empress of the French took the arm of the Emperor of Austria, and the Khedive and the Crown Prince of Prussia walked on each hand. The Grand Duke Michael of Russia and the young Prince of Holland accompanied them; and a brilliant staff of French, Prussian, Russian, Austrian, and Egyptian officers, all in uniform and decorations, followed in procession. There was much cheering all along the line for the Empress, and the Kaiser was warmly welcomed, there being many Austrian subjects at Port Said. The Emperor of Austria wore his uniform of white tunic, scarlet pantaloons, and cocked hat and green feather; the Prince of Prussia that of the uniform of the Prussian Guard. The Viceroy's uniform was blue, with gold lace, and with a broad green ribbon, the hilt of his scimitar blazing with jewels.

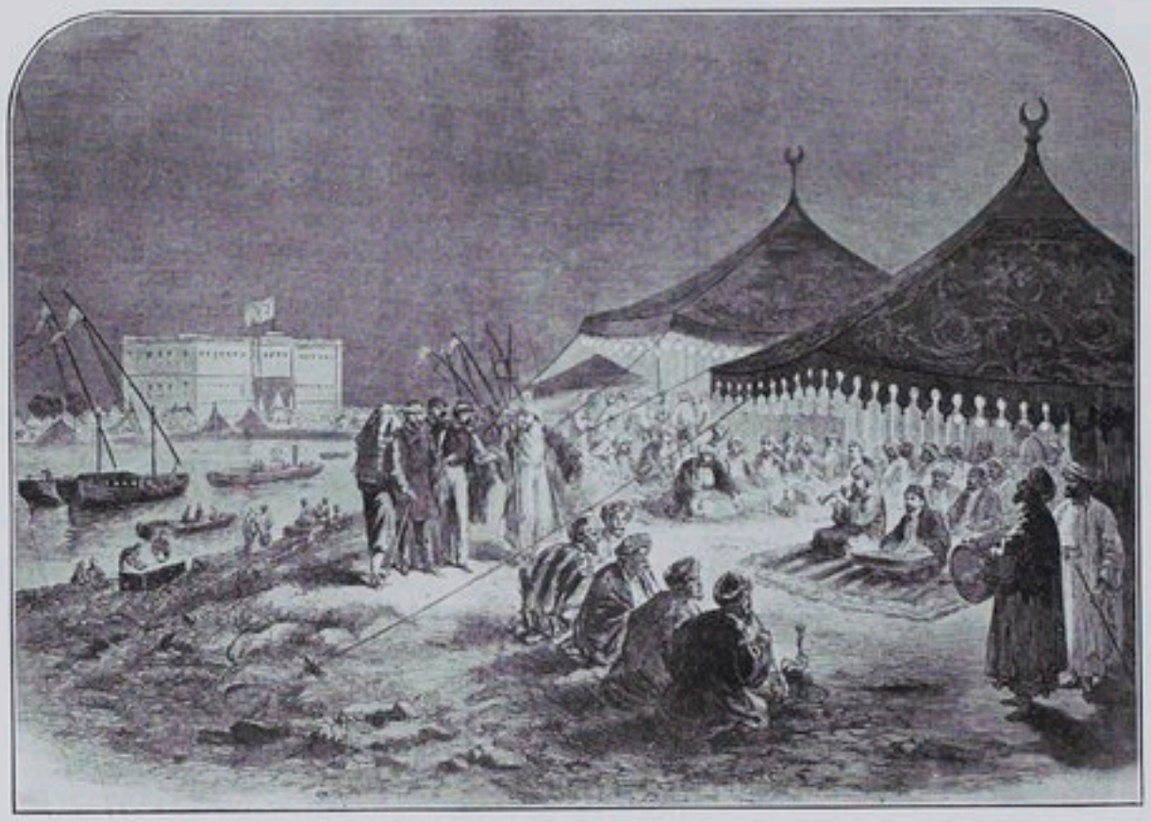
"Entering the pavilion, the Empress took the central seat, having the Emperor of Austria upon her right and the Khedive upon



THE EMPRESS EUGENIE.
(From an Engraving of the Painting by Winterhalter.)

her left. Behind were a crowd of distinguished persons in every variety of uniform," including many British representative men and women.

"After a short pause, the religious ceremonies began. The Ulemah, or chief ecclesiastic of the Mohammedan faith, a venerable personage with a flowing white beard, read from his scroll of parchment a prayer to Allah to bestow a blessing on



THE OPENING OF THE SUEZ CANAL.
Festival at Ismailia. (From the *Illustrated London News*, Dec. 18, 1869.)

the multitude assembled there, and on the enterprise they had come to dedicate to the service of mankind. This part of the ceremony was very brief, but the scene was a striking one. The Mussulman having concluded, the Archbishop of Jerusalem, in full robes, ascended the steps of the high altar in the Christian kiosque, and, with the attending priests, said mass. This over, the Archbishop retired, and a handsome priest, clothed in purple, who was Monsignor Bauer, the Empress's confessor, came forward and, standing a few steps below the altar, proceeded to deliver an eloquent discourse or *éloge* on the Suez Canal, M. de Lesseps, the Viceroy, the Empress, and all the illustrious visitors present. Master of a fine voice, and skilled to use the fluent and graceful rhetoric of the French pulpit, the orator made a very felicitous speech. When he compared M. de Lesseps to Columbus, there was a slight burst of applause.

"The company then withdrew. The Emperor of Austria gave his arm to the Empress of the French. There was a little offering of flowers made by a group of little girls to Her Majesty at the foot of the platform or daïs. The Viceroy followed, then came the Crown Prince of Prussia, the Netherlands Princess, and the rest of the royal party, who proceeded on foot, as before, in a sort of procession between the line of troops to the jetty, where the barges were waiting to take them on board their respective yachts."

That night Port Said was illuminated and the day closed on a brilliant display of fireworks.

On the morning of November 18 took place the procession of vessels through the canal, headed by the *Aigle*. Salvoes of artillery and the rattle of small arms hailed the fact that the canal was now open to the world's traffic. Two vessels of the Messageries Imperiales (now the Messageries Maritimes) had inaugurated the opening from the Suez end, and met the gaily decorated flotilla at Ismailia, where a stoppage was made for the night.

"On arriving at Ismailia," said M. de Lesseps in his own description of the inaugural ceremony, "the Empress told me that during the whole journey she had felt as though a circle of fire were round her head, because every moment she thought she saw the *Aigle* stop short, the honour of the French flag compromised, and the fruit of our labours lost. Choked by emotion, she was obliged to leave the table, and we overheard her sobs—sobs which do her honour, for it was French patriotism overflowing from her heart."

Little did the guests know how near the ceremony was to being spoiled by the running aground of a blundering Egyptian frigate thirty kilometres from Port Said, and how the Khedive had agreed to M. de Lesseps' heroic resolve to blow it up as a last resort to clear the way.

On Thursday, the Royalties landed, and, in the evening, participated in the ball at the Khedive's new palace. Upwards of six thousand guests were invited, and no Court function ever exhibited a more strikingly brilliant or cosmopolitan gathering.

On Friday and Saturday the procession was continued to Suez.

Thus was inaugurated one of the most remarkable engineering works of modern times—a work which has nothing in common with canals as understood in engineering text books. It is interesting to refer once more to the difference of opinion that existed among the engineers of the day on the method of construction—differences that must appear ludicrous to us at the present day.

In the Proceedings of the Royal Society of 1870, Mr. Bateman, C.E., who visited the canal as the representative of the Society, commented on this, and wrote: "The three English engineering members of the commission were of opinion that a ship canal, having its surface raised 25 feet *above* the sea level, and communicating with the Bay

of Pelusium at one end, and the Red Sea at the other, by means of locks, and supplied with water from the Nile, was the best mode of construction. The foreign members on the contrary, held that a canal having its bottom 27 feet *below* sea-level, from sea to sea, without any lock, and with harbours at each end was the best system—the harbours to be formed by piers and dredging out to deep water."

Upon Said Pasha's request, Sir John Hawkshaw visited the works to make independent report on the progress of the work, and it is claimed that his advice, and the soundness of his views contributed greatly to the successful completion of the work.

The following are given by Sir John Hawkshaw as some of the objections to the work :—

1. That the canal will become a stagnant ditch.
2. That the canal will silt up, or, that the moving sands of the desert will fill it up.
3. That the bitter lakes through which the canal is to pass will be filled up with salt.
4. That the navigation of the Red Sea is dangerous and difficult.
5. That shipping will not approach Port Said because of the difficulties that will be met with, and the danger of that port on a lee shore.
6. That it will be difficult, if not impracticable, to keep open the Mediterranean entrance to the canal.

He then considered these objections in detail, and arrived at the following conclusions :—

1. As regards the engineering construction, there are no works on the canal presenting on their face any unusual difficulty of execution, and there are no contingencies that I can conceive likely to arise that would introduce difficulties insurmountable by engineering skill.
2. As regards the maintenance of the canal, I am of opinion that no obstacles would be met with that would prevent the work, when completed, being maintained with ease and efficiency, and without the necessity of incurring any extraordinary or unusual yearly expenditure.

The soundness of Sir John Hawkshaw's opinion has been well established by the record of the canal, and the efficiency with which it is managed. Accidents are of rare occurrence, and are scarcely ever due to the fault of the canal staff, never to the breakdown of the canal itself. By this new waterway the voyage from England to the East was shortened by 4,840 miles.

The canal was constructed by the Universal Company of the Maritime Canal of Suez. It is still worked by it, but reference will be made to certain changes in the Board of Administration. The original capital in 1858 consisted of 400,000 shares of £20 each—£8,000,000. In 1868 333,333 bonds were issued at £12 each. Only £1,143,687 of this amount was subscribed, however, and recourse was made to a lottery, by means of which the balance of £2,856,313 was raised in a few days. In 1871 a loan of £800,000 was raised, and further loans for improvements were obtained in 1880 and 1887.

Besides the ordinary shares there were 100,000 founders' shares, giving their owners the right to participate in the surplus profits under certain conditions.

The net dividend in 1906 amounted to 141 francs on the ordinary 500-franc shares, and to 117·65 francs on the Actions de Jouissances. The dividend is thus 28 per cent. When the Federal Government of Australia used this as an argument in favour of a reduction of transit dues, maintaining that such a concession would have a material effect upon inter-Empire trade, as well as upon the volume of traffic passing through the canal, the British Directors, in a despatch to Sir Edward Grey (Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs) pointed out that from 1869 to 1870 the shareholders received only 5 per cent. dividend; from July, 1871, to July, 1874, the dividend was passed and replaced by a certificate for 85 francs, which was subsequently paid. From that date to July, 1905, the average of the dividends was 16 per cent., but from the formation of the Company to the present date it has amounted, in round figures, to only 12½ per cent., and, owing to the large increase in the market value of the shares, the return to the purchasers for some years past has ranged between 3 and 4 per cent.

In the beginning the Board of Administration consisted of thirty-four members, representing the principal nations interested in the enterprise. British capitalists having accepted Lord Palmerston's advice, and failed to take up any of the shares allotted to Great Britain, that country was not represented on the original Board. On August 24, 1871, the Board was reduced to twenty-one, owing to changes in the allocation of the capital; but on June 27, 1876, the numbers were raised to twenty-four, and the three new seats allotted to the British Government, in consequence of Great Britain purchasing 176,602 shares from Ismail Pasha, then Khedive of Egypt. The first British representatives were Colonel Stokes and Messrs. Rivers Wilson and E. Stanton. Eventually, the constitution of the Board of Administration was changed to thirty-two members, seven seats being allocated to British ship-owners and commercial men.

The members of the First Board of Administration were :—M. Ferdinand de Lesseps, Minister Plenipotentiary (president); Duc de Albufera, Deputy of the Corps Legislatif; M. Paul Forbes, of the firm of R. B. Forbes, bankers, Boston; and Chevalier Revoltella, Banker, Delegate of Austria (vice-presidents); and M. Armand (deputy), Member of the Chamber of Commerce, Bordeaux; M. Jacques Alleon, banker, delegate of Constantinople; M. Alvarez d'Andrada, formerly Portuguese Diplomatic Service; M. Antonio Brusi, President of the Société Catalane de Credit, delegate of Spain; M. de Chancel, retired naval officer, Inspector-General of Railway of Orleans; Baron Nicolas Clary, proprietor; M. Corbin de Mangoux, Bourges; M. Gustave Couturier, banker, Paris; M. Victor Delamalle, proprietor; M. Deloche, formerly merchant in Turkey; M. Elie de Beaumont (senator), Permanent Secretary of the Académie des Sciences; M. Prosper Flury-Herard, banker, Paris; Comte de Galbert; M. d'Hoffschmidt, formerly Minister of Public Works, delegate of Brussels; M. Alexis Jadinierowski, St. Petersburg; M. de Lagan, formerly Minister Plenipotentiary; M. D. A. Lange, head of the firm of Lange Brothers, and Co., London; M. Gabriel Lefebore, proprietor; Baron Jules de Lesseps, proprietor; Marquis de Pous, proprietor; Marquis de Poutois-Pontcarré, member of the General Council of Eure-et-Loir; M. Préfontaine, civil engineer, Inspector-General of the Railway of Orleans; M. Alfred Quesnel, of the firm of Quesnel Frères, delegate of Havre; M. J. Randoing (deputy), manufacturer, Mayor of Abbeville; Chevalier de Reali, President of the Chamber of Commerce, Venice; M. Am. Renée (deputy), of the Corps Legislatif; M. Eug. Rouffio, merchant, delegate of Marseilles; M. S. W. Ruyssenaërs, Consul-General of the Netherlands in Egypt; Vicomte Tirlet, proprietor; and Chevalier Luigi Torelli, delegate of Turin.

As constituted at present, the Board consists of Prince Auguste d'Arenberg (president); M. Jules Charles-Roux, Sir Thomas Sutherland, G.C.M.G., and Mr. C. Jounart (vice-presidents); and Mr. Robert Alexander, Mr. Henry Torrens Anstruther, Sir Henry Austin Lee, K.C.M.G., C.B., M. Xavier Charmes, Baron A. de Courcel, M. Em. Daubrée, M. S. Derville, M. Georges Devin, Mr. R. S. Donkin, Sir W. E. Garstin, G.C.M.G., Mr. Frederick Green, M. Robert Guirtard, M. F. Guillain, Mr. John W. Hughes, Vice-Admiral Humann, M. André Lebon, M. G. Le Chevalier, M. Louis Zépire, Comte Charles de Lesseps, Sir J. L. Mackay, G.C.M.G., K.C.I.E., M. Oppermann, M. D. Perouse, M. Geo. Plate, Lord Rathmore, M. L. H. Ruyssenaërs, M. Ch. Vergé, Vicomte E. Melchior de Vogüe, M. Voisin Bey.

The representative of the Company in Cairo is Count Charles de Serionne, who for many years has been one of the best known and most popular figures in Cairo society.

How the canal shares came into the possession of the British authorities forms an interesting chapter in the narrative of the Suez Canal.

A few months after the canal was opened, the Khedive, in need of money, approached Colonel Stanton, the British Consul-General in Egypt, with proposals for the sale of his shares; but nothing resulted from the negotiations, and we can only assume that the statesmen who guided the destinies of Great Britain had not yet awakened to the importance of the canal and the possibilities of its financial success.

Two years later M. de Lesseps suggested to the Khedive that the shares might be taken over by the European Powers and the canal made international. As we have seen, it was no new idea of M. de Lesseps' to internationalise the canal. Lord Derby coquetted with the proposal. The Porte rejected it.

In November, 1875, rumours were put into circulation that the British Government, with a combination of French capitalists, was negotiating for the purchase of the shares; and the Khedive announced his willingness to dispose of his 177,642 shares in the canal to the British Government for £4,000,000.

In the official correspondence relating to the transaction, Colonel Stanton writes :—

"On the morning of the 24th instant I lost no time in proceeding to the Palace to inform his Highness of the acceptance of his offer to dispose of his canal shares to Her Majesty's Government. I was unable at that hour to see the Khedive; but I informed the Minister of Finance, whom I saw in the presence of Nubar Pasha and of the Khedive's Garde des Sceaux, of the nature of the communication I had to make, and shortly afterwards received the assurance that the terms were agreed to. Being, however, anxious to prevent any misunderstanding on the subject, and also to prevent the possibility of any successful intrigue interfering with the arrangement, I told the Minister I would draw up an agreement for signature, specifying the terms of the engagement entered into.

"Before leaving the Palace, however, Nubar Pasha had told me that he believed the number of shares in the Khedive's possession did not quite tally with the number specified by your Lordship, as a few of the shares had been disposed of in Paris some ten or twelve years since. I therefore left a blank in the agreement to be filled up when the actual number of shares in his Highness's possession should be ascertained; and when, shortly

afterwards, the Minister of Finance informed me that the shares were 176,602 in number instead of 177,642, as specified by your Lordship, I provided that the value of the 1,040 shares short of the last-named number should be deducted from the amount agreed to be paid by Her Majesty's Government.

"I also, as your Lordship will perceive, stipulated that the 5 per cent. interest to be paid by the Egyptian Government to Her Majesty's Government until the coupons were liberated from the existing engagement of the Canal Company should be charged on the revenues of Egypt, and the amount paid in London by equal half-yearly payments of £100,000 on the 1st of June and 1st of December of each year.

"Yesterday morning the Egyptian Government sent me seven large cases containing the shares in question, which cases (having previously verified the fact that they contained Suez Canal shares) I caused to be fastened up and corded in my presence, and then sealed with the seals of the Egyptian Minister of Finance, Her Majesty's Agency and Consulate-General, and of the Consular Court for Cairo, leaving the verification of the numbers until I had received further instructions from your Lordship, and I gave the Egyptian Government a receipt for the seven cases, which are now deposited in Her Majesty's Consulate in this town, pending receipt of instructions for their disposal."

An offer by the Khedive to sell the right of the Egyptian Government to the 15 per cent. of the net revenue of the canal was rejected by Lord Derby.

On January 1, 1876, the shares were landed in London, and were duly deposited in the vaults of the Bank of England.

In his fascinating "History of Our Own Times," Mr. Justin McCarthy thus recounts the circumstances that led up to the purchase of these shares and the sensation created by the incident in England:

"Perhaps the first indication of the new foreign policy was given by the purchase of the shares which the Khedive of Egypt held in the Suez Canal. English Governments had in the first instance opposed the scheme for the construction of the Suez Canal, and English scientific men had endeavoured to prove that the scheme could never be carried out. Now, however, that the canal was open and a success, some alarmists began to find a danger to England in the fact that it made the approach to India more easy for other European Powers as well as for her. The Khedive of Egypt held nearly half the 400,000 original shares in the canal, and the Khedive was going every day faster and faster on the road to ruin. He was on the brink of bankruptcy. He had been living in the true fashion of an Eastern prince, gratifying every expensive whim as it crossed his listless mind; stimulating himself by the invention of new ways of spending money when the old caprices tired him; lavishing on the purchase and the keep of fat women treasures that might have saved millions of his wretched subjects from starvation.

"His 176,000 shares came into the market; and on November 25, 1875, the world was astonished by the news that the English Government had turned stock-jobber and bought them for four millions sterling. The idea was not the Government's own. The editor of a London evening paper, Mr. Frederick Greenwood, was the man to whom the thought first occurred. He made it known in the first instance, it is believed, to a member of the Cabinet, who threw cold water on it. Not discouraged, Mr. Greenwood tried the Prime Minister himself, and Mr. Disraeli was caught by the proposition, and the shares were instantly bought up in the name of the English Government.

"Seldom in our time has any act on the part of a Government been received with such general approbation. The London newspapers broke into a chorus of applause. The London clubs were delighted. The air rang with praises of the courage and spirit shown by the Ministry. If here and there a faint voice was raised to suggest that the purchase was a foolish proceeding, that it was useless, that it was undignified, a shout of offended patriotism drowned the ignoble remonstrance. Some Continental newspapers did a good deal to stimulate the feeling that prevailed in England by condemning the act as audacious, arrogant, and ominous of an intention to interfere too actively in foreign affairs. This was the very course to stir the feeling of Englishmen. Men held up their heads grandly, and went about pride in their port, defiance in their eye, nobly over-conscious of belonging to a nation which could make her influence felt once more in foreign affairs.

"When Parliament met, the Liberal leaders ventured to make some objection to the purchase, and to the mode of completing it; but all wise persons declared the very attempt only showed how entirely the Liberal leaders were out of sympathy with the English people. It is true that one member of the Cabinet,



MOSÉ IN EGITTO!!! Cartoon by Sir John Tenniel.
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Lord Derby, endeavoured to make as little as possible of the purchase, and to represent it as a step taken merely to prevent any foreign influence from preponderating in the management of a canal which was chiefly important for English commerce. Mr. Disraeli and some of his colleagues, on the other hand, spoke in a grand and mysterious way, which gave people to understand that the buying of the shares was part of some great scheme of policy destined to make England mistress of the East, and to checkmate the designs of a jealous world.

"Nothing in particular came of the bargain in the end, and the popular enthusiasm soon cooled down. The act, however, is of historical importance as the first of a series of strokes made by the Government in foreign policy, each of which came in the nature of a surprise to Parliament and the country. It is probable that Mr. Disraeli counted upon making his Government popular by affording to the public at intervals the exciting luxury of a new sensation."

At a dinner given in his honour on April 8, 1905, Mr. Frederick Greenwood himself gave the following version of how the Suez Canal shares were bought.

It was on a Sunday at dinner, while Editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, that he heard that the Khedive was trying to dispose of his shares. Mr. Greenwood immediately wrote a note to Lord Derby, then Foreign Minister, and next morning saw him at the Foreign Office. Lord Derby told him he was wrong this time, for despatches had been received the day before from Colonel Stanton, and he said not a word about it. The awkwardness of the position, as Lord Derby pointed out, was that they could not get to know for certain without directly interrogating the Khedive.

"He is known to be hard up," said Lord Derby, "and if you are wrong what we shall have done is to put the idea into his head."

Ultimately, Lord Derby went to a desk and wrote the following telegram to be sent to Colonel Stanton :—

"Go to the Khedive immediately, and ask him whether it is true that he is negotiating for the sale of his Suez Canal shares, yes or no, and do not come away without getting an answer."

"Come to-morrow morning," said Lord Derby to Greenwood, "and I will tell you what the answer is."

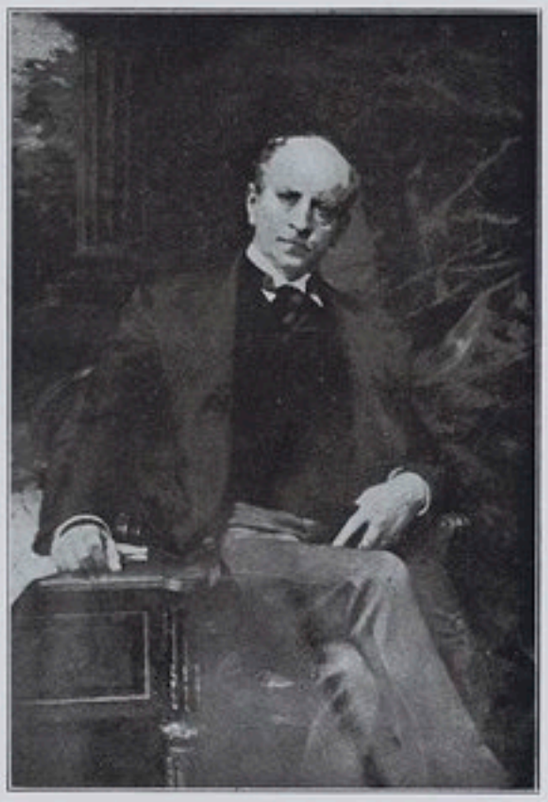
When Greenwood went back to the Foreign Office, Lord Derby said : "You were quite right" ; and then added, in his characteristic manner, "Master Stanton shall hear of this."

The matter was then put before Mr. Disraeli, the Prime Minister, and very soon there came a certain Friday, added Mr. Greenwood, "when the air of England was full of hats thrown up in all directions."

The shares purchased for £3,076,582 in 1875 (or £4,076,622 including commission), were valued in 1906 at £31,080,000. The British Government is by far the largest single shareholder.

There have been a good many controversial points raised in connection with the control of the canal and its charges on shipping, and a certain amount of resentment has been shown at the influence exerted by the British representatives to obtain a revision of the tolls ; but when consideration is given to the enormous preponderance of British shipping using the canal, and that the British representatives have advocated reductions which will be shared in by all nationalities, it is not to be wondered at that our sympathies should be with the contention that, as the aggregate income of the canal increases, yielding a handsome profit to the shareholders, a relative decrease should be levied on the tonnage using the canal. The vexed question of tonnage measurement arising out of the interpretation of the phrase "tonneau de capacité," led to the appointment of an International Commission in 1873, the British representative being a director of the P. & O. Company. M. de Lesseps refused to be bound by the finding of that Commission ; but when the menace of Khedivial troops taking control of the canal was made he capitulated, under protest, and agreed in April, 1874, to apply the tariff of the special navigation due, with surtax, laid down by the Porte speaking as the medium of the Maritime Powers. Since then the transit dues have been reduced periodically from 13 francs to 7·75 francs. Pilotage dues were abolished in 1884.

From time to time the question of the neutrality of the canal has been the cause of much diplomatic correspondence. Britain's acquisition of the Khedive's shares, altering materially the constitution of the control of the canal, led inevitably to a reconsideration



PRINCE AUGUSTE D'ARENBERG
(President since 1896).

of the question, and it assumed a new phase in 1882 when Sir Garnet Wolseley used the canal as his base of operations against Arabi Pasha.

Our history of the canal does not concern itself with the revolt of Arabi Pasha and the events leading up to the bombardment of the forts of Alexandria and the subsequent campaign conducted by the British Government for the reinstatement of Khedivial control in Egypt. But it is necessary to refer to the matter in some detail, because the attitude then adopted by the Canal Company brings into relief the possibility of complications arising should Egypt, or any other nation, assume or attempt to assume absolute control of the canal. Any consideration of this point, however, should keep in view the peculiar position created by the Arabi revolt, and the danger of that leader establishing military control of the canal.

We know from the official history of the Egyptian campaign of 1882, prepared by Colonel J. F. Maurice, that from the moment Sir Garnet (now Viscount) Wolseley was entrusted with the command, he decided to make Ismailia the base of operations. This was kept secret, and in all official despatches Alexandria was referred to as the future base. The route from Ismailia was the only approach permitting of a rapid cavalry advance on Cairo, which was the object of first seizure. By skirting the hard desert along the line of the Ismailia Canal such an advance into the heart of the city was rendered possible. In other directions, irrigation works and the absence of roads prohibited rapid movement, and, in general, the advancing troops would have found themselves on the wrong side of the river on their arrival in the neighbourhood of Cairo.

On August 1, Rear-Admiral Sir A. H. Hoskins was authorised by the Khedive to occupy such points on the Isthmus of Suez as he judged necessary in order to assure through traffic by the canal for the troops converging upon Egypt from England and India, and to protect the towns situated on the *parcours*, and he was also authorised to use force against those who refused to recognise the Khedive's authority.

Under secret orders, the warships and transports which had been lying off Alexandria sailed ostensibly with troops to seize some point between Aboukir and Rosetta ; but Sir Garnet had notified his commanders that Ismailia was to be seized before daybreak on the morning of August 20.

At three o'clock in the morning, Port Said was occupied by six hundred British troops, and the Khedive's Government reinstated. The offices and telegraph lines belonging to the Canal Company were taken possession of by the British authorities, together with the dredges, barges, and other necessary plant. About the same time, Suez was similarly occupied, and orders were given to all merchant ships then in the canal to tie up at the nearest "gares" or stations. The captain of the Messageries Maritimes mail steamer *Melbourne* claimed the right of a mail-carrier to pass on, and as a matter of courtesy was allowed to proceed, and the British steamers *Ross-shire* and *Counsellor*, whose commanders placed the interests of their owners before the interests of their country, took advantage to follow in the wake of the *Melbourne*. This delayed the operations as mapped out by the British Commander-in-Chief, but, on August 21, twenty-four transports, three tugs, and nine war vessels had passed through from Port Said to Ismailia.

In a few hours, that quiet town was turned into a hive of bustling activity. Nine thousand men were disembarked by August 23, the town teemed with men and horses, baggage and war material, rolling stock for the railway, and all the paraphernalia for an army in being. The usually placid waters of the lake were covered by steam pinnaces, row boats, cargo barges, and every conceivable description of craft, carrying soldiers, sailors, horses, and supplies. Stores were piled up on the canal bank, tents filled up the open spaces, soldiers in every variety of uniform were to be seen under the avenues of acacia trees actively engaged in preparations for the successful advance on Tel el Kebir. Out of the desert there had sprung, as if by magic, a huge encampment of men at arms.

The campaign that followed does not enter into this record of the Suez Canal.

It is easy to conceive the effect this prompt seizure of the canal had upon M. Ferdinand de Lesseps. It was assumed by some writers at the time that he was under the sway of Arabi Pasha, and was more favourable to the pretensions of that bold adventurer than he was to the rights of the successor of Said and Ismail. The Paris correspondent of the

Times (M. de Blowitz), telegraphing on August 22 with reference to certain messages from M. F. de Lesseps, said: "M. de Lesseps, of course, cannot help his excitable temperament, and it is very pardonable if thirty years' separation from diplomacy has made him forget its traditions. As to his reliance on Arabi, he is not the only foreigner of note whom that adventurer's blandishments have cajoled. M. de Lesseps' only peculiarity is that he still adheres to Arabi when other supporters have renounced him or become silent." But looking at M. de Lesseps' desire from the first to internationalise the canal, and weighing his contention that no nation had the right to seize private property like the canal, it is easy to understand why he should make what appears to us nowadays as an unwarrantable objection when he had in view the possible seizure of the canal on another occasion less remotely bound up in the future of Egypt than the Arabi revolt.

So far back as July 10, M. Victor de Lesseps, the chief agent of the Canal Company in Egypt, telegraphed to M. Ferdinand de Lesseps in Paris that the British commanders off Port Said and Suez had warned British ships not to enter the canal, and that he had protested by letter against this violation of the neutrality, declaring that the Company held the British Government responsible for it and the consequences and damage resulting from "this abuse of force, this act of violence."

Anticipating the actual seizure of the canal by Admiral Hoskins, the Company, on August 19, published the following document drawn up by its legal advisers in Paris:—

"The Company ought to maintain its claims in favour of the Canal's neutrality, which is of importance to all nations, and even to those who think they have now an interest in violating it. The Company ought, especially from the point of view of the contracts entered into between it and the Khedive, and approved by the Sultan, to object to any military action by the English Government. Taking its stand on these contracts, which are the common law of the contracting parties, and can only be cancelled by their mutual consent, the Company ought to protest against the claim of the English Government, which calls itself the Khedive's agent, to carry out any enterprise on the whole or a part of the Canal or its dependencies, no one, even with the Sultan's authorization, and *a fortiori* without that authorization, having a right to disturb the Company in the free and peaceful enjoyment of its concession.

"The Company ought, moreover, to protest against the use made by the Egyptian Government, for the benefit of a foreign Government, of pretended rights, which, if they exist, belong only to itself personally, without any delegation being possible.

"Lastly, the Company ought to protest against any enterprise which, in spite of the wishes of the Canal's legal representatives, is undertaken by the English Government, which is a shareholder, and bound as such not to interfere with the common property and to conform to the resolutions taken by the Company's legal representatives. The Company must consequently make the most explicit reservations as to the consequences of all acts which may already have happened, or which may yet occur to its prejudice, in order to claim through the medium of the law, and before the proper jurisdiction, the indemnities and damages for which the English Government would be liable, more especially as a shareholder of the Company, and this should be done without prejudicing individual actions on the part of the neutrals against the English Government, for damages caused to their ships, their traffic, and in general to their persons and property."

Commenting on the situation when traffic was resumed and M. de Lesseps had cabled to Paris "The crisis is over!" the *Times* of August 22 said that the crisis was mainly of M. de Lesseps' own making, and pointed out that the leading organs of European opinion approved of the occupation of the canal. "The only points of difference," it said, "that could have arisen between the English authorities and M. de Lesseps must have been due to the inadmissible pretensions of the latter, or to his equivocal relations with Arabi, which rendered it necessary to take precautions against independent and possibly hostile action on his part. We are very glad to learn that M. de Lesseps finds that his presence is no longer needed in Egypt. He will be far better occupied in Paris in looking after the real interests and concerns of his company than in asserting pretensions in Egypt, which cannot be treated as serious, and have been discountenanced even by his own Government. If England had exceeded her rights in respect of the canal, it is not with M. de Lesseps that the matter would have to be discussed. . . . England would suffer most if the traffic were seriously interrupted, and one of the chief objects of her intervention in Egypt is to secure the immunity of the canal by more effectual guarantees than a friendly understanding between a self-willed engineer and a military adventurer."

What had taken place was the arrangement of a *modus vivendi* between Admiral Seymour (Lord Alcester) and M. Victor de Lesseps. The Admiral claimed priority for war vessels. M. de Lesseps maintained that this was contrary to the Firman declaring the Company neutral, but said he was ready to resume the service if the British Government would undertake the responsibility of delay caused to the commerce of all the nations. Admiral Hoskins, charged by the Khedive with the police supervision of the canal, promised a written certificate to the Company, which, being reassured, sent pilots to guide the transports.

Early in 1885, at the instance of France, a Commission of the Great Powers, with representatives of Spain and Holland, was convened at Paris, "to establish by a conventional act a definite system for guaranteeing at all times and to all Powers the free use of the Suez Canal." It was obvious during the ten weeks' discussions that ensued that the majority sought to internationalise rather than to neutralise the canal. Great Britain was opposed to this proposal. For a time, owing to the fall of the Gladstonian Administration, the matter stood in abeyance, but was revived in 1887. In that year a clause was inserted in the Convention of May, 1887, embodying the British views on free navigation, but the Sultan did not ratify it. A new Convention was signed on October 29, 1888, to provide for the neutralisation of the canal, but the stipulation was made by the British Government that the Convention should not come into force so long as the British occupation of Egypt lasted. In 1904, however, an Anglo-French agreement was signed under which the British Government agreed to put in force the Convention, with the exception of those portions which provided that a Local International Board should be created at Cairo to watch over the execution of this Convention.

In his comments upon this, Lord Cromer says:—"The actual working of the Canal Convention was put to the test during the Russo-Japanese War. On the whole, it may be said that it worked well, but, as usually happens in such cases, a number of questions of detail arose in respect to which the wording of the Convention was wanting in precision. It would be desirable that an opportunity should be taken to revise the Convention by the light of the experience which has now been gained."

Under the Convention of October, 1887, the view sought to be enforced by Great Britain was contained in the following clause:—"Both the waterway and the Isthmus, for three miles on both sides, are declared neutral territory, exempt from blockade, fortification, or military occupation of any kind, the passage remaining open to the ships of all nations, whether armed or not, during peace and war."

The success of the canal and the justification for its construction can best be gauged by the official statistics of the shipping making use of it. With slight fluctuations, due to temporary conditions, these statistics are a record of steady and rapid progress.

Appended are the principal statistics:—

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Gross Tonnage.	Net Tonnage.	No. of Passengers.	Receipts in Francs.
1869	10	10,557	6,576	——	54,460
1870	486	654,915	436,609	26,758	5,159,327
1871	765	1,142,200	761,467	48,422	8,993,732
1872	1,082	1,744,481	1,160,743	67,640	16,407,591
1873	1,173	2,085,072	1,367,767	68,030	22,897,319
1874	1,264	2,423,672	1,631,650	73,597	24,859,383
1875	1,494	2,940,708	2,009,984	84,446	28,886,302
1876	1,457	3,072,107	2,096,771	59,614	29,974,998
1877	1,663	3,418,949	2,355,447	72,821	32,774,344
1878	1,593	3,291,535	2,269,678	96,363	31,098,229
1879	1,477	3,236,942	2,263,332	82,144	29,686,060
1880	2,026	4,344,519	3,057,421	98,900	39,840,487
1881	2,727	5,794,491	4,136,779	86,806	51,274,352
1882	3,198	7,122,125	5,074,808	121,872	60,545,882
1883	3,307	8,051,307	5,775,861	119,176	65,847,812
1884	3,284	8,319,967	5,871,500	151,916	62,378,115
1885	3,624	8,985,411	6,335,752	205,949	62,207,439
1886	3,100	8,183,313	5,767,655	171,410	56,527,390
1887	3,137	8,430,043	5,903,024	182,996	57,862,370
1888	3,440	9,437,957	6,640,834	183,895	64,832,273
1889	3,425	9,605,745	6,783,187	180,592	66,167,579
1890	3,389	9,749,129	6,890,094	161,352	66,984,000

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Gross Tonnage.	Net Tonnage.	No. of Passengers.	Receipts in Francs.
1891	4,207	12,217,986	8,698,777	194,473	83,422,101
1892	3,559	10,866,401	7,712,028	189,820	74,452,436
1893	3,341	10,753,798	7,659,068	186,498	70,667,361
1894	3,352	11,283,854	8,039,175	166,003	73,776,827
1895	3,434	11,833,637	8,448,383	216,940	78,103,717
1896	3,409	12,039,858	8,560 283	308,241	79,569,994
1897	2,986	11,123,403	7,899,373	191,224	72,830,545
1898	3,503	12,962,631	9,238,603	219,729	85,294,769
1899	3,607	13,815,991	9,895,630	221,348	91,318,772
1900	3,441	13,699,237	9,738,152	282,203	90,623,608
1901	3,699	15,163,233	10,823,840	270,221	100,386,397
1902	3,708	15,694,359	11,248,413	223,775	103,720,020
1903	3,761	16,615,309	11,907,288	195,232	103,620,268
1904	4,237	18,661,092	13,401,835	210,849	115,818,479
1905	4,116	18,310,442	13,134,105	252,694	113,866,796
1906	3,975	18,810,713	13,445,504	359,616	108,161,896
1907	4,267	20,551,982	14,728,434	243,580	116,000,096
1908	3,795	19,110,831	13,633,283	218,784	108,413,410

From 1869 to 1873 transit dues per ton amounted to F. 10; in 1874–5–6, to F. 13; in 1877–78, F. 12·50; in 1879–80, F. 12; in 1881, F. 11·50; in 1882, F. 11; in 1883, F. 10·50; in 1884, F. 10; from 1885 to 1892, F. 9·50; from 1892 to 1902, F. 9; since 1903, F. 8·50; and since 1906, F. 7·75. The F. 10 rate for passengers has never been changed.

Tonnage Returns and Transit Receipts are better indications of the growth of traffic through the canal than mere numbers of vessels. There has been a consistent tendency since 1869 to increase the size of steamships. In 1869, the mean net tonnage per vessel was 657; in 1879, it had risen to 1,532; in 1889, to 1,951; in 1899, to 2,743; and in 1907, to 3,452.

An analysis of the classification of passengers carried through the canal in 1906 and 1907 is interesting, the larger number of military passengers in 1906 being accounted for by the return of Russian troops from Eastern Asia after the Russo-Japanese war and the signing of formal agreements under the Treaty of Peace :—

	1906	1907
Military	221,288	84,033
Civilians	103,117	105,092
Pilgrims, Emigrants, and Convicts ...	35,211	54,455
TOTAL ...	359,616	243,580

A further classification of the nationality of the passengers is not without interest in these two years :—

Military—	1906	1907
British...	39,331	40,777
Turkish	25,082	18,680
French	17,378	16,688
German	6,075	5,593
Dutch	1,340	1,741
Italian	623	326
Portuguese	393	198
Russian*	127,533	30
Japanese	2,516	—
American	1,017	—
Total Military ...	221,288	84,033
Civilians	103,117	105,092
Pilgrims, Emigrants, and Convicts	35,211	54,455
GRAND TOTAL ...	359,616	243,580

* All the Russian troops were homeward bound.

The following table shows the shipping and tonnage that passed through the canal in 1908 under their respective flags; it may be noted that the percentage of net tonnage belonging to the United Kingdom was, in 1905, 63·6 of the total; in 1906, 61·7, in 1907, 64·5, and in 1908, 60·9. Germany was second in each year with 16·1 in 1905, 16·0 in 1906, 15·3 in 1907, and 16·9 in 1908, so that these two nations together own practically 80 per cent. of the tonnage using the canal. In 1904, British tonnage using the canal represented 65·9 per cent., in 1890, 77·3 per cent., and in 1869, 95·6 per cent. Notice should be taken of the position of Japan, which, comparatively few years ago, had no vessels of her own trading to Europe :—

	No. of Ships.	Net Tonnage.
United Kingdom ...	2,233 ...	8,302,802
Germany	584 ...	2,310,507
France	242 ...	815,120
Holland	246 ...	743,980
Austria-Hungary ...	107 ...	387,546
Japan	69 ...	286,456
Russia	81 ...	251,820
Italy	83 ...	189,543
Denmark	34 ...	89,786
Spain...	27 ...	77,974
Norway	22 ...	61,901
Sweden	16 ...	49,628
Turkey	30 ...	34,601
America	8 ...	17,500
Greece	8 ...	10,408
Portugal	3 ...	1,689
Brazil	1 ...	1,484
Siam	1 ...	566
TOTAL	3,795	13,633,283

It is worthy of notice that no Egyptian vessel used the canal during 1908. Of the total of 3,795, 1,740 passages were made from north to south and 2,055 from south to north.

It was decided by the Canal Company in April, 1907, to modify the regulations with a view to allow vessels laden with petroleum in bulk from Borneo and Sumatra to pass through the canal, and up to the end of 1907 twenty-six vessels of a tonnage of 111,019 tons had availed themselves of the privilege.

On several occasions, the canal has been blocked by the sinking or burning of vessels, but efficiency has grown with experience, and the canal staff has reduced the possibility of serious accident to a minimum. One of the serious stoppages of traffic occurred in October, 1905, through the sinking of the British steamer *Chatham*. The steamer, with a large quantity of explosives on board, caught fire and was sunk, and in blowing her up considerable damage was done to the banks of the canal. On October 5, seventy-seven vessels, including sixteen Mail steamers, were waiting at Suez and Port Said; on the following day there were fifty at Suez and forty-three at Port Said. Although no night traffic was allowed, nearly one hundred vessels passed through the canal between October 7 and October 10.

It is not possible to trace statistically the change from sailing vessels to steamships in the trade of Eastern ports like Pont de Galle, Bombay, Calcutta, Singapore, and Hongkong. But it is no exaggeration to say that the more rapid transport afforded by steamers through the Suez Canal has driven from the seas the stately clippers which used to carry the tea from China and produce from India. So long as the sea route lay round the Cape of Good Hope and steamers were restricted in coal capacity, the sailing ships, spreading their sails to catch the full force of the trade winds, could so minimise the advantage held by the steam-propelled vessels as to render competition possible in certain trades and between certain ports. The calms of the Red Sea, however, are detrimental to sailing vessels, even if the conditions were otherwise favourable to the use of this route, and thus it is that the roadsteads of Singapore and Hongkong, the harbour of Sydney, and the river anchorages on the Ganges and Yarra look comparatively deserted to-day, instead of being thronged by shipping of all nationalities. The constant deepening of the Suez Canal has enabled shipowners to build faster steamers of larger tonnage for the Eastern and Australian trades, and it has come to be a pleasure, instead of a thing to be dreaded, to make a long voyage in the luxurious and magnificently equipped liners which now carry on the passenger traffic.

One cannot over-estimate the benefit the canal has been in the development of trade between the East and the West. Egypt has gained enormously by the construction of the canal. It has created three flourishing towns —Port Said, Ismailia, Suez. It has lined its banks with houses and valuable property. The vast desert between it and the Nile has been brought under cultivation. The Egyptian Exchequer depends largely upon the percentage it receives from the Company to balance its accounts.

While it would be a mistake to accept the British tonnage passing through the canal as entirely representing British manufactures or British goods, since British ships are merely the carriers to a large extent of the world's commerce, it is a fact, nevertheless, that British manufacturers and merchants and possessions and dependencies have shared most largely hitherto in the advantages created by a shorter passage to the East and Far East. India, the Malay Archipelago, China, Japan, and Australia have developed their commerce with Europe in consequence of the facility of movement of traffic East and West. Whatever changes may follow the political and commercial growth of other nations, they are not likely to diminish but rather to increase the usefulness of the Suez Canal; and not even the construction of the Panama Canal, so long delayed, is likely seriously to affect the returns of the canal which was the outcome of M. Ferdinand de Lesseps' genius and pertinacity.

FOREIGN TRADE OF EGYPT.

EGYPT'S popularity as a winter resort has completely overshadowed its claims to recognition as a centre of commercial activity. To the outside world, the land of the Pharaoh's appears simply as the happy hunting ground of the archæologist and tourist, where all present and future considerations are absorbed in the interest attaching to the monuments and relics of past civilisations. Yet the fertile stretches of agricultural land lying in the Valley of the Nile, and receiving their nourishment from that wonderful river which makes its way steadily and unceasingly through miles of sandy desert, possess considerable possibilities in the direction of trade development. Cotton, which forms the bulk of the country's exports, is being grown in increasing quantities, and Alexandria, the commercial capital of the country, and the channel through which practically the whole of this trade passes, is rapidly regaining some of the old influence and prosperity of which it was robbed by the opening of the Suez Canal.

The present article, compiled with the object of showing the present state of trade in the country, covers, for purpose of comparison, a period of nearly a quarter of a century, and thus brings within its purview practically the whole of the British Occupation. Earlier statistics are not available.

During the period under review the total volume of trade has grown by 257·09 per cent. In 1884 it was £E20,736,015; in 1894, £E21,344,497; in 1904, £E41,370,628; and in 1907, £E54,133,968. In 1908, however, the total fell to £E46,416,070. The following table shows how each section of trade has contributed to this general advance:—

	Imports. £E.	Exports. £E.
1884 ...	8,182,702 ...	12,553,313
1885 ...	8,989,042 ...	11,454,487
1886 ...	7,848,231 ...	10,198,573
1887 ...	8,137,054 ...	10,964,485
1888 ...	7,738,343 ...	10,529,946
1889 ...	7,020,961 ...	12,066,499
1890 ...	8,081,297 ...	12,004,251
1891 ...	9,201,390 ...	14,020,370
1892 ...	9,091,481 ...	13,505,796
1893 ...	8,718,735 ...	12,954,352
1894 ...	9,266,116 ...	12,078,381
1895 ...	1,389,933 ...	12,816,597
1896 ...	9,828,604 ...	13,422,279
1897 ...	10,603,672 ...	12,552,639
1898 ...	11,033,219 ...	12,070,012
1899 ...	11,441,802 ...	15,658,956
1900 ...	14,112,370 ...	17,124,114
1901 ...	15,244,938 ...	16,153,964
1902 ...	14,814,684 ...	18,046,939
1903 ...	16,753,190 ...	19,539,524
1904 ...	20,559,588 ...	20,811,040
1905 ...	21,564,076 ...	20,360,285
1906 ...	24,010,795 ...	24,877,280
1907 ...	26,120,783 ...	28,013,185
1908 ...	25,100,397 ...	21,315,673

It will thus be seen that the imports have increased three-fold, while the exports have more than doubled. In order to obtain the actual value of the exports, however, 10 per cent. must be added to the foregoing figures, as the value of the chief articles is calculated upon the prices established by the periodical Custom House tariffs, which are fixed at 10 per cent. below the realised price.

The movement of bullion in and out of the country is not shown in the above tables. There is, however, considerable activity in this direction, and every autumn at the time of the cotton gathering Egypt suffers from a stringency of money, because the fellaheen producer will sell only for cash.

It frequently happens that the growers, taking advantage of high quotations, begin to sell as one man, with the result that the bank reserves of gold are rapidly depleted, and large quantities of bullion have to be obtained from England in the shortest possible space of time in order that trade may not be paralysed. During the last twenty-five years the import and export of gold and silver has been:—

	Import. £E.	Export. £E.
1884 ...	2,172,596 ...	389,768
1885 ...	3,914,767 ...	1,293,660
1886 ...	1,838,797 ...	2,972,520
1887 ...	3,066,740 ...	1,898,062
1888 ...	2,038,956 ...	2,642,900
1889 ...	1,900,418 ...	1,963,699
1890 ...	2,971,461 ...	2,085,455
1891 ...	2,824,861 ...	1,523,950
1892 ...	3,826,393 ...	2,048,474
1893 ...	2,946,674 ...	3,517,152
1894 ...	1,995,676 ...	1,816,256
1895 ...	4,319,265 ...	2,322,190
1896 ...	3,720,425 ...	1,826,160
1897 ...	2,921,722 ...	2,369,479
1898 ...	2,730,116 ...	1,891,513
1899 ...	4,515,917 ...	1,502,485
1900 ...	4,114,612 ...	2,602,790
1901 ...	3,085,678 ...	2,432,172
1902 ...	4,779,266 ...	1,834,457
1903 ...	6,431,569 ...	1,785,933
1904 ...	7,606,864 ...	2,730,890
1905 ...	4,782,215 ...	3,869,939
1906 ...	9,077,402 ...	2,067,706
1907 ...	7,768,190 ...	4,736,189
1908 ...	4,205,083 ...	4,671,206

Nearly three parts of this money comes from Great Britain, which, in 1906 and 1907, provided £E5,949,720 and £E4,806,074 respectively, while Turkey contributed £E1,451,443 and £E1,446,625. In 1908, the respective amounts were: Great Britain, £E1,867,389; Turkey, £E730,872.

An analysis of the trade of Egypt for the purpose of ascertaining how it is divided among the various European countries shows Great Britain still far ahead of all competitors. The following table gives the proportion per thousand of the total value of the imports which has been contributed by each country during the last twenty-four years:—

IMPORTS.

	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908
Great Britain	378	378	367	398	371	362	372	373	337	308	344	315	311	334	351	379	376	365	368	353	340	321	327	325	329
British Possessions in the Mediterranean	15	15	24	15	14	16	13	17	15	14	12	15	11	11	9	7	10	9	7	8	12	10	8	8	11
British Possessions in the Far East	56	50	62	56	64	68	69	58	67	68	53	59	53	47	53	53	49	58	54	49	47	41	41	42	40
Germany	5	5	3	3	6	7	8	16	20	22	25	26	29	28	29	31	34	35	39	44	50	44	55	53	45
America	17	13	8	11	4	8	5	2	4	4	5	6	8	11	30	20	21	21	13	14	14	23	25	22	22
Austria-Hungary ...	122	122	116	94	97	94	96	93	86	83	81	76	71	71	68	64	64	69	79	73	71	60	72	79	65
Belgium	8	8	11	15	16	11	14	28	40	26	40	40	47	47	49	55	35	33	32	31	36	38	51	39	29
China and Far East ...	1	3	1	2	2	3	4	10	9	10	10	7	8	9	8	7	9	9	8	13	15	18	12	10	18
France	112	111	109	109	103	97	96	96	94	103	96	111	131	114	95	91	91	90	89	98	93	106	114	121	116
Greece	9	7	11	10	13	14	15	13	4	6	6	7	9	9	9	9	9	10	14	13	13	13	13	13	15
Italy	38	37	34	30	32	31	29	31	31	38	36	36	34	40	45	49	47	53	54	53	57	53	51	52	47
Roumania	—	1	2	2	2	4	8	7	6	6	2	1	5	6	5	4	5	4	4	8	8	10	10	10	21
Russia	28	44	57	48	51	50	40	38	38	44	40	43	38	36	43	38	43	40	37	36	36	34	22	26	39
Sweden	4	5	6	5	8	6	6	7	9	14	17	21	8	13	14	14	12	15	17	17	20	24	19	23	20
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	1	2	2	3	4	3	4	3	4	5	6	5	6	8	5
Turkey	194	187	169	181	194	204	203	183	209	220	196	199	200	187	154	144	157	147	138	140	137	143	127	114	127
Other Countries ...	13	14	14	16	16	15	13	19	19	18	20	19	17	16	14	12	12	14	16	19	18	19	17	20	23
Parcel Post	no separate classification		6	5	7	10	9	9	11	15	16	17	16	18	20	20	22	25	27	26	27	29	30	35	28
TOTAL	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000

EXPORTS.

In a like manner to the imports, the exports are here tabulated with the object of showing at a glance which countries are Egypt's chief customers :

	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1889	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908
Great Britain	667	604	630	633	626	646	646	643	585	563	544	575	523	477	463	530	538	502	516	520	528	522	539	544	523
British Possessions in the Far East	—	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	3	5	6	9	7	7	5	6	13	12	9	13	10	13	4	4	7
Germany	—	—	1	2	2	1	2	5	27	35	27	35	30	40	48	45	62	58	75	79	87	85	82	81	87
America	—	3	2	2	1	2	2	6	13	19	27	37	69	78	73	86	61	63	66	48	33	62	62	75	54
Austria-Hungary ...	53	59	59	56	64	83	70	46	42	37	42	42	46	38	36	38	39	41	41	47	45	49	51	47	48
Belgium	2	—	2	6	6	6	4	6	10	7	10	4	2	2	3	4	8	6	7	8	10	5	7	3	3
China and Far East ...	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	1	1	3	4	7	10	8	11	12	11	11	9	13	17
Spain	14	19	8	5	10	6	8	8	12	19	21	19	22	22	17	22	22	28	25	24	24	19	18	18	20
France	89	80	88	81	85	75	78	78	80	68	74	81	91	90	94	88	84	78	77	86	78	84	86	73	79
Italy	61	79	58	75	60	68	64	52	46	46	49	35	28	34	30	29	35	34	35	37	46	31	31	28	33
Russia	53	111	103	85	91	70	85	116	128	138	151	98	110	138	154	80	70	108	82	64	64	51	56	57	64
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	7	6	12	31	35	32	30	34	34	37	33	40	37	38	32	35	34
Turkey	38	34	38	36	39	29	31	30	35	35	28	27	29	29	32	22	17	19	18	17	19	21	14	12	18
Other Countries ...	13	10	10	18	15	10	8	8	12	12	7	6	7	10	11	9	7	6	5	5	8	9	9	10	13
TOTAL	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000

In any comparison, which may be instituted for the purpose of showing the rate of progress which each country has made in its trade with Egypt it is, of course, necessary to bear clearly in mind actual as well as the relative increases. Thus, for example, although the proportion of goods imported into Egypt from Great Britain has fallen from 37·8 per cent. in 1884 to 32·9 per cent. in 1908—that is to say by more than five per cent.—while in the same period Germany's proportion has risen on a much higher ratio, it does not by any means follow that Great Britain is losing her commanding position, as will be seen from the appended return :—

Imports from	1884.	1908.	Increase.
	£E.	£E.	£E.
Great Britain -	3,092,796	8,264,813	5,172,017
Germany* -	40,910	1,118,997	1,078,087
Austria Hungary	998,204	1,632,273	634,069
France - -	916,384	2,915,817	1,999,433
Turkey - -	1,587,308	3,192,976	1,605,668

* With regard to German imports, it should be remembered that a considerable quantity of German goods reaches Egypt from the Ports of Genoa and Trieste, and are consequently, owing to erroneous declarations which the Customs find it difficult to control, classified as Italian and Austrian goods respectively.

The figures for 1884 are only approximate, but they are sufficiently near the actual values to serve the purpose for which they are intended.

An examination of the statistical table relating to the exports reveals similar characteristics. In 1884, 67·7 per cent. of the exports from Egypt were sent to Great Britain. This proportion has since fallen to 54 per cent., while the export trade with Germany has grown from a negligible quantity, insufficient to justify special classification, until now it represents 8½ per cent. of the whole. The export trade with America has grown nearly as rapidly as that with Germany. Dealing simply with the volume of

IMPORTS.

Categories.		Countries of Origin.													
		Total.	Great Britain and British Possessions.			Germany.	America.	Austria-Hungary.	Belgium.	France and Algeria.	Greece.	Italy.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.
			Great Britain.	Brit. Poss. Medit.	Brit. Poss. in Far East.										
		£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
Animals and food products of animals	1908	1,162,124	77,117	28,340	48,737	3,343	1,616	18,800	70	42,692	6,689	62,758	7,907	700,032	164,023
	1907	1,280,839	69,034	30,259	29,730	3,477	1,886	22,080	110	47,906	13,000	71,387	13,998	855,579	122,333
Raw hides and leather articles	1908	380,331	128,507	82	4,545	11,218	10,512	51,300	1,799	44,854	223	4,069	30	49,322	73,870
	1907	464,624	131,497	98	8,364	19,902	18,167	74,219	3,100	55,166	68	14,309	—	51,449	88,285
Other animal products ...	1908	90,533	23,566	174	129	2,838	614	3,241	4,413	30,332	195	3,358	—	1,762	19,911
	1907	92,452	30,573	63	383	2,976	436	3,046	2,338	26,019	201	5,236	13	2,168	19,000
Cereals, vegetables, flour, &c.	1908	3,784,677	303,634	197,123	407,048	42,463	33,130	37,751	27,880	1,245,531	41,764	233,425	149,246	829,297	236,385
	1907	2,963,954	153,354	119,723	513,190	12,044	17,658	30,223	27,138	919,802	32,107	214,505	151,819	656,569	115,822
Provisions, sugar, spices, tea, &c.	1908	1,181,993	100,312	58	92,462	4,555	260,782	54,652	5,839	28,750	316	6,761	414,312	81,534	131,660
	1907	759,430	93,144	126	59,819	4,945	178,136	199,628	2,326	32,884	362	10,663	50,262	85,251	41,884
Wines, spirits, &c.	1908	1,254,591	198,405	20,712	8,915	33,487	58,154	50,965	9,098	196,714	50,878	72,638	211,041	151,346	183,238
	1907	1,151,421	179,122	24,249	4,857	47,027	55,265	54,521	3,407	253,229	51,857	93,207	230,213	100,035	53,832
Paper, books, &c.	1908	382,627	74,294	11	138	43,862	761	109,840	6,642	65,236	1,115	47,123	285	11,967	21,353
	1907	405,320	69,498	29	188	55,605	1,147	124,998	3,475	61,323	997	62,956	188	10,139	14,783
Coal, wood, furniture, &c. ...	1908	3,358,568	1,520,463	249	8,275	36,994	40,464	277,490	6,971	89,785	1,360	39,103	166,498	426,338	744,578
	1907	3,406,988	1,514,550	461	8,166	43,603	37,854	300,510	32,536	133,612	863	82,297	144,756	370,365	737,415
Stone for building, earthenware, glassware, &c. ...	1908	655,112	108,065	17,476	403	62,582	374	79,903	129,253	115,703	6,985	115,743	8,564	4,412	5,649
	1907	774,394	118,687	21,216	517	61,970	337	101,974	163,196	145,310	9,734	125,814	5,730	6,992	12,917
Paints and colouring materials	1908	266,434	37,730	85	51,455	83,555	1,110	10,835	17,429	39,047	999	2,920	—	18,696	2,573
	1907	291,958	46,936	80	78,790	75,115	1,795	10,255	22,063	32,961	531	2,850	—	17,621	2,961
Chemical products, medicines, &c.	1908	729,988	101,215	5,249	38,571	43,805	83,719	45,709	27,430	72,646	9,725	34,321	—	227,533	40,005
	1907	762,065	109,020	3,816	34,013	68,577	165,491	31,834	45,313	86,172	7,620	37,159	120	139,251	33,679
Textile goods	1908	6,455,600	3,744 979	4,828	324,340	251,699	546	614,454	105,452	506,448	1,148	461,040	834	226,960	212,872
	1907	7,006,837	3,814,053	6,271	341,119	303,656	2,665	746,582	88,931	694,081	1,915	502,477	3,143	254,932	247,012
Metals and metal work ...	1908	2,959,396	1,649,074	561	3,199	364,532	54,708	78,405	369,958	313,550	5,556	54,300	2,771	10,969	51,812
	1907	3 960,788	1,902,947	2,785	2,976	492,086	82,978	108,435	618,199	468,530	2,455	65,173	63,909	46,573	103,742
Sundries	1908	1,577,881	191,346	309	3,904	133,006	11,229	127,250	12,741	188,999	2,409	45,515	4,422	17,466	839,285
	1907	2,083,500	254,661	266	3,789	199,612	7,903	182,688	14,748	279,460	2,643	69,287	4,542	19,822	1,053,099
Total merchandise imported	1908	24,239,855	8,258,707	275,257	992,121	1,117,999	557,719	1,560,596	724,975	2,980,287	138,362	1,183,074	965,910	2,757,634	2,727,214
	1907	25,404,576	8,487,076	209,442	1,085,901	1,391,195	571,718	1,990,993	1,026,880	3,227,515	124,333	1,357,320	668,693	2,616,746	2,646,764
Tobacco and cigars ...	1908	860,542	6,106	3,871	1,293	998	958	71,677	772	200	240,277	4,712	8,104	435,342	86,232
	1907	716,207	5,771	3,628	926	1,186	986	68,430	710	154	217,995	4,129	8,175	356,362	47,755
Total Imports ...	1908	25,100,397	8,264,813	279,128	993,414	1,118,997	558,677	1,632,273	725,747	2,980,487	378,639	1,187,786	974,014	3,192,976	2,813,446
	1907	26,120,783	8,492,847	213,070	1,086,827	1,392,381	572,704	2,059,423	1,027,590	3,227,669	342,328	1,361,449	676,868	2,973,108	2,694,519

EXPORTS.

Categories.		Countries of Destination.													
		Total.	Great Britain and British Possessions.			Germany.	America.	Austria-Hungary.	Belgium.	Spain.	France and Algeria.	Italy.	Russia.	Turkey.	Other Countries.
			Great Britain.	Brit. Poss. Medit.	Brit. Poss. in Far East										
		£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
Animals and food products of animals	1908	119,552	90,665	1,328	591	6,545	—	6,901	22	20	5,736	542	525	4,820	1,857
	1907	131,007	90,331	1,905	—	4,350	260	7,763	307	—	10,473	771	—	4,334	1,513
Raw skins and leather articles...	1908	141,561	19,273	2,350	118	9,858	711	16,976	—	—	10,125	44	29	74,576	7,501
	1907	148,233	21,292	2,684	114	5,881	833	21,330	2,484	—	16,120	148	—	68,755	8,592
Other animal products ...	1908	67,805	35,804	87	202	3,482	168	9,073	422	—	12,392	37	16	955	5,167
	1907	110,267	73 267	85	118	7,052	195	7,608	283	—	15,733	74	53	1,372	4,427
Cereals, vegetables, meal, &c.	1908	3,157,562	2,432,769	2,331	1,173	192,719	2,778	110,613	1,722	—	157,045	10,301	17,864	202,314	25,933
	1907	3,189,492	2,543,519	2,812	1,645	169,516	1,643	85,607	—	—	157,316	8,048	20,371	174,307	24,108
Provisions, sugar, spices, &c.	1908	107 670	7,249	81	1,641	6,121	21,711	3,810	3,530	2,536	13,376	3,291	102	38,476	5,746
	1907	113,283	29,532	30	2 785	8,988	17,799	5,079	7,192	1,512	15,538	5,281	10	15,862	3 675
Wines, spirits, &c.	1908	11,990	2,073	53	53	509	—	—	—	—	925	29	—	2,523	5,825
	1907	13,951	2.147	120	11	—	—	13	—	—	3,800	27	—	2,703	5,130
Paper, books, &c.	1908	21 559	3,483	571	2,351	227	250	673	—	15	2,559	—	1,339	7,762	2,329
	1907	19,725	1,723	662	2,798	52	729	509	—	—	3,140	368	1,639	6,238	1,867
Coal, wood, furniture, &c. ...	1908	16,278	966	336	70	557	118	418	—	—	581	345	20	10,483	2,384
	1907	17,884	664	782	10	329	478	309	75	—	232	162	—	11,161	3,682
Stone for building, earthenware, glassware, &c. ...	1908	3,021	208	76	49	39	—	28	—	—	1,221	26	—	229	1,145
	1907	5,697	190	102	32	20	66	—	—	—	2,093	11	—	536	2,047
Paints and colouring material	1908	21,750	—	131	—	—	—	438	—	—	3,306	50	514	16,713	598
	1907	23,853	—	115	—	—	—	489	—	—	3,208	20	290	19,204	527
Chemical products, medicines, &c.	1908	21,794	3.556	—	6,146	689	1,241	571	198	—	1,130	—	69	4,412	3,782
	1907	28,730	3,667	—	11,466	552	1,087	560	355	—	651	1,555	34	5,842	2,961
Textiles	1908	17.170,643	8,479,649	128	89,651	1,522,667	1,112,144	839,767	65,734	412,840	1,456,036	683,439	1,356,805	20,779	1,131,004
	1907	23,732,559	12,373,511	93	47,221	1,929,616	2,064,121	1,149,197	69,747	497,474	1,797,247	768,609	1,576,801	25,778	1,433,144
Metals and metal work ...	1908	6,472	3,744	—	119	136	44	224	—	—	601	426	26	906	246
	1907	3,876	439	62	162	84	279	143	—	—	1,314	394	—	716	283
Sundries	1908	83,039	4,052	263	241	3,986	4,843	803	47	—	2,744	214	214	747	64,885
	1907	81,719	5 611	240	590	3,488	2,899	1,311	131	9	3,271	382	305	602	62 880
Total of merchandise exported	1908	20,950,606	11,083,491	7,735	102,405	1,747,535	1,144,008	990,295	71,675	415,411	1,667,777	698,744	1,377,523	385,695	1,258,402
	1907	27,619,676	15,154,893	9,692	66,952	2,129,928	2 090,389	1,279,918	80,574	498,995	2,030,136	786,450	1,599,503	337,410	1,554,836
Tobacco and cigars exported	1908	364,977	64,309	1,287	47,261	101,397	10,824	39,777	10,145	664	19,647	5,326	54	—	64,286
	1907	393,509	70,223	2,613	55,213	123 026	11,386	35,479	9,677	475	18,864	4,594	77	—	61,872
Total Exports ...	1908	21,315,673	11,147,800	9,022	149,666	1,848,932	1,154,832	1,030,072	81,820	416,075	1,687,424	704,070	1,377,577	385,695	1,322,688
	1907	28,013,185	15,225,116	12,305	122,165	2,252,954	2,101,785	1,315,397	90,251	499,470	2,049,000	791,044	1,599,580	337,410	1,616,708

trade, however, Great Britain's actual increase is three times as great as that of either of these two rivals, as will be seen below :—

Exports to	1884.	1885.	1886.	1908.	Increase.
	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
England	8,498,592	—	—	11,147,800	2,649,208
Germany	None	None	*10,198	1,848,932	1,838,734
America	None	*34 363	—	1,154,832	1,120,469
Austria-Hungary	665,325	—	—	1,030,072	364,747
France	1,117,244	—	—	1,681,331	564,087
Russia	665,325	—	—	1,377,577	712,252

* First special classification.

Italy and Turkey show decreases as between 1884 and 1908 of £E61,482 and £E61,330 respectively.

For the purpose of the Customs returns the imports and exports are divided into fourteen chief classes. The figures in pounds Egyptian on page 157 compare the ingoings and outgoings for the last two years, and show in detail the countries from which the imports chiefly come, and whither the principal exports are sent.

It will be noticed that of the total value of the exports from Egypt amounting to £E21,315,673, raw cotton accounts for no less than £E17,091,603. It is to the cultivation of cotton that Egypt owes her prosperity ; it is upon this trade that she lives. In 1908 about half the cotton grown in the country found its way into the mills of Lancashire. Details relating to the value of raw cotton exported from Egypt by countries of destination during the years 1907-8 are as follows :—

	1907. £E.	1908. £E.
Great Britain ...	12,271,784	8,428,847
British Poss. Far East ...	46,364	88,581
Germany	1,928,464	1,522,064
America	2,063,501	1,111,588
Austria-Hungary...	1,147,620	837,356
Belgium	69,722	65,687
China and Japan...	342,343	333,964
Spain	497,474	412,840
France and Algeria	1,793,633	1,454,801
Italy	768,301	683,411
Russia	1,576,729	1,356,805
Switzerland ...	978,665	711,295
Turkey	6,240	3,846
Other Countries ...	107,097	80,518
TOTAL	23,597,844	17,091,603

The following is a comparison of the principal articles of export during the years 1907 and 1908 in order of importance in 1908 :—

	1907. £E.	1908. £E.
Cotton	23,597,844	17,091,603
Cotton-seed ...	2,555,067	2,470,996
Cigarettes... ...	393,509	364,977
Oil-cake	211,251	215,765
Onions	162,555	198,962
Hides	147,866	141,262
Rice	135,430	140,616
Eggs	99,499	85,654
Raw wool ...	103,976	53,646
Gum arabic ...	70,112	51,709
Sugar-cane ...	37,071	50,106
Ostrich feathers ...	43,102	31,147
Henna	23,669	21,436
Tomatoes	23,576	20,599
Live quail ...	18,098	16,937
Other articles ...	390,560	360,258
TOTAL... ...	28,013,185	21,315,673

Appended is a statement of the principal articles of merchandise imported during the years 1907 and 1908, arranged in order of importance in 1908 :—

	1907. £E.	1908. £E.
Cotton textiles ...	3,168,088	3,276,232
Maize and wheat flour	1,227,086	1,753,270
Coal...	1,389,861	1,476,391
Wood for building and other purposes	1,316,871	1,433,570
Iron and steel ...	1,969,361	1,262,752
Textiles other than cotton	1,263,169	1,002,878
Tobacco and cigars	716,207	860,542
Machinery	1,069,537	796,843
Animals	719,063	584,921
Sugar, rough and refined	278,352	580,530
Fruits, fresh and dry	529,256	565,755
Rice	385,569	406,370
Petrol	297,000	358,915
Coffee	261,739	343,825
Ironmongery and haberdashery	434,410	322,354
Leather	270,764	293,184
Cotton thread ...	277,731	292,436
Butter and cheese...	289,699	286,787
Clothing	423,650	278,047
Underclothing ...	430,078	269,151
Sacks	252,836	250,651
Food and fish, smoked and preserved	223,784	239,380
Other articles ...	8,926,672	8,165,613
TOTAL... ...	26,120,783	25,100,397

A duty of 8 per cent. ad valorem is imposed upon all merchandise, with a few exceptions, imported, and a duty of 1 per cent. ad valorem upon all exports. The exceptions include coal, charcoal, firewood, timber for building purposes, petroleum, cattle, sheep, or goats, and frozen meat of these animals, which pay a duty of 4 per cent. ad valorem. A duty of 1 per cent. ad valorem is imposed on coal and liquid fuel in transit. The duties upon tobacco are calculated by weight. The general tariff for leaf tobacco is 220 milliemes a kilogramme, but there is a special tariff also of 200 m. a kilogramme for the benefit of Turkey and all treaty countries. Leaf tobacco, stripped of its stalk, &c., and manufactured tobaccos pay 270 m. a kilogramme according to the general tariff, or 250 m. a kilogramme under the special tariff. Cigars of all qualities and from all countries pay an import duty of 250 m. a kilogramme, while tombacs pay 70 m. per oke by way of duty and monopoly, and are further subjected to a royalty of 94 m. per oke if the quantity imported exceeds 24,000 okes a year.

PORTS, LIGHTHOUSES, AND SHIPPING.

TWO thousand years ago, there stood at the end of the Island of Pharos a huge tower, known to the inhabitants of the shores washed by the waters of the Mediterranean as one of the wonders of the world. This was the famous Pharos which guided the ancient mariner to the great port of Alexandria, the chief centre of commerce at that period of the world's history. It was built by Sostratus, the Cnidian, during the reign of the second Ptolemy (B.C. 48), and legend has it that its full height was 590 feet, or 400 ells. Though traces of the old light-tower were still visible in 1326, it disappeared long ago, the result of earthquake cataclysms altering the contour of the Mediterranean littoral. Fort Kâït Bey, standing on the extreme point of the small peninsula to the west of the Eastern Port, is believed to be near the site of the ancient light which sent its guiding gleams across the blue waters of the Mediterranean.

If Egypt cannot now lay claim to be one of the great commercial countries, her lighthouses to-day are still amongst the most important in the world. Circumstances have changed the world's commercial centre. Alexandria, the principal port of Egypt (for 98 per cent. of the foreign trade of the country passes through this port), can no longer claim to be in the front rank so far as mere statistics are concerned ; but the stream of traffic which passes through the Red Sea, one of the most dangerous of waterways for the modern navigator, owes its comparative immunity from accident to the excellent system of lighthouses maintained by the Egyptian Government as far south as 700 miles from the port of Suez. There are eight of these Red Sea lights, as compared with nine on the Mediterranean coast-line ; and their importance to the world's sea-borne traffic cannot be overestimated. In the old days, when these lights were first instituted after the opening of the Suez Canal, the position of the lightkeepers in the Red Sea was a somewhat precarious one ; but in recent years there have been no serious incidents to chronicle, and no interference with the lighthouse service.

Owing to the climatic conditions in the Red Sea, the keepers are now changed periodically. There are seventy Europeans and four natives in the service. In each lighthouse, there are from three to four keepers, according to the situation of the lighthouse. In the thirty years prior to 1905, it was found that the Red Sea lightkeepers suffered in health under the system then in force of keeping the men there during the whole of the period entitling them to pension, and each of the four men assigned to each lighthouse had to remain there for nine continuous months before he could enjoy his annual three months' leave. Most of these lighthouses are in a damp and hot climate, some of them entirely surrounded by the sea, so that the keepers had not the means of taking exercise on the mainland. Besides, the lighthouses being, in many cases, open iron structures, they are subject to vibration, a condition that was found extremely injurious to the nervous system of the keepers. By the system of a rotation of service between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, introduced by Rear-Admiral Sir Massie Blomfield, R.N., who was the Director-General from 1901 to 1907, the men serve under more healthful conditions, and benefit by the change to the northern coast.

The Port Said lighthouse, which has a special technical staff of its own, is an exception to the inter-changeable system established in 1905.

Centred in Alexandria, the administration of the Ports and Lighthouses is under the control of the Director-General. This position is held at present by Captain H. R. Robinson, R.N., who was appointed on January 8, 1908, previous Directors-General being, Mackillop Pasha, R.N. ; the late Sir George Morice Pasha, R.N., (1879–1901) ; and Rear-Admiral Sir Massie Blomfield, R.N. It is divided into three sub-departments, Administrative, Marine, and Technical. Including the lightkeepers, there are 669 Europeans and Egyptians in the service. The Administrative department deals with financial and clerical work ; the Marine department with moorings, floating plant, signal stations, berthing and all the ordinary work discharged by harbour-masters in other ports ; and the Technical department deals with the building of quays and breakwaters, graving docks, maintenance of harbour works and plant, and the repairing of lighthouses.

Great changes have been effected in the harbours of Alexandria since the days of the Ptolemies. Sheltered by the Island of Pharos, the bay lying to the east, between the island and the mainland, was the chief port of the ancients. During the reign of the first Ptolemy, a huge embankment was thrown up to connect the island with the mainland, and this was gradually enlarged till in time it assumed sufficient stability to form the site of a large portion of the modern city.

To the east of this embankment is the old port, to the west the Port of Eunoste, which has become the harbour of the modern city, and the great centre of activity, with its quays, wharves, coal sheds, customs house, bonded stores, and warehouses for general merchandise. Here, also, is the arsenal and the graving dock. The depth of fine mud in the harbour is remarkable, and the Port Administration keeps one large suction dredger and three powerful bucket dredgers at work to maintain an ample depth of water for the passage and anchorage of the large steamers frequenting the port. Important constructional works have been in progress during the past three years, and are being continued with the object of increasing the quay accommodation, and to protect the harbour by extending the old breakwaters. The extension of the breakwaters has been completed at a cost of nearly £E200,000. Special quays have been constructed for the discharge of wood, and special quays, fitted with coal hoists, are provided for the expeditious discharge of coal. The deposits obtained by dredging have been found useful for the construction of these new quays.

Formerly, the Port of Alexandria was under the administration of the Railway Department. On March 23, 1905, a Khedivial decree separated the administration from the Ministry of Public Works, to which it had belonged since June 14, 1880, and placed it under the Ministry of Finance, as it was before ; and on March 29, 1905, effect was given to that decree.

At Suez the harbour of Port Ibrahim is under the administration of the department, but at Port Said the Suez Canal Company is responsible for maintenance, under the agreement with the Egyptian Government.

The Ports and Lighthouses Department is one of the revenue-yielding departments of the Government. In the year 1908 the total income amounted to £E392,579, and the expenditure to £E110,632, leaving a net balance in favour of revenue of £E281,947. The revenue is obtained from tonnage, quay (import and export) accostage and light dues, and repairing work at the graving dock.

From the annual summary of shipping for the year 1908, prepared by the Statistical Department of the Ministry of Finance, it appears that the total shipping traffic, including the Suez Canal transits, amounted during the quarter ending December 31, 1908, to 3,644 vessels, representing 8,457,500 tons net.

Imports amounted to 1,122,500 standard tons and exports to 436,100. Passenger traffic was made up of 40,600 arrivals and 28,800 departures. The total figures of both cargo and passenger traffic are the highest recorded during the year.





W. H. MULLER & CO.

1. Alexandria Offices.

2. Manager's Office.

ALEXANDRIA.

Years	Total.		British.		Austro.-Hungarian.		French.		German.		Greek.		Italian.		Russian.		Swedish and Norwegian.		Turkish.		Other Nationalities.	
	No. of Steamers	Net Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage
1884	1,114	1,279,232	658	764,987	130	151,276	93	112,690	1	741	5	4.903	56	54,839	71	105.620	6	8,532	93	74,403	1	1,061
1885	1,118	1,347,965	620	758,324	137	172,083	88	118,706	1	725	17	15,150	51	47,247	81	110 905	5	4 367	90	101,074	19	19,294
1886	1,084	1,340,026	566	719,961	132	163,421	97	128,528	1	247	9	6,566	42	37,397	86	126,274	13	11,601	121	127,751	17	18,280
1887	1,197	1,468,274	597	743,050	133	168,934	120	187,135	16	14,783	2	2,191	61	59,330	83	121,245	15	17,291	148	140,192	13	14,123
1888	1,135	1,449,389	545	693,102	118	157.716	148	251,477	3	2,683	19	11,236	54	51,879	78	115,027	10	11,883	155	147.972	5	6,414
1889	1,091	1,418 593	518	664 428	99	138,033	142	261,365	5	6,542	14	8,565	57	52,842	67	90,010	13	15,091	158	153.746	18	17,871
1890	1,142	1,523,821	569	756,088	109	154,940	131	263,658	13	11,802	4	2,626	72	70,956	55	82,315	17	18,838	163	152,513	9	10,085
1891	1,252	1,682,976	647	858,437	104	153,299	130	276,227	7	9.578	11	7.499	88	83,184	72	107.970	32	38,188	148	133,979	13	14,615
1892	1,373	1,983,299	664	933.911	127	190,930	127	285,519	13	16,109	7	7,853	120	195,633	79	121,657	36	46,763	183	161,809	17	20,115
1893	1,285	1,902,415	596	864,288	131	180,658	122	273,831	26	36,749	10	4.575	118	196,045	78	138,348	39	45,507	158	144,882	7	8,532
1894	1,406	2,085,253	697	988,225	138	195.977	141	292,236	23	33.475	8	8,038	121	211,615	84	155,286	41	58,359	146	132,983	7	9,059
1895	1,404	2,084,194	619	897,129	149	235,504	137	286,009	27	42,692	14	10,908	124	225,762	79	156,984	30	48,851	207	162 225	9	18,130
1896	1,302	1,999,815	610	934,450	140	248.335	145	219,996	30	46,070	22	22,119	81	122,553	80	170,505	18	26,450	174	136 492	2	2,845
1897	1,321	2,128,144	657	1,034,019	135	241.173	139	280,359	35	61,369	84	60,064	111	198,699	83	179,049	19	33,365	35	20,141	23	19,906
1898	1,524	2,409,503	729	1,111,481	139	254,703	125	263,778	27	52,230	66	42,832	142	276,693	95	185,940	36	59,221	55	39,571	110	123,054
1899	1,351	2,262,042	747	1,150,231	115	223,854	119	272,327	30	56,378	40	27,904	132	249,234	75	162,494	22	42,614	40	29,463	31	47.543
1900	1,334	2,204,621	673	1,022,834	129	248,879	109	291,643	35	58,459	63	57,088	128	219,506	84	166,425	26	49,436	51	36,128	36	54,223
1901	1,443	2,403,217	656	1,016,538	160	315,780	121	310,947	52	76,046	76	71,580	156	262,192	89	188,747	23	39,315	66	49,157	44	72,915
1902	1,395	2,476,569	695	1,189,636	104	232,378	114	290,461	60	102,438	42	29,906	165	287,139	71	154,601	20	40,808	66	52,250	58	87.952
1903	1,409	2,590,962	716	1,194,722	112	248,896	115	305,288	67	125,406	79	52,320	173	307,469	86	175,965	20	44,107	83	63,720	48	73,069
1904	1,731	2,982,294	786	1,340,439	160	334,851	102	264,041	57	119,736	117	94,442	189	322,999	119	237,077	37	79,402	102	80,231	62	109,076
1905	1,817	3,296,237	801	1,521,879	145	310,668	133	325,129	95	260,611	184	154 868	195	327,163	86	184,273	31	58,713	100	73,603	47	79,330
1906	1,958	3,076,491	782	1,319,997	157	298,605	128	291,031	108	257,970	253	194.239	196	311,859	85	159,987	35	55,993	84	57,061	130	129,749
1907	2,012	3,300,747	778	1 383,508	192	364,934	123	282,402	127	335,598	269	209 691	195	300,952	91	185,981	—	—	37	18,449	200	219,232
1908	2,127	3,535,164	757	1,468,778	205	400,140	124	288,210	109	271,147	307	229,507	258	399,909	109	207,620	*19	39,079	—	—	239	230,774

* Swedish.

PORT SAID.

Years	Total.		British.		Egyptian.		Austrian.		French.		German.		Greek.		Italian.		Turkish.		Russian.		Other Nationalities.	
	No. of Vessels	Net Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage	No. of Vessels	Tonnage
1890	1,906	1,112 317	451	642,784	578	81,954	83	91,923	81	94,468	33	44.313	37	13,862	8	5,972	573	43 351	55	85,823	7	7,867
1891	1,614	1,016,103	451	600,208	536	71,721	76	85,070	60	110,668	27	20,858	33	9,815	28	5.784	336	15,180	53	75,817	14	11,982
1892	1.683	1.065,593	370	557,029	646	81,927	113	119,672	72	163,334	27	30.122	24	3,368	21	4,628	346	15,261	54	76,033	10	13,319
1893	1 531	901,310	360	510,693	553	98,259	113	135,519	78	110,092	8	7.795	38	14,974	20	3,490	296	14.623	54	80,896	11	14,969
1894	1,553	986,823	328	520,068	611	99,040	113	127.358	68	135,617	1	54	41	12,471	19	2,103	316	12,647	50	71,728	6	5.737
1895	1,621	911,177	297	470 576	648	40,410	128	165,865	56	101,413	—	—	29	9,708	12	659	377	16,274	53	77 959	21	28,313
1896	1,818	1,155,845	377	620,952	895	67,676	115	152,769	115	201,389	2	2,445	30	10.375	17	2,410	209	12,884	54	78,531	4	6,414
1897	2,048	1,215,588	400	590.497	1020	154,432	110	145.372	117	204,925	—	—	51	16,015	13	1,183	277	12,780	53	77.796	7	12,588
1898	1,968	1,238,301	524	696,752	837	46,807	109	145.371	120	220,681	7	18,121	26	5 773	18	5,301	262	10,005	56	79,020	9	10,470
1899	1,758	1,156,955	460	618,619	810	89,235	86	100,543	114	207.571	1	313	22	10,669	17	3.512	184	9,939	51	92,242	13	14,312
1900	1,838	1,211,599	443	596,187	782	46,739	117	151,917	111	231,796	1	2,860	23	22,170	38	38,419	253	11,273	55	88,007	15	22,231
1901	1,909	1,330,058	436	624,215	798	47,203	161	207,330	108	228,400	1	1 349	18	11,750	47	49.025	247	11,800	77	125.740	16	23,246
1902	1,542	1,166,744	468	642,831	603	34,377	51	84,095	105	225,995	1	31	18	4,865	40	38,189	195	10,151	54	116,292	7	9,918
1903	1,653	1,354.471	541	788,712	526	47.980	41	72,528	111	227,301	2	2.416	21	10,409	54	48,408	270	10,795	63	112,698	24	33,224
1904	1,735	1,305.759	526	710,057	495	30,851	89	139,127	97	193,466	7	6,960	30	39,745	66	53,986	284	15,751	107	132,068	34	43,148
1905	1,827	1,379,846	486	675,126	634	37,684	76	122,879	130	263,804	2	2,789	39	33,118	57	49,554	273	28.335	91	113.401	39	53,147
1906	885	1,397,375	476	772,963	—	—	83	133,992	126	281,806	3	3,666	70	51,336	30	41,426	12	8,749	69	85 804	16	17,633
1907	984	1,527,230	478	809,949	—	—	101	176 018	129	281,262	4	5,414	145	102,203	28	42,395	4	2,104	66	89,893	29	17,992
1908	879	1,421,826	390	650,314	—	—	105	188,260	110	277,420	4	6,343	120	86,126	40	65,343	—	—	90	121,974	20	26,046

The difference between the number of vessels given for 1906 compared with that of the preceding years, which appears to be superior, is due to the fact that figures relating to former years are inclusive of small coasters and fishing boats.

PORT OF SUEZ.

Years	Total.		British.		Egyptian.		French.		Italian.		Turkish.		Other Nationalities.	
	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No. of Steamers	Tonnage	No of Steamers	Tonnage
1893	112	85,681	24	24,988	83	55.332	2	2,253	1	685	2	2,423	—	—
1894	78	58,713	14	12,135	—	—	—	—	1	545	49	33,511	14	12,522
1895	88	75,703	17	21,531	—	—	1	639	—	—	48	39,879	22	13,654
1896	90	74,227	29	21.099	—	—	—	—	—	—	48	44,131	13	8,997
1897	110	82,938	47	25,288	—	—	—	—	2	1,425	60	53,095	1	3,130
1898	108	77,901	98	68,261	—	—	—	—	1	612	7	7,813	2	1,215
1899	87	69,041	82	64,514	—	—	—	—	1	612	3	2,712	1	1,203
1900	104	59,768	93	53,706	2	103	3	1,773	5	2,861	1	1,325	—	—
1901	133	71,439	118	63,806	2	103	—	—	1	626	3	3.349	9	3,555
1902	180	207,780	147	154,567	5	4.051	3	5,342	2	2,469	12	5,514	11	35,837
1903	155	228,588	116	152,142	5	5,660	3	3,990	2	1,068	10	3,599	19	62,129
1904	182	235,648	151	167,162	3	3,137	2	4,037	4	7,601	6	7,072	16	46,639
1905	268	285,489	220	197,339	—	—	3	3,786	7	18,383	18	14,845	20	51,136
1906	266	225,326	245	203,022	2	224	—	—	1	1,829	12	8,714	6	11,537
1907	277	300,902	246	261,478	—	—	9	4,435	—	—	2	3,070	20	50.887
1908	243	243,813	219	200,352	—	—	3	8,841	5	10,648	—	—	16	23,972

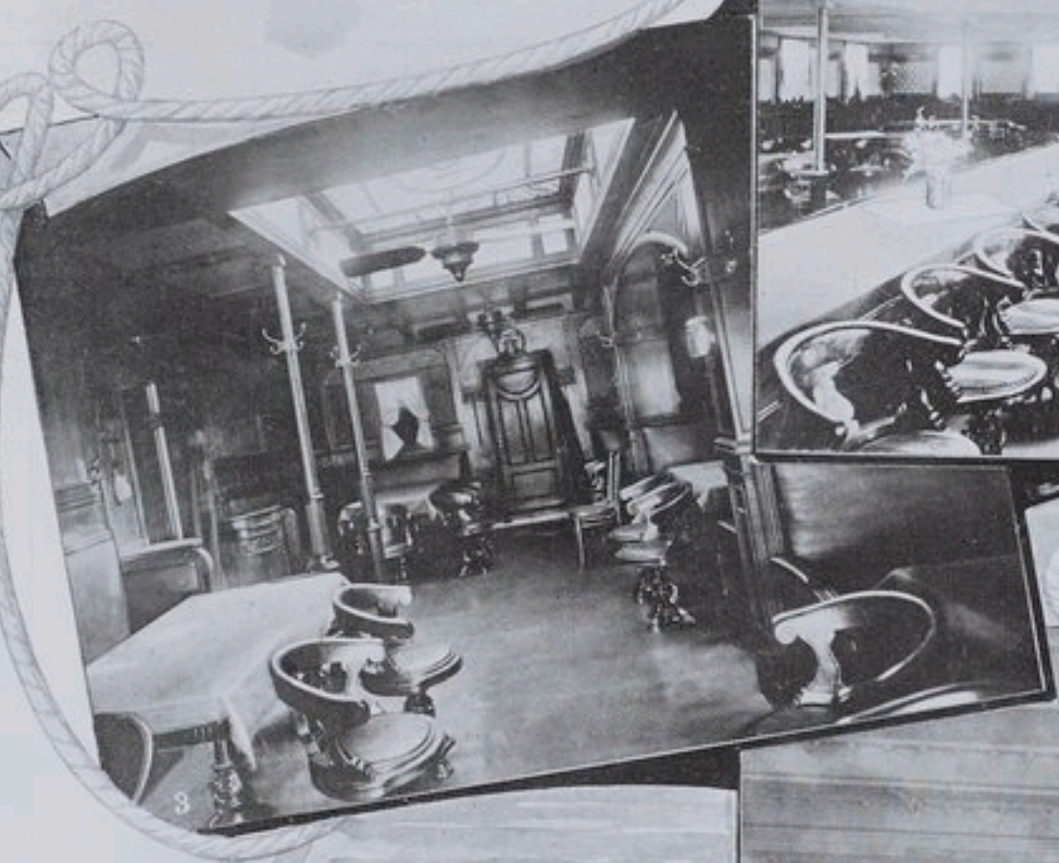
The total decrease in the traffic in Egyptian ports excluding the transit through the Suez Canal amounted during the fourth quarter to 54 vessels and nearly 102,500 tons net. A comparison of the British traffic in the above period with that of 1907 shows a total diminution of 155 vessels representing 261,000 tons net. A similar comparison for other nationalities shows that except Austria-Hungary and France, the traffic of all other nationalities has considerably increased.

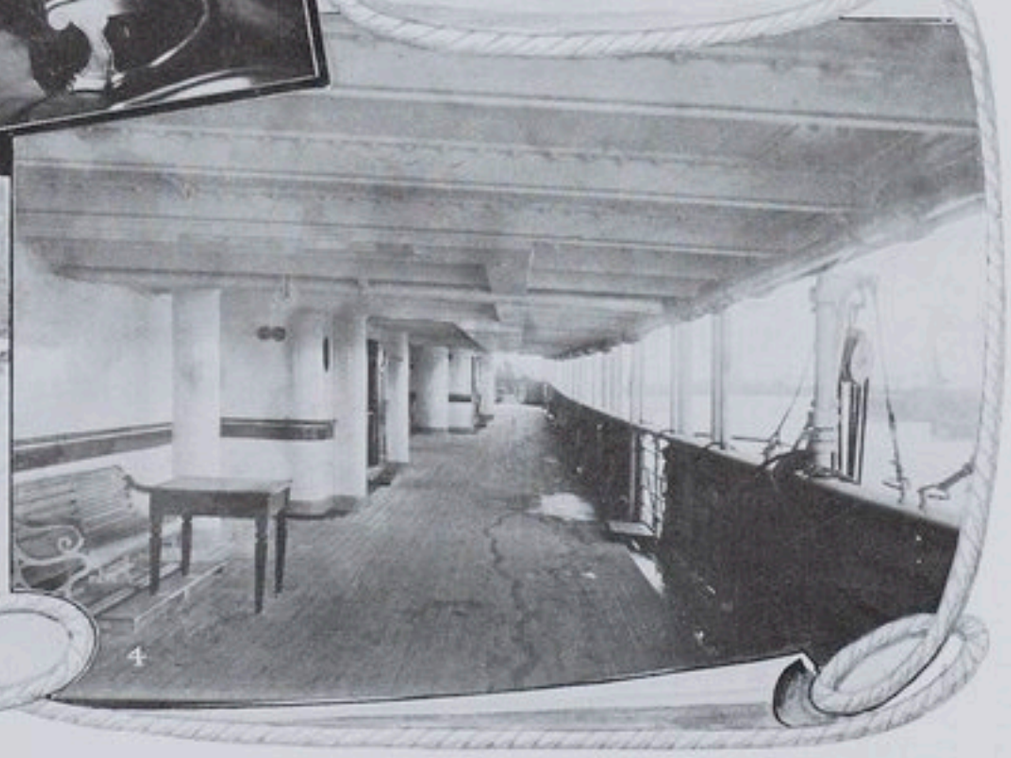
Taking figures of traffic in Alexandria it appears that the latter has increased by 49 vessels and 20,400 tons net. These figures show that the average tonnage of vessels visiting Egyptian ports has decreased. Indeed, examining figures concerning incoming vessels we find that there is an increase of eighteen in the number of vessels whereas the tonnage shows a decrease of nearly 3,000 tons.

Excluding Austria, whose figures remained almost unchanged, all countries show an





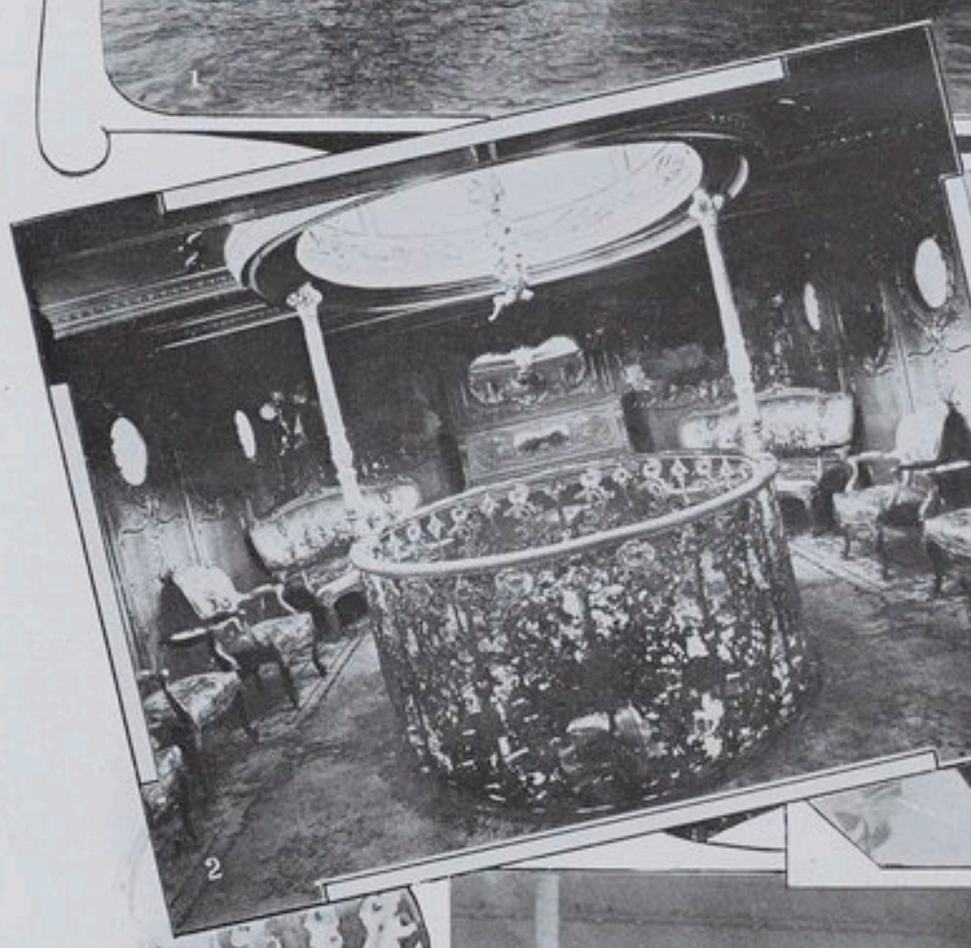


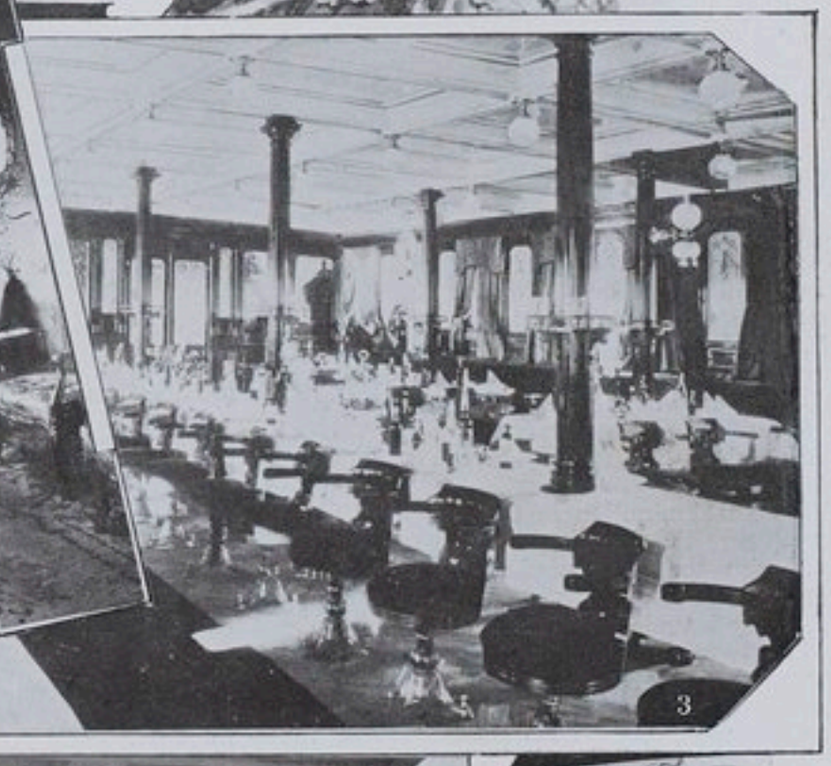


1. Norddeutscher-Lloyd S.S. "Schleswig."
2. Dining Saloon, S.S. "Schleswig."
3. Smoking Saloon, S.S. "Schleswig."
4. Deck, S.S. "Schleswig."

W. H. MULLER & CO.









W. H. MULLER & CO.

1. Service Maritime Roumain S.S. "Dacia."
2. Service Maritime Roumain, Ladies' Saloon, S.S. "Imperatul Traian."
3. Service Maritime Roumain, Dining Saloon, S.S. "Imperatul Traian."
4. Service Maritime Roumain, Deck, S.S. "Dacia."

increase except Great Britain whose traffic decreased by 56 vessels representing 121,941 tons net. This is quite comprehensible, since other countries such as Austria, France, Germany, Italy, &c., have permanent postal and passenger lines with Alexandria, whereas British shipping consists mainly of cargo boats and it was therefore affected on a larger scale than other countries by the decline of trade reflected in the returns of the Customs Administrations.

We here allude, of course, to the number of ships frequenting Egyptian ports and not to the amount of cargo transported, since we have no information for 1907 as regards the latter.

Cargo landed at Alexandria amounted to 680,000 standard tons and exports to 405,400. The total passenger traffic during the fourth quarter, 1908, amounted to 41,900, viz., 29,800 arrivals and 12,100 departures. More than one half of the total cargo and about one quarter of the passenger traffic of Alexandria was carried by British ships. Taking into consideration the importance of its shipping, cargo, and passenger traffic, Greece occupies the second place, both with regard to its actual share in the total traffic and to the improvement realised during the fourth quarter, 1908, as compared with 1907.

The movement of non-transiting vessels in Port Said has decreased by 31 vessels representing 22,000 tons. The diminution affected the traffic of Great Britain, Austria, France and Greece, whereas Italy's and Russia's show a certain increase.

Imports amounted to 419,200 and exports to 19,600 standard tons. The total passenger traffic amounted to 14,200. The above figures are inclusive of cargo and passengers landed or embarked by vessels transiting the Suez Canal.

The total diminution in the traffic of other ports during the fourth quarter, 1908, as compared with 1907 amounted to 72 vessels, representing 101,000 tons net.

The total traffic in the canal during the fourth quarter, 1908, amounted to 953 vessels, representing 3,472,300 tons, which carried 46,318 passengers, against 1,039 vessels, 3,678,600 tons, and 50,300 passengers in the previous year: a diminution of 86 vessels representing 206,359 tons.

Great Britain's share in the total traffic has diminished by 93 vessels, representing 269,525 tons and 1,134 passengers. These figures show that the decline—in the movement of shipping at least—is mainly due to British traffic. The decline in the passengers is derived from the fact that during the fourth quarter, 1907, Turkish ships carried southwards 5,319 persons—mostly soldiers—bound to the Yemen, whereas the number of passengers transiting the canal on board Turkish vessels amounted during the same period of 1908 to 99 only.

No remarkable changes are to be found in the figures for other nationalities, save that Holland and Russia show an increase of about 20,000 tons in the total tonnage of their respective vessels.

The tables of statistics on page 161 give the total number of commercial steamers, classified by nationality, arriving at Alexandria, Suez, and Port Said (not transiting the Canal) for periods of years.

Up to the year 1905 the tonnage of vessels was that calculated by the Suez Canal Company. Since January, 1906, the Government has adopted the registered tonnage, a fact which accounts for the decrease in the total tonnage from 1906 compared with preceding years.

NORDDEUTSCHER-LLOYD IN EGYPT.

THE Norddeutscher-Lloyd, during the first thirty years of their existence, maintained lines of steamers joining only Europe and America; but in 1885, taking part in a public tender, they obtained a concession from the German Government for the exploitation of postal lines to Australia and the Extreme Orient. The Australian line was inaugurated in June, 1886, by the ss. *Oder*, and that to the Far East a fortnight later by the ss. *Salier*, these being the first of the company's steamers to touch at Port Said. Down to 1900, both services were monthly, but in that year the Far Eastern service was doubled, and this change gave a service of three boats a month outwards and homewards between Bremen and Port Said. At the same time, the speed of the steamers was increased to thirteen and a half knots an hour, and the company definitely adopted for these lines the steamers of the *König Albert* type, which are so much appreciated by the public, and have contributed so largely to the popularity of the Norddeutscher-Lloyd in Asia and Australia.

By means of the lines above mentioned Egypt was for twenty-four years supplied with a regular service to Italy, England, and the ports of Hamburg and Bremen. The increasing volume of tourist traffic, however, made it desirable that additional travelling facilities should be offered to the public, and in 1904 the Norddeutscher-Lloyd decided to create a new line between Marseilles, Naples, and Alexandria, giving a weekly service to and from those ports, and completing admirably the network of communications between Europe and Egypt.

Finally, in 1905, the Norddeutscher-Lloyd concluded a convention with the Service Maritime Roumain, of which we give an account elsewhere in this section, and their *clientèle* are thus afforded an alternative route to Europe *viâ* Constantinople.

LE Norddeutscher-Lloyd durant les premières trente années de leur existence maintenaient des lignes de service maritime joignant seulement l'Europe et l'Amérique; mais en 1885, prenant part à une adjudication publique, ils obtinrent du Gouvernement Allemand une concession pour l'exploitation des lignes postales pour l'Australie et l'Extrême Orient. La ligne d'Australie fut inaugurée en 1886 par le ss. *Oder*, et celle de l'Extrême Orient quinze jours après par le ss. *Salier*; ce furent les premiers bateaux de la Compagnie qui touchèrent à Port Said. Jusqu'en 1900 ces deux services se firent une fois par mois, mais en cette même année le service de l'Extrême Orient fut doublé et ce changement donna lieu à un service de trois bateaux par mois allant et venant entre Brême et Port Said. A ce même moment la rapidité des bateaux augmenta de treize nœuds ½ à l'heure, et la Compagnie adopta définitivement pour le service de ces lignes les bateaux du *König Albert*, type de bateau très apprécié du public et qui a contribué largement à la popularité de la Norddeutscher-Lloyd en Asie et en Australie.

Au moyen des lignes ci-dessus mentionnées, pendant 24 ans l'Egypte eut un service régulier avec l'Italie, l'Angleterre, les ports de Hambourg et de Brême. Cependant le nombre des touristes augmentant, fit désirer que des facilités de voyager soient offertes au public; et en 1904 le Norddeutscher-Lloyd de créer une nouvelle ligne entre Marseilles, Naples, et Alexandrie, donnant un service hebdomadaire pour ces ports, et cela compléta admirablement le réseau de communications entre l'Europe et l'Egypte.

Finalement, en 1905, le Norddeutscher-Lloyd a signé une convention avec le Service Maritime Roumain, duquel nous donnons un compte-rendu ailleurs que dans cette partie, et leur clientèle est ainsi desservie alternativement par la route d'Europe viâ Constantinople.

THE SERVICE MARITIME ROUMAIN.

THIS service was created in 1895 on the initiative of the Government of Roumania, who desired to have proper means of transport for the exportation of salt from the State; but the service designed at first to be only a cargo line, was soon increased by the addition of two fast mail steamers, with passenger accommodation, which ran between Constantza and Constantinople. Thanks to this new departure, the grand diagonal which traverses Europe from north-west to south-east, going from London to Constantinople, *viâ* Ostend and Vienna, was shortened by about eighteen hours. Instead of making the journey from Vienna to Constantinople by way of Belgrade, Sofia, and Philipopoli, the traveller may proceed *viâ* Buda Pesth, Bucharest, and Constantza, the bi-monthly sailings of the Company's steamers coinciding with the arrival and departure of the trains of of the Orient Express Line. A train running from Berlin to Constantza affords in conjunction with the steamer service, the most direct means of communication between the German capital and Constantinople.

In course of time, the Service Maritime Roumain established branch lines to Smyrna and Piræus; and when the latter was discontinued for political reasons, the Smyrna line was further extended to Alexandria, and a regular weekly service between Constantza, Constantinople, Smyrna, and Alexandria was instituted. A year later, that is to say in October, 1905, an agreement was entered into with the Norddeutscher-Lloyd, by which the public were afforded the choice of making the journey to Egypt by way of Marseilles and Naples, and of returning by way of Constantinople, or vice versâ. The fleet which maintains this service consists of five vessels, of which the following particulars are of interest:—

	Tons displacement.	Speed in knots.	Passengers.		
			1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.
Dacia...	4,500	18·5	101	50	350
Impératul Traian	4,500	18·5	99	44	350
Româine	4,500	18·5	94	36	350
Regele Carol I.	3,430	19	44	57	350
Principes a Maria	2,340	17	49	46	250

Altogether, judging by the success which has attended their first fourteen year's activity, the Service Maritime Roumain seem destined

to play an increasingly important part in the navigation of Oriental Europe.

Ce service fut créé in 1895 sur l'initiative du Gouvernement de Roumanie qui désirait voir augmenter ses moyens de transport pour l'exportation du sel de l'état ; mais le service fut au commencement un service de bateaux de marchandises, qui fut bientôt augmenté de deux rapides bateaux de poste qui allaient entre Constance et Constantinople. Grâce à ce nouveau départ, la grande ligne diagonale traversant l'Europe pour le nord-ouest et le sud-est allant de Londres à Constantinople *viâ* Ostende et Vienne fut raccourcie au moins d'une durée de dix-huit heures. Au lieu de faire le trajet de Vienne à Constantinople par Belgrade, Sofia, et Philipopoli, le voyage put s'effectuer *viâ* Buda-Pest, Bucharest, et Constance. Le départ bi-mensuel des bateaux de la Compagnie coïncidant avec l'arrivée et le départ de la ligne Express-Orient, un train allant de Berlin à Constance, correspondant avec le service des bateaux, donne le moyen de communication le plus direct entre la capitale de l'Allemagne et Constantinople.

Pendant ce temps le service Maritime Roumain établit des lignes de bifurcation de Smyrne au Pirée, et quand pour des raisons politiques les dernières lignes furent interceptées, la ligne de Smyrne fut étendue jusqu'à Alexandrie et un service régulier hebdomadaire entre Constance, Constantinople, Smyrne et Alexandrie fut institué.

Un an après c'est-à-dire en Octobre, 1905, un accord fut introduit dans le Norddeutscher-Lloyd par lequel le public eut le moyen de choisir et de faire le trajet pour l'Egypte par la voie de Marseille et Naples en retournant par Constantinople ou vice-versâ.

Les différents bateaux qui couvrent le service sont au nombre de cinq à savoir, les suivants dignes d'intérêt :

	Tonnes déplacement.	Rapidité. en nœuds.	Voyageurs.		
			1re. Cl.	2e. Cl.	3e. Cl.
Dacia	4.500	18,5	101	50	350
Imperatul Traian	4.500	18,5	99	44	350
Roumâine	4.500	18,5	94	36	350
Regele Carol I.	3.430	19,	44	57	350
Principes a Maria... ...	2.340	17,	49	46	250

En somme, en considérant le succès et l'activité, pendant ses 14 premières années le service Maritime Roumain semble destiné à occuper une place sans cesse croissante dans la navigation de l'Europe Orientale.

COMPAGNIE DES MESSAGERIES MARITIMES.

Founded in 1851 to carry on the postal service in the Mediterranean formerly undertaken by vessels belonging to Government, the enterprise of the Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes is the oldest and the most important of the kind possessed by France. The Company were called upon to participate in the transport of troops for the Crimea in 1854, and by way of recognition were granted a monopoly of the postal services between France, Tunis and Algiers, which they enjoyed for seventeen years. In 1860, the postal line *viâ* Portugal to Senegal, Brazil, and La Plata was established ; and in 1862 were inaugurated relations with Indo-China and the ports of China, relations extended some years later to Japan. In 1882, the Company in co-operation with the Government, recognised the necessity of opening direct commercial intercourse between France and New Caledonia, touching at the Australian ports ; and later a line was established to the East Coast of Africa, Madagascar, Réunion, and Mauritius. All these lines have Marseilles, where the head offices of the Company are situated, as their terminal port, with the exception of that of South America, which runs from Bordeaux. Upon this main network of postal routes have been grafted, as the requirements of the nation's commerce increased, other services, both optional and obligatory, maintained by means of cargo boats and intermediate mail steamers.

The fleet at the present day comprises sixty-six vessels varying from 1,400 to nearly 7,000 tons gross register, and nine steam launches. Most of these vessels were constructed by the Company in their own yards at Ciotat, at the mouth of the Rhône ; and there is a striking contrast between the magnificent twin-screw vessels, 150 mètres in length, which are being laid down at the present day, and the first vessel launched by the establishment, the *Périclès*, a paddle-steamer not more than forty-six mètres in length. The new vessels combine in their completeness as well as in their minutest details all the most modern improvements in order to secure the well-being and safety of the passengers.

To give an idea of the development of the Company, it may be mentioned that the total distance annually covered by the fleet has risen from 112,000 lieues (lieue=two and a half English miles) to nearly 1,000,000 lieues. So important an undertaking necessitates the employment of a large personnel, composed of the most diverse elements, both ashore and afloat. It numbers some eleven thousand persons, and in their interest the Company maintain several institutions such as savings banks and benefit societies, and have also built numerous workmen's dwellings.

As regards the Company's connection with Egypt, it need scarcely be mentioned that all the vessels which pass through the Suez Canal touch at Port Said. There are also special services between Marseilles, Egypt, Syria, Turkey, and the Black Sea, the various itineraries including Alexandria, Port Said, Jaffa, Beyrout, Smyrna, Rhodes, Piræus, the Dardanelles, Constantinople, Odessa, and Batoum. The Alexandria offices of the Company are situated in the Rue de l'Eglise Debanne ; whilst the Port Said agency is on the Quai François-Joseph.

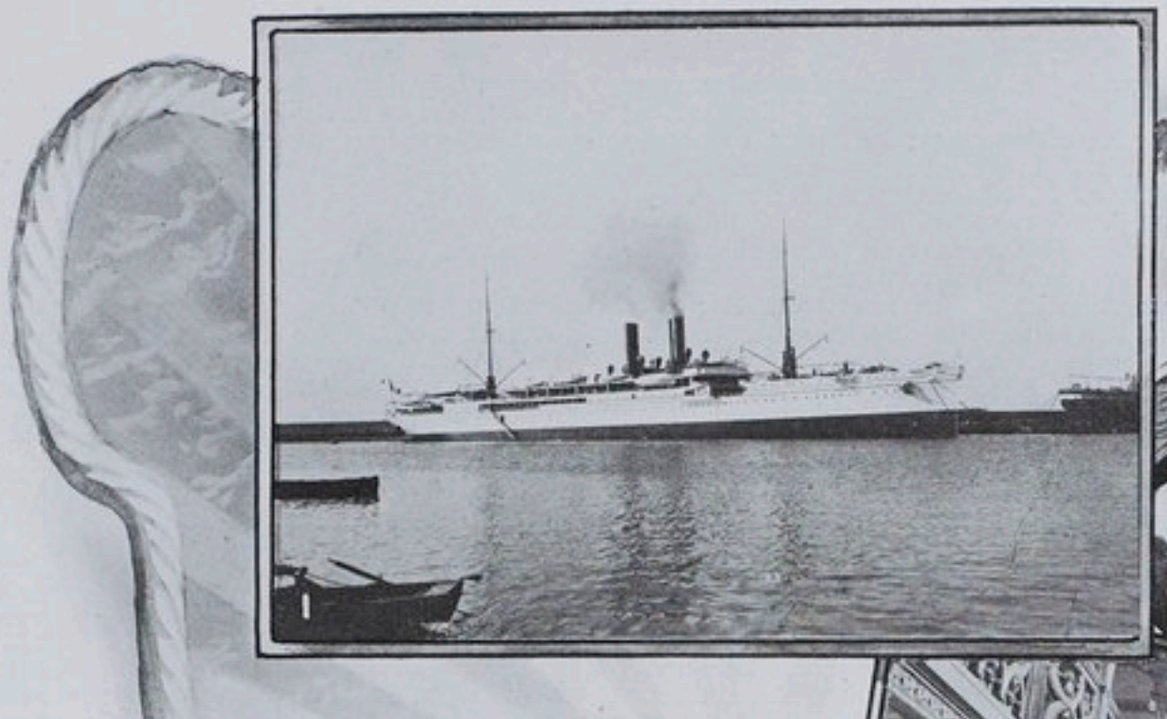
In conclusion may be given the names of the vessels on the principal routes touching Egypt. The service in the Mediterranean and the Black Sea are maintained by the *Portugal*, *Saghalien*, *Equateur*, *Orénoque*, *Congo*, *Niger*, *Sénégal*, *Dordogne*, *Médoc*, *Malapan*, *Cordouan*, *Bosphore*, *Crimée*, *Danube*, *Douro*, *Guadiana*, *Bagdad*, *Memphis*, and *Sidon*, which have a total of nearly 122,482 tons of displacement. Those operating the Indo-China and annexe lines are the *Armand-Béhic*, *Polynésien*, *Tonkin*, *Tourane*, *Ernest-Simons*, *Salazie*, *Océanien*, *Calédonien*, *Dupleix*, *la Seyne*, *Sontay*, *Euphrate*, *Gange*, *El Kantara*, *Louqsor*, *Himalaya*, *Sinai*, *Kouang-Si*, *Yunnan*, *Annam*, *Mei-nam*, and *Pei-Ho*, altogether of about 125,000 tons gross. On the Australian and New Caledonian run are the *Australien*, *Ville de la Ciotat*, *Dumbea*, *Néra*, *Yarra*, *Sydney*, and *Pacifique*, which aggregate about 56,000 tons.

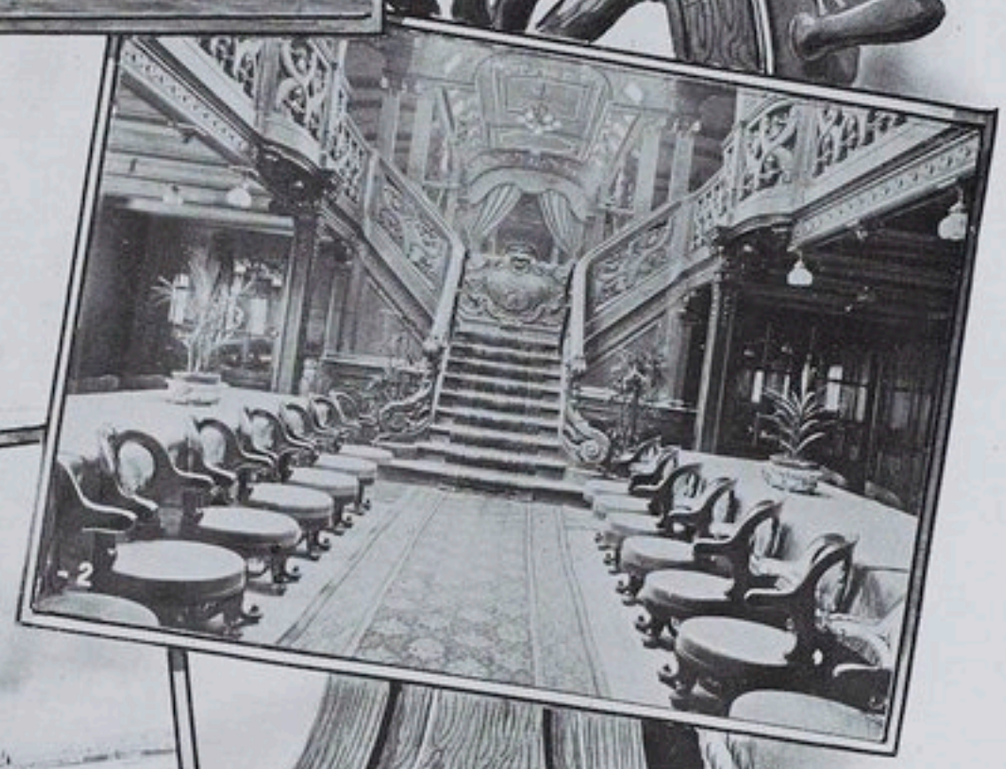
Fondèe en 1851, pour assurer le service postal dans la Méditerranée, autrefois effectué par des navires appartenant au Gouvernement, la Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes est la plus ancienne et la plus importante des entreprises de ce genre battant pavillon français. La Compagnie participa au transport des troupes pour la Crimée en 1854, et en reconnaissance des services qu'elle rendit en cette occasion, elle obtint le monopole des services postaux entre la France, Tunis et Alger, qu'elle exerça pendant quinze années. En 1860, la ligne postale via Portugal, pour le Sénégal, le Brésil et La Plata, fut établie ; et en 1862, on inaugura les relations avec l'Indo-Chine, et les ports de la Chine, relations étendues quelque temps après au Japon. En 1882, la Compagnie, en coopération avec le Gouvernement, reconnut la nécessité d'établir des relations commerciales directes entre la France et la Nouvelle Calédonie, avec escales dans les ports australiens ; et plus tard une autre ligne fut créée, pour desservir la côte Orientale d'Afrique, Madagascar, La Réunion et Maurice. Toutes ces lignes ont Marseille, où sont situés les bureaux principaux de la Compagnie, comme port d'attache, à l'exception de celles de l'Amérique du Sud, qui partent de Bordeaux. Sur ce réseau principal de lignes postales, ont été greffés, au fur et à mesure des besoins grandissants du commerce, d'autres services, à la fois facultatifs et obligatoires, effectués au moyen de cargo-boats et de vapeurs postaux intermédiaires.

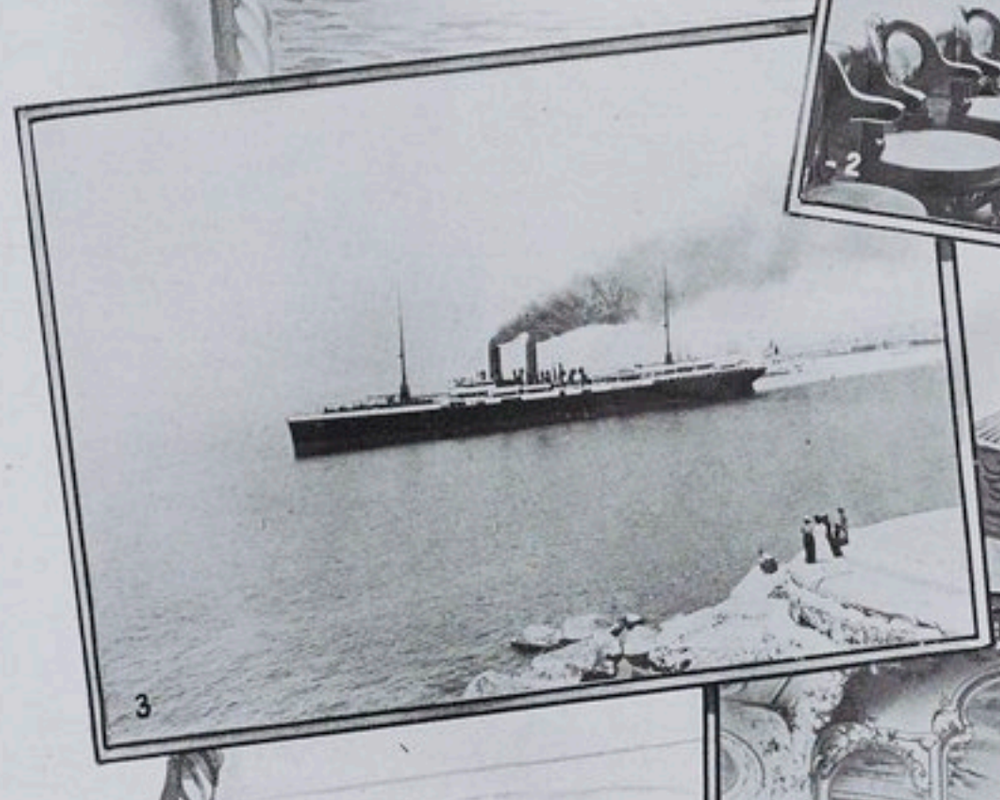
Actuellement la flotte comprend 66 navires variant de 1.400 a environ 7.000 tonnes de jauge brute, et neuf chaloupes à vapeur. Beaucoup de ces navires ont été construits par la Compagnie, dans ses propres ateliers à La Ciotat, aux Bouches du Rhône, et il y a un contraste frappant entre les magnifiques navires à deux hélices, de 150 mètres de long, qui ont été lancés actuellement, et le premier navire mis à l'eau par la Compagnie, le *Périclès*, vapeur à aubes, de 46 mètres de longueur tout au plus. Les nouveaux bateaux réunissent, tant par leur perfection que par le fini des détails les plus minutieux, tous les derniers perfectionnements en vue d'assurer le bien-être et la sécurité des passagers.

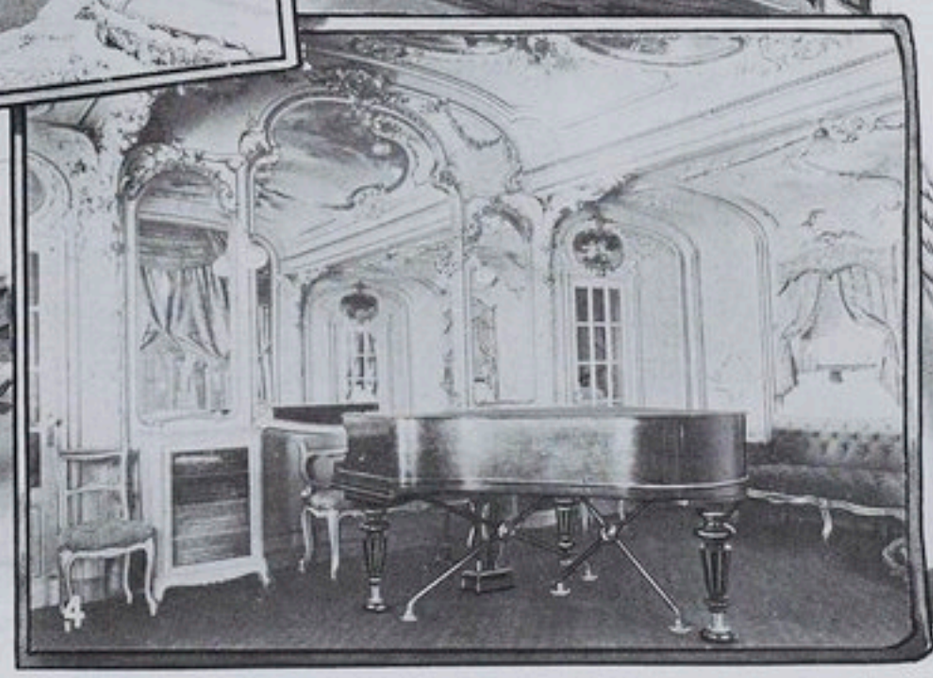
Pour donner une idée du développement de la Compagnie, on doit ajouter que la distance totale annuelle couverte par la flotte s'est élevée de 112.000 lieues (une lieue = deux milles anglais et demi) à environ 1.000.000 de lieues. Une entreprise si importante nécessite l'emploi d'un personnel considérable, composé des éléments les plus divers, tant à terre que sur mer. Ce personnel se monte à environ onze mille personnes, et dans leur intérêt, la Compagnie a créée diverses institutions, telles qu'une caisse d'épargne, et des Sociétés de Bienfaisance, tandisqu'elle construisait de nombreuses maisons ouvrières.

Pour ce qui concerne les rapports de la Compagnie avec l'Egypte, il est à peine nécessaire de dire que tous les navires qui transitent le Canal de Suez, touchent à Port Said. Il existe des services spéciaux entre Marseille, l'Egypte, la Syrie, la Turquie, et la mer Noire ; les itinéraires variés comprennent Alexandrie, Port Said, Jaffa, Beyrouth, Smyrne, Rhodes, Le Pirée, les Dardanelles,



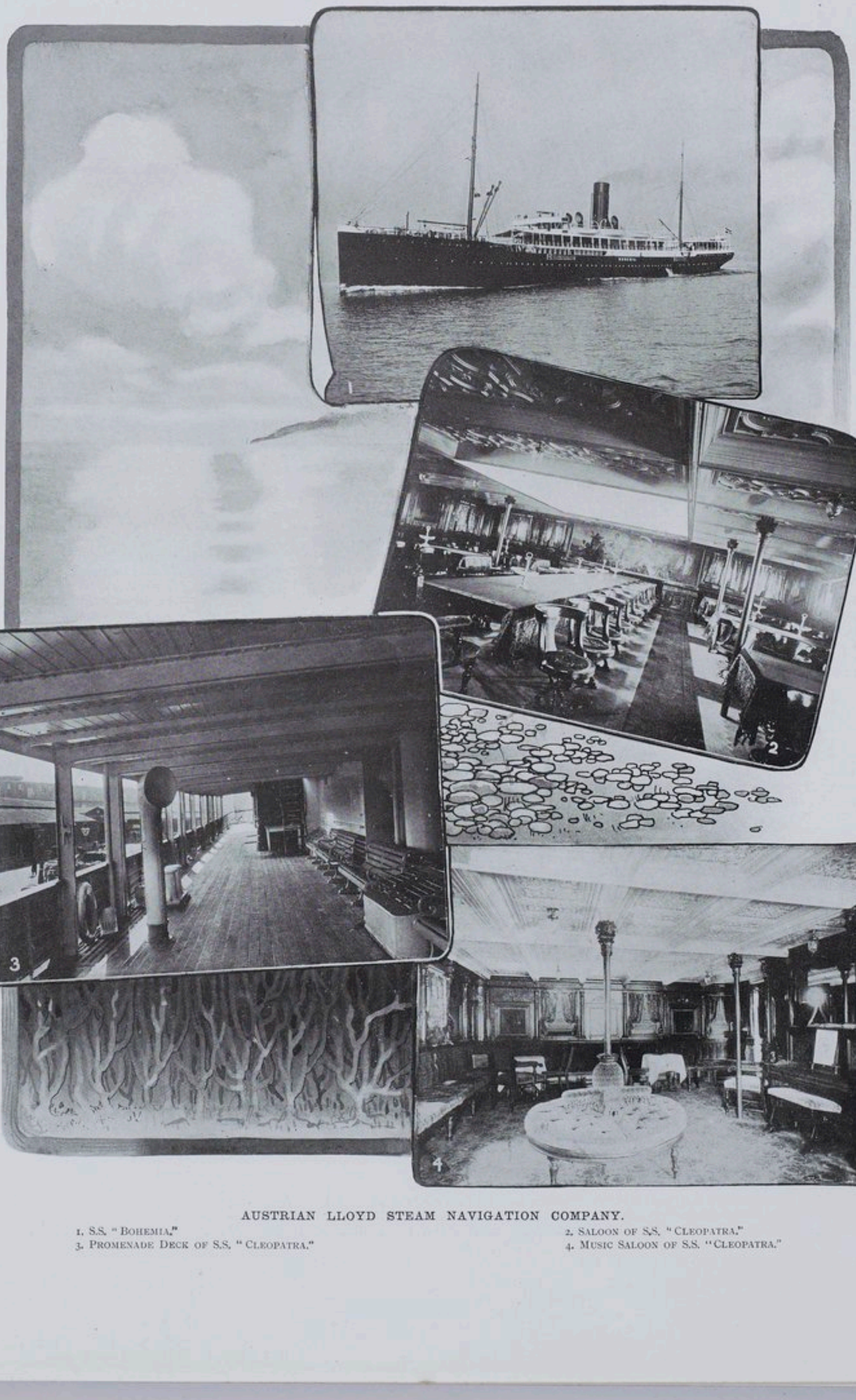






COMPAGNIE DES MESSAGERIES MARITIMES.

1. S.S. "Magellan" ex "Indus" at La Ciotat.
2. Saloon, S.S. "Magellan."
3. S.S. "Atlantique" leaving Marseilles.
4. Music Room, S.S. "Amazone."



AUSTRIAN LLOYD STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

1. S.S. "Bohemia."
2. Saloon of S.S. "Cleopatra."
3. Promenade Deck of S.S. "Cleopatra."
4. Music Saloon of S.S. "Cleopatra."

Constantinople, Odessa et Batoum. Les Bureaux de la Compagnie à Alexandrie sont situés dans la rue de l'Eglise Debanne, tandisque ceux de l'Agence de Port Said sont sur le Quai François Joseph.

Pour conclure, on doit donner le nom des navires qui voyagent sur les principales lignes touchant l'Egypte. Le service de la Méditerranée et de la mer Noire est effectué par le *Portugal*, *Saghalien*, *Equateur*, *Orénoque*, *Congo*, *Niger*, *Sénégal*, *Dordogne*, *Médoc*, *Malapan*, *Cordouan*, *Bosphore*, *Crimée*, *Danube*, *Douro*, *Gaudiana*, *Bagdad*, *Memphis*, et *Sidon* dont le déplacement total est de 122.482 tonnes environ. Les paquebots qui sont sur la ligne de Chine, et les lignes annexes, sont les suivants : *Armand-Béhic*, *Polynésien*, *Tonkin*, *Tourane*, *Ernest-Simons*, *Salazie*, *Océanien*, *Calédonien*, *Dupleix*, *La Seyne*, *Sontay*, *Euphrate*, *Gange*, *El Kantara*, *Louqsor*, *Himalaya*, *Sinai*, *Koung-Si*, *Yunnan*, *Annam*, *Mei-nam*, et *Pei-Ho* d'ensemble 125.000 tonnes. Sur les lignes d'Australie et de la Nouvelle Calédonie voyagent les vapeurs : *Australien*, *Ville de la Ciotat*, *Dumbéa*, *Néra*, *Yarra*, *Sydney*, et *Pacifique* dont le déplacement atteint 56.000 tonnes.

AUSTRIAN LLOYD STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

LIKE its namesake, the great English Marine Insurance concern, the Austrian Lloyd No. 1 Section, established in 1833, is equally an underwriting association, taking marine risks. The No. 2 Section, a Steam Navigation Company, was floated in 1836, and from the first it has received the steady patronage of the Austrian Government and of influential merchants.

Thanks to continuous intelligent and energetic management, it has ever been true to its motto "Vorwarts!" ("forward!"), and from modest beginnings, when six paddle-steamers of only 2,200 gross register tonnage comprised the whole fleet, the Company now boasts some seventy-four vessels, aggregating 230,000 tons and including many high-speed steamers of the most modern type. In the first twenty-five years of its existence attention was mainly directed to the development of the steamer lines to Venice, Ancona, Dalmatia, and Albania, to the principal ports of the Mediterranean coast, the Black Sea, and the Lower Danube, where the Company's first steamer arrived in May, 1848, and to Alexandria, whence were made overland transshipments to India. During the same period the Company also built their own docks and shipbuilding yards. After the opening of the Suez Canal, regular lines to Bombay, Colombo, the Straits Settlements and Hongkong were initiated, and the Company now maintain a first-class mail and passenger service to the East, with fortnightly sailings to Bombay and monthly sailings to other ports. By 1879, after the close of the Russo-Turkish war, the Austrian Lloyd had acquired a commanding position in the Levant, and their fleet had been so increased that they were able to detach as many as twenty vessels to operate the transport of 155,000 Mahomedan emigrants from European Turkey to Asia Minor, without interfering with any of the regular lines. Traffic was extended to the Brazilian ports—Pernambuco, Rio de Janeiro, and Santos—with occasional trips to the La Plata River, in 1882; and some ten years later the Indo-China service was carried to Shanghai and the Japan ports.

Special care has always been given to the weekly express mail and passenger service between Trieste, Brindisi, and Alexandria, which connects outwards and homewards with the best trans-Continental express trains. Even now, this line offers perhaps the easiest and quickest connection between Central Europe and Egypt, but when the Tauern Railway is opened (probably during 1909) Alexandria will be brought within ninety-eight hours of London. The Austrian Lloyd make it a point to have their best and fastest ships, as well as their most experienced captains, on this run. Passengers have the further advantage that the route lies through the lovely Ionian Isles, so that they enjoy delightful scenery as well as a smooth passage; while in the months from February to July inclusive the homeward-bound boats make a call at Venice in order to give additional variation to the journey and favour passengers who are bound to England, France, Switzerland, and the north of Italy. A second weekly mail line between Trieste and Alexandria gives outward-bound tourists the opportunity of visiting several interesting but little known parts of the Austrian coast, in spending a week's time at Gravosa and the ancient city of Ragusa. The Bocche di Cattaro, the Falls of Kerka River, Mastar, Saraievo, and Spalato, with the ruins of the Palace of Diocletian are all within easy reach, either by rail or in one of the Company's numerous coasting steamers in those waters.

This line, after calling at Alexandria, proceeds to Syria, Caramania, and Cyprus. The trip to Egypt is hardly complete without a visit to Palestine. The return ticket to Beyrout costs only about two hundred francs, and the passenger is at liberty to break the journey at Jaffa and at Haifa. Jerusalem is a few hours distant by rail from Jaffa; while from Haifa, Tiberias and many other places rich in Biblical associations may be visited. The port of Beyrout is the starting point for Damascus, Baalbeck, and Lebanon, the beauty of which is proverbial.

In addition to the ordinary steamers, the Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company own a pleasure yacht of 3,188 tons and 2,554 horse-power. The *Thalia*, as she is called, has accommodation for 166 passengers, and makes from ten to fourteen trips in the course of the year, with continually varied programmes.

The supreme management of the Company is in the hands of a board of directors, consisting of nine members, of whom three are nominated by the Ministry of Commerce and six by the shareholders. The chairman is chosen by H.M. the Emperor from among the Government's nominees. The duty of the official element is to see that the Company duly discharge their obligations to the Government, for, in addition to carrying out their mail contract, the Company are liable to be called upon to furnish vessels for the transport of troops at pre-established freight rates, the Austrian Lloyd fleet thus forming a transport fleet in reserve. The chairman and four members of the board reside at Trieste, and the remaining four at Vienna; and the sittings of the board, which are attended by a special delegate from the Ministry of Commerce, are held at either centre alternately. The executive business is entrusted to a general manager, assisted by the heads of the commercial, naval, technical, and administrative departments.

The Company's present head manager for Egypt and the Soudan is Mr. H. Von Pitner, Rue Rosette, Alexandria.

COMME son homonyme, la grande Compagnie anglaise d'assurances maritimes, le Lloyd autrichien, Section No. 1, constitué en 1833 est aussi une société d'assurances, couvrant les risques maritimes. La Section No. 2, qui est une compagnie de navigation, fut fondée en 1836, et dès le commencement, elle obtint le patronnage du Gouvernement autrichien, ainsi que d'un grand nombre d'hommes d'affaires influents.

Grâce à une direction toujours intelligente et énergique, elle a donné raison à sa devise "Vorwarts" (en avant) et avec de modestes débuts, quand sa flotte se composait de six paquebots à aubes de 2.200 tonnes seulement, la Compagnie possède actuellement 74 navires d'ensemble 230.000 tonnes, y compris un grand nombre de paquebots très rapides, du type le plus moderne. Pendant les 25 premières années de son existence, l'activité de la Compagnie se porta principalement sur le développement des lignes à destination de Venise, Ancône, de la Dalmatie et de l'Albanie, des principaux ports de la Méditerranée, de la mer Noire et du Danube inférieur, où le premier vapeur de la Compagnie arriva en Mai 1848, ainsi que d'Alexandrie, d'où le transbordement pour les Indes était effectué par voie de terre. Pendant la même période, la Compagnie construisit également ses propres docks et ses arsenaux. Après l'ouverture du canal de Suez, des lignes régulières pour Bombay, Colombo, Singapore et Hong Kong étaient ouvertes et la Compagnie possède actuellement un service de passagers et de marchandises pour l'Extrême Orient, avec des départs bi-mensuels pour Bombay, et mensuels pour les autres ports. En 1879, à la fin de la guerre Russo-Turque, le Lloyd acquit une position importante dans le Levant, et sa flotte avait été tellement augmentée qu'il lui était possible d'envoyer une vingtaine de navires effectuer le transport de 150.000 émigrants musulmans, de la Turquie d'Europe en Asie Mineure, sans troubler en quoi que ce soit le service de ses lignes régulières. Le trafic fut étendu aux ports brésiliens de Pernambouco, Rio de Janeiro et Santos, avec des escales facultatives à la Plata en 1882, et environ 10 ans plus tard, le service de l'Indo-Chine fut continué jusqu'à Shanghai et aux ports du Japon. Une attention spéciale est toujours apportée au service hebdomadaire des passagers entre Trieste, Brindisi et Alexandrie, service qui coïncide, au départ et à l'arrivée, avec les meilleurs express transcontinentaux. En ce moment cette ligne offre peut-être la voie la plus rapide et la plus commode pour les relations entre l'Europe Centrale et l'Egypte; mais quand le chemin de fer du Tauern sera en exploitation (sans doute dans le courant de 1909) Alexandrie sera à 98 heures de Londres. Le Lloyd autrichien se fait un devoir de mettre ses meilleurs et ses plus rapides navires ainsi que ses capitaines les plus expérimentés sur cette ligne. Les passagers ont de plus l'avantage de suivre une route qui passe à travers les charmantes îles Ioniennes, ce qui leur procure avec le plaisir de contempler des paysages charmants, une traversée facile et agréable. Durant les mois de Février à Juillet inclusivement, les navires qui retournent en Europe font escale à Venise pour donner un nouvel attrait au voyage, et être agréables aux passagers qui se rendent en Angleterre, en France, en Suisse, et dans le nord de l'Italie. Une seconde ligne hebdomadaire entre Trieste et Alexandrie, donne aux touristes à destination de l'étranger la facilité de visiter quelques endroits intéressants mais peu connus sur la côte autrichienne, en dépensant une huitaine de jours à Gravosa et à l'ancienne ville de Ragusa. Les Bocche di Cattaro, les chûtes de la Kerka, Mastar, Saraievo, et Spalato, ainsi que les ruines du palais de

Dioclétien, sont autant de sites faciles à visiter soit par chemin de fer, soit par un des nombreux bateaux côtiers de la Compagnie dans ces eaux. Cette ligne, après avoir touché Alexandrie, poursuit vers la Syrie, Caramanie et Chypre. Le voyage en Egypte n'est guère complet sans une visite en Palestine. Le billet de retour par Beyrouth coûte à peine deux cents francs environ, et le passager a la facilité d'interrompre le voyage à Jaffa et à Caiffa. Jérusalem est à quelques heures de chemin de fer de Jaffa, tandis que de Caiffa, il est aisé de visiter la Tiberiade et plusieurs autres sites riches en souvenirs Bibliques. Le port de Beyrouth est le po'nt de départ pour Damas, Balbeck et Le Liban, dont les beautés sont proverbiales. En dehors des bateaux ordinaires le Lloyd autrichien possède un yacht de plaisance jaugeant 3.188 tonnes, et développant 2.554 chevaux. Le *Thalia*, c'est son nom, est aménagé pour porter 166 passagers et fait de dix à quatorze voyages dans le cours d'une année, avec un itinéraire continuellement varié. La haute direction de la Compagnie est entre les mains d'un Conseil de Directeurs, composé de neuf membres, dont trois sont nommés par le Ministre du Commerce et six par les actionnaires. Le Président est choisi par S.M. l'Empereur parmi des candidats proposés par le Gouvernement. L'élément officiel a mission de veiller à ce que la Compagnie remplisse ses engagements envers le Gouvernement, car en dehors de ceux relatifs au transport de la poste, la Compagnie peut être appelée à fournir ses navires pour les transports de troupes à des conditions établies à l'avance, le Lloyd autrichien formant ainsi une flotte de transports de réserve.

Le Président et quatre membres du Conseil d'Administration résident à Trieste ; les quatre autres à Vienne ; et les séances du Conseil, qui sont suivies par un délégué spécial du Ministre du Commerce, sont tenues alternativement dans chacune de ces deux villes. La Direction des affaires est confiée à un Directeur Général secondé par les Chefs des services commercial, naval, technique et administratif.

Le Directeur Général de la Compagnie pour l'Egypte et le Soudan est M. H. von Pitner, Rue Rosette, Alexandrie.

HECTOR VON PITNER, who has been in charge of the Alexandria business of the Austrian Lloyd Steam Navigation Company since 1895, joined the Company in 1878, after having attained the rank of Lieutenant in the Austrian Navy. From the position of Assistant Naval Inspector he was promoted to be Travelling Inspector and Agent-General, and finally to his present appointment. Born in 1849, at Castle Brunnsee, in Styria, Austria, he entered the Naval Academy in 1863, and three years later joined the Imperial and Royal Navy. He saw active service under Admiral W. V. Thegetthof at the Battle of Lissa, and for his valour upon this occasion he received the silver medal for the engagement. He is a Knight of the Order of the Iron Crown of Austria, a Knight Commander of the Order of Osmanieh, and a Knight Commander of the Order of Mejidieh.

Hector Von Pitner, qui dirige l'Agence d'Alexandrie de la Compagnie de Navigation du Lloyd Autrichien depuis 1895, est entré au service de la dite Société en 1878, après avoir atteint le grade de lieutenant de vaisseau dans la marine autrichienne. D'inspecteur naval adjoint qu'il était, il fut promu au poste d'inspecteur-voyageur, puis d'agent général, et finalement à celui qu'il occupe aujourd'hui. Né en 1849 à Castle Brunnsee, en Styrie (Autriche), il entra à l'Académie Navale en 1863, et trois ans après il s'enrôla dans la Marine Impériale et Royale. Il était en activité de service sous les ordres de l'Amiral W. V. Thegetthof à la bataille de Lissa, et pour la valeur qu'il déploya en cette occasion il reçut la médaille d'argent commémorative de la bataille. Il est Chevalier de l'Ordre de la Couronne de Fer d'Autriche, Commandeur de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh, et Commandeur de l'Ordre du Mejidieh.

LA COMPAGNIE RUSSE DE NAVIGATION À VAPEUR.

The Compagnie Russe de Navigation à Vapeur et de Commerce were created in 1857 on the initiative of Admiral Arcas and Mr. N. Novoselsky, and, thanks to the support of the Russian Government, they have made rapid progress. Their capital, which was originally 6,000,000 roubles, stands to-day at 21,000,000 ; and their fleet, which at the time of the inauguration of their services consisted of five vessels purchased from the Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes, to-day numbers seventy-four vessels, of which thirty-six are mail boats, nine are passenger boats with cargo-holds, twenty-three are cargo steamers, and six are tugs.

Independently of the regular services which they established between the various Russian ports in the Black Sea and the foreign ports in that region, the Company organised on the Australia and Alexandria lines a circular service, which placed Russia into direct communication with the ports of Egypt and the Levant. In 1869 two of the finest vessels of the Company took part in the inauguration of the Suez Canal, and a year later a service was established between Odessa and the chief ports of China and the East Indies.

During the last Russo-Turkish War the Russian Minister of Marine chartered four of the Company's steamers for service as cruisers in the Black Sea, and after the war the Company undertook the transport of 138,000 soldiers and 22,000 horses to and from various ports in the Black Sea and the Sea of Marmora.

The Company have large dockyards at Sebastopol, where, besides constructing several fast vessels for their own use, they have launched three large cruisers and numerous gunboats for the Russian Government. The vessels constructed at these dockyards are remarkable for their speed and comfort.

In 1891 the Company renewed their contract with the Government, and by the terms of the new agreement undertook to maintain the following services :—(1) A direct line to Alexandria, with a weekly service between Odessa and Alexandria *viâ* Constantinople, the Dardanelles, and Piræus ; (2) a circular line to Syria and Egypt, giving fortnightly services between Odessa and Alexandria, with calls at Constantinople, the Dardanelles, Smyrna, Chios, Tripoli, Beyrout, Jaffa, and Port Said ; (3) a line to Anatolia ; (4) a weekly service between Sebastopol and Constantinople ; (5) a direct weekly service between Odessa and the Crimean and Caucasian ports ; and (6) a circular line between the Crimean and Caucasian ports. Besides these obligatory services the Company run various other services, but it will suffice to mention the fortnightly service to Syria and Egypt, making with the one already mentioned a weekly service between the ports of Odessa, Constantinople, the Dardanelles, Smyrna, Chios, Tripoli, Beyrout, Jaffa, Port Said, and Alexandria ; and the lines running respectively to St. Petersburg, to Vladivostock, and the principal ports of the Far East, and to the ports of the Persian Gulf.

The fast direct service between Odessa and Alexandria is maintained by six magnificent steamers, fitted with every modern comfort. They are the *Tchikhatchoff* the *Empereur Nicolas II.*, the *Reine Olga*, each of 7,000 tons and of 3,400 i.h.p., and the *Odessa*, of 7,000 tons and of 3,600 i.h.p. The first three have accommodation for 65 first class and 39 second class passengers, and the *Odessa* for 71 first and 56 second class passengers. The other two vessels are the *Tsaritsa*, of 6,000 tons and 2,250 i.h.p, with accommodation for 42 first and 25 second class passengers, and the *Tsar*, of 4,200 tons, and 1,800 i.h.p., with accommodation for 34 first and 32 second class passengers.

At Odessa the Company possess a floating dock, a graving dock, extensive workshops, and a steam saw-mill. They have recently constructed new dockyards, those at Sebastopol having been ceded to the Government ; and with the increased facilities which these will afford, the Company's development is certain to be maintained.

The affairs of the Company are administered from St. Petersburg ; the general direction of the exploitation of the various routes is centred at Odessa ; while agents and correspondents are established in all ports of call and in many important business and shipping centres. The agents in Egypt are V. Reidemeister, No. 1, Rue St. Mark, Alexandria ; H. Bronn, Port Said ; G. Alchevsky, Cairo ; and Georges Rini, Suez ; while Weber & Co., represent the Company at Port Soudan.

La Compagnie Russe de Navigation à Vapeur et de Commerce fut créée en 1857 sur l'initiative de l'Amiral Arcas et de Monsieur N. Novoselsky ; et grâce à l'appui du Gouvernement Russe, elle fit de rapides progrès. Le capital qui à l'origine se montait a 6.000.000 de roubles atteint aujourd'hui le chiffre de 21.000.000, et leur service rapide lequel au temps de l'inauguration de leur service consistait en cinq vaisseaux achetés à la Compagnie des Messageries Maritimes, aujourd'hui compte 64 vaisseaux, desquels 36 sont pour le transport de la poste, neuf des bateaux de passagers avec leurs bagages, 23 steamers cargo et six sont des remorqueurs.

Indépendamment de leur service régulier établi entre les différents ports de Russie, situés dans la mer Noire et les ports étrangers de cette région, la Compagnie organisa entre l'Anatolie et Alexandrie un service de lignes circulaires, lequel place la Russie en communication directe avec les ports d'Egypte et du Levant.

En 1869, deux des meilleurs vaisseaux de la Compagnie prirent part à l'inauguration du Canal de Suez, et l'année suivante un service fut établi entre Odessa et les premiers ports de Chine et les Etats du Sud.

Durant la dernière guerre Russo-Turque, le Ministère de la Marine Russe designa quatre bateaux de la Compagnie pour un service de croisière dans la mer Noire, et après la guerre, la Compagnie effectua le transport de 138.000 soldats et 20.000 chevaux de, et, pour les différents ports de la mer Noire et de la mer de Marmora.

La Compagnie a de grands arsenaux à Sébastopol, où en plus des diverses constructions des vaisseaux de tout genre pour leur propre usage, ils ont lancé trois grands croiseurs et de nombreuses canonnières pour le Gouvernement Russe.

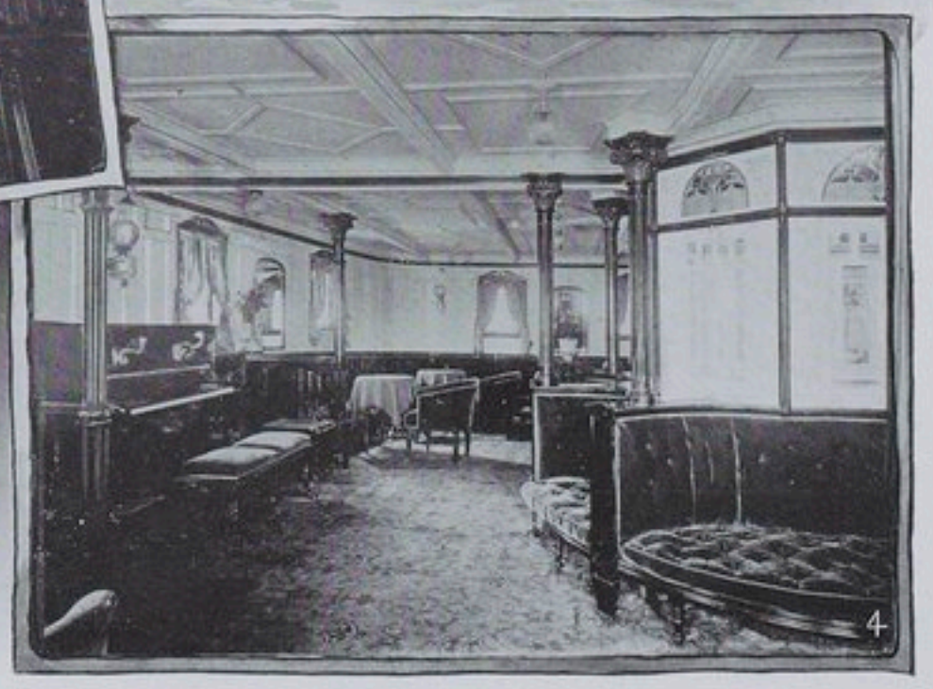
RUSSIAN STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY, LTD.

1. S.S. "Imperator Nicolai II."
2. Promenade Deck.
3. Drawing Room.
4. The Saloon.









THE KHEDIVIAL MAIL STEAMSHIP AND GRAVING DOCK COMPANY, LTD.

1. S.S. "Osmanieh."
2. Dining Saloon.
3. Companion Way.
4. Music Saloon.

Les vaisseaux construits dans ces arsenaux sont remarquables par leur disposition et par leur confort. En 1891 la Compagnie renouvela son contrat avec le Gouvernement, et avec les termes de la nouvelle disposition afin de maintenir les services suivants :

1° Une ligne directe d'Alexandrie avec service hebdomadaire entre Odessa et Alexandrie, voie Constantinople, les Dardanelles et le Pirée.

2° Une ligne circulaire entre la Syrie et l'Egypte avec service de nuit entre Odessa et Alexandrie ; avec escales à Constantinople, les Dardanelles, Smyrne, Chio, Tripoli, Beirout, Jaffa et Port Saïd.

3° Une ligne dans l'Anatolie.

4° Un service hebdomadaire entre Sébastopol et Constantinople.

5° Un service hebdomadaire direct entre Odessa, la Crimée, et les ports Caucasiens.

6° Une ligne circulaire entre la Crimée et les ports Caucasiens.

Devant ces services obligatoires la Compagnie rend d'autres services variés, mais il suffira de mentionner le service de nuit de Syrie et d'Egypte faisant avec le service hebdomadaire déjà mentionné un service hebdomadaire entre les ports, Odessa, Constantinople, les Dardanelles, Smyrne, Chio, Tripoli, Beirout, Jaffa, Port Saïd et Alexandrie ; et les lignes desservant respectivement St. Pétersbourg, Vladivostock et les principaux ports de l'Extrême Orient de même que ceux du Golfe Persique.

Le magnifique service direct entre Odessa et Alexandrie est couvert par six superbes bateaux accommodés avec tout les conforts modernes ; ce sont : 1° Le *Tchikhatchoff*, *l'Empereur Nicolas II.*, la *Reine Olga* ; chacun de 7.000 tonnes et 3.600 i.h.p. Le premier de ces trois bateaux possède les arrangements nécessaires pour transporter 65 voyageurs de premières classes et 39 de secondes. *L'Odessa* a de la place pour 71 voyageurs de premières classes et 56 de secondes classes.

Les autres deux bateaux sont la *Tsaritsa*, de 6.000 tonnes et 2.250 i.h.p. avec dispositions pour 42 premières classes et 25 secondes ; enfin le *Tsar* de 4.200 tonnes et 1.800 i.h.p. avec la place nécessaire pour 34 voyageurs de premières classes et 32 de secondes.

A Odessa la Compagnie possède un chantier flottant et une cale sèche ainsi qu'un très grand service. Dernièrement d'autres chantiers furent construits, ceux de Sébastopol ayant été cédés au Gouvernement, tout fut refait avec les plus grandes facilités ce qui assure à la Compagnie le développement continuel dans la marche des affaires.

Les intérêts de la Compagnie sont administrées à St. Pétersbourg ; la direction de l'exploitation des différentes routes est installée à Odessa, tandis que des agents et correspondants sont établis dans les ports cités et dans les nombreux et importants centres d'affaires et d'embarquement.

Les agents en Egypte sont : V. Reidmeister, No. 1, rue St. Mark, Alexandrie ; H. Brown, Port Saïd ; G. Alchévsicy au Caire, et Georges Rini à Suez, pendant que L. Weber et Compagnie représentent la Compagnie à Port Soudan.

KHEDIVIAL MAIL STEAMSHIP AND GRAVING DOCK, LIMITED.

THIS Company was incorporated in May, 1898, to take over the steamers belonging to the Paquebôt-Poste Khedivieh, which was formerly a branch of the Egyptian Government Mail Service. The promoters were Messrs. F. Allen and G. B. Alderson, of the firm of Messrs. Allen, Alderson & Co., Alexandria, and Mr. F. Reddaway, of F. Reddaway & Co., Ltd., Manchester. These gentlemen, with Sir Auckland Colvin, a former financial adviser to the Egyptian Government, as chairman ; Sir John Stokes, one of the directors of the Suez Canal ; and Mr. John Temperley, a London ship owner, formed the original directorate. The capital consisted of £200,000 in preferred shares, £100,000 in ordinary shares, and £100,000 in 4½ per cent. debentures.

The Company took over a fleet of eleven steamers, together with warehouses, quays, engineering shops, and a floating dock at Alexandria ; and quays, a masonry graving dock, and engineering works at Suez ; besides other properties included in the concession.

The Company undertook to construct at Alexandria a masonry graving dock on land granted by the Government. This dock, which has an extreme length of 520 feet, a breadth at entrance of 64 feet, and a depth at sill of 23 feet, was duly constructed and was re-purchased by the Government in 1903. The dimensions of the iron floating dock at Alexandria are as follow :—Extreme length, 463 feet ; breadth at entrance, 79 feet ; height of water on keel blocks, 18 feet. The dock has a lifting power of 8 tons per lineal foot. The masonry graving dock at Suez is 406 feet in length, and 73 feet 10 inches in breadth, and has a height of 22 feet 8 inches of water on the keel blocks. Two floating cranes, with a lifting power of 20 tons and 25 tons respectively, are available at Alexandria and Suez, and at both ports the Company have experienced staffs, together with every appliance for the expeditious execution of all kinds of castings and general marine repairs. An experienced diver and all necessary apparatus for salvage operations are kept at Suez ready for immediate use.

By successive additions the Company's fleet has been increased to twenty-one vessels, with a total of 38,682 tons gross register, as follow :—

	Tons.	Knots.	Passenger Accommodation. 1st class.	2nd cls.
Osmanieh (twin-screw)	4,040	18	142	76
Prince Abbas	2,200	16	70	40
El Kahira	2,200	16	70	40
Ismailia	3,700	14	120	70
Saidieh	3,300	12	64	40
Minieh	2,900	12	46	48
Assouan	2,800	12	43	25
Kosseir	1,890	13	48	30
Dakahlieh	1,700	13	50	30
Menzaleh	1,700	12	32	21
Tantah	1,751	12	18	20
Mariout	1,700	12	38	29
Mansourah	1,445	12	21	14
Rahmanieh	1,750	11	36	36
Keneh	1,580	11	40	40
Mahallah	1,250	11	19	15
Missir	800	10	32	10
Neghileh	800	10	32	12
Gharbieh	650	9	21	12
Galioubieh	400	9	8	2
Yambo	Distilling Steamer.			

The *Osmanieh*, which was specially built in 1906, is luxuriously appointed, and, with the ss. *Ismailia*, maintains the Company's fast weekly service between Alexandria, Piræus, Smyrna, Mitylene, and Constantinople in connection with the Oriental Railway Company's express service to all parts of Europe. A fortnightly service between Alexandria and Constantinople, leaving the terminal ports every second Saturday, and a service on the intervening Saturdays between Alexandria and Mersina, provide a weekly service in each direction to Port Said, Jaffa, Caiffa, Beyrout, Tripoli, Alexandretta, and Mersina ; and a fortnightly service to Rhodes, Chios, Smyrna, Mitylene, the Dardanelles, and Gallipoli. Between Suez, Port Soudan, and Suakin the Company runs an express weekly service in connection with the Soudan Government Railway mail service to Khartoum, this route affording the quickest means of communication with Khartoum, the Nile Valley, and the interior of the Soudan. From Suez the Company's steamers run on alternate Mondays to Jeddah, Port Soudan, Suakin, Massowah, Hodeidah, and Aden, whilst another fortnightly service is maintained between Suez, Tor, El Wedj, Yambo, and Jeddah.

During the summer months many residents in Egypt who cannot spare more than a few weeks for their vacation take advantage of the cheap circular trips in the Levant, organised by the Khedivial Mail Line. The first port of call in Palestine is Jaffa, or Joppa, to give it its Scriptural name, where may be seen the houses of Simon the tanner, with whom St. Peter lodged, and of Dorcas, who was given to all good works. The experience of landing in a surf-boat at this port is one never to be forgotten. Approaching Beyrout, which overlooks a magnificent, sweeping bay, the eye of the traveller is delighted by a view of lofty Lebanon, the "white-mountain"; and, if a few days' leisure are available, a pleasant excursion may be made to the celebrated Cedars, and by way of Damascus, the scene of St. Paul's conversion, to Tripoli, where the next Khedivial mail steamer may be joined. Antioch, an ancient capital of Syria and the birthplace of St. Chrysostom, may be visited from Alexandretta ; while from Mersina an excursion may be made by rail to Tarsus, interesting as the birthplace of St. Paul, and, also, as containing a gigantic ruin, with walls over twenty feet in thickness, known as the Dounouk-Tasch. This is of obscure origin, but is believed by some to be the tomb of Sardanapulus, the last and most luxurious king of Assyria. Smyrna, with its multifarious bazaars, and Mitylene, with its beautiful harbour, are among other places of interest at which the steamers touch, while six days are allowed at Constantinople, affording ample time for a glance at the chief features of the Turkish capital and for a trip up the beautiful Bosphorus. The return journey is made by way of Athens, among the islands of the Ægean Sea, the steamers stopping to allow of a visit to the Acropolis and other sights of Ancient Greece. The entire trip occupies about twenty days, exclusive of special excursions, but including the stay in Constantinople.

The Alexandria offices of the Khedivial Mail Line are situated in the Boulevard de Ramleh, the Port Said Offices are on the Quai François Joseph, and the London Office is at 72, Bishopsgate-street Within. The present Board of Directors consists of Messrs. C. A. Hanson (chairman), Francis Allen, John Temperley, S. Wellhoff, and H. Swinglehurst. The general manager, who resides in Alexandria, is Mr. H. F. C. Parkinson, and the sub-manager is Ahmed Bey Turc. The Company is represented in Port Said by Mr. Georges Royle.

LA Khédivial Mail Steamship and Graving Dock Company, Ltd., fut constituée en Mai

1898 pour acquérir les bateaux à vapeur appartenant aux "Paquebots Poste Khédivieh," qui faisaient jusqu'alors partie du service postal Egyptien. Les promoteurs de l'entreprise furent MM. F. Allen et G. B. Alderson, de la maison Allen, Alderson & Co., d'Alexandrie, et M. F. Reddaway, de la maison F. Reddaway & Co., Ltd., de Manchester, et le premier Conseil de la Société fut formé par ces Messieurs auxquels se joignirent Sir Auckland Colvin, ancien Conseiller du Gouvernement Egyptien, qui fut nommé Président, et Sir John Stokes, un des Directeurs du Canal de Suez, ainsi que M. John Temperley, armateur de Londres. Le capital de la Société s'élève à £300.000—subdivisé comme suit : £200.000—en actions de préférence, et £100.000 en actions ordinaires. Elle a émis en outre £100,000 d'obligations 4½ per cent. La Khédivial Mail Cie. acquit une flotte de onze bateaux à vapeur ainsi que des entrepôts, des quais, des ateliers mécaniques et un dock flottant à Alexandrie, en même temps que des quais, un dock pour réparation en maçonnerie et des ateliers mécaniques à Suez, sans compter d'autres propriétés comprises dans la concession. Elle entreprit la construction à Alexandrie d'un dock de radoub sur un terrain accordé par le Gouvernement. Ce dock, qui est d'une longueur maximum de 520 pieds, d'une largeur à l'ouverture de 64 pieds, et de 23 pieds de calaison, fut dûment construit, et racheté par le Gouvernement en 1903. Les dimensions du dock flottant en fer, que la Compagnie possède à Alexandrie, sont les suivantes : longueur maximum, 463 pieds ; largeur à l'entrée, 79 pieds ; calaison, 18 pieds. Il possède une force de soulèvement de 8 tonnes par pied linéaire. Le dock en maçonnerie de Suez, a 406 pieds de long, 73 pieds 10 pces. de large, et une calaison de 22 pieds 8 pces. Deux grues flottantes d'une force d'élévation respectivement de 20 et 25 tonnes fonctionnent dans les eaux de Suez et d'Alexandrie, et dans ces deux ports la Société peut compter sur un personnel expérimenté ; elle possède en outre tous les moyens pour la prompte exécution de toutes sortes de travaux et de réparations navales. Un plongeur expérimenté muni de tous les appareils nécessaires pour les opérations de sauvetage se tient prêt à Suez à toute éventualité.

La flotte de la Société a été portée à 21 vaisseaux jaugeant un total de 38.682 tonnes, dont le détail, est donné ci-dessus.

L'Osmanieh, qui fut expressément construit en 1906, est luxueusement aménagé et fait avec le ss. *Ismailia*, le service rapide entre Alexandrie, Le Pirée, Smyrne, Mételin, et Constantinople, en correspondance avec les trains de l'Orient Express à destination de toutes les parties de l'Europe. La Compagnie entretient en outre un service bi-mensuel entre Alexandrie et Constantinople, avec départs le Samedi, chaque 15 jours, de chacun des ports susdits, et un service également bi-mensuel entre Alexandrie et Mersine avec départs les Samedis intermédiaires, de façon à offrir un départ hebdomadaire dans la direction de Port Saïd, Jaffa, Caiffa, Beyrouth, Tripoli, Alexandrette, and Mersine, et un service bi-mensuel à destination de Rhôdes, Chio, Smyrne, Mételin, Dardanelles, et Gallipoli. Entre Suez, Port Soudan, et Suakin la Compagnie possède un service direct hebdomadaire en correspondance avec le chemin de fer du Gouvernement du Soudan pour Khartum, cette route offrant le plus rapide moyen de communication avec Khartum, la Vallée du Nil, et l'intérieur du Soudan. De Suez les bateaux de la Compagnie partent chaque deux Lundis pour Djedda, Port Soudan, Suakin, Massawa, Hodeida, et Aden, et un autre service bi-mensuel dessert Suez, Tor, El-Wedi, Yambo, et Djedda.

Durant les mois d'été bon nombre d'Egyptiens qui ne disposent que de quelques semaines de vacances, mettent à profit les voyages circulaires économiques organisés dans le Levant par la Khédivial Mail. Le premier port que l'on touche en Palestine est celui de Jaffa, ou Joppa, selon la dénomination de l'Ecriture Sainte ; on visite dans cette ville les maisons de Simon le Corroyeur, chez lequel demeura St. Pierre, et de Dorcas qui est célèbre dans la Bible pour ses bonnes œuvres. Le débarquement en "surf-boat" dans ce port laisse au voyageur une inoubliable impression. En approchant de Beyrouth qui domine une baie magnifique et étendue, les yeux du touriste sont charmés par la vue du Liban, la "blanche montagne," qui s'élève majestueuse à l'horizon ; et s'il jouit de quelques jours de liberté, il peut entreprendre une agréable excursion vers les cèdres fameux et se rendre par le chemin de Damas (célèbre par la conversion de St. Paul), à Tripoli, pour y rejoindre le prochain bateau de la Khédivial Mail. Le voyageur peut ensuite par Alexandrette visiter l'ancienne capitale de la Syrie, Antioche, qui fut la ville natale de St. Chrysostome ; de même que de Mersine il lui est aisé d'aller en train jusqu'à Tarsous, berceau de St. Paul, ville intéressante pour ses gigantesques ruines, dont les murs atteignent jusqu'à 20 pieds d'épaisseur, connues sous le nom de "Dounouk-Tasch" et dont l'origine est encore obscure. D'aucuns croient qu'on se trouve en présence du tombeau de Sardanapale, le dernier des rois d'Assyrie, à jamais célèbre pour son faste et ses vices. Le paquebot touche en outre, entr'autres ports intéressants, celui de Smyrne, aux nombreux bazars, et celui, si beau, de Mételin. Enfin durant les six jours que le bateau s'arrête à Constantinople le voyageur a suffisamment le temps pour visiter les principales curiosités de la Capitale de la Turquie, et pour faire une excursion sur le magique Bosphore. Le voyage de retour s'accomplit par la voie d'Athènes, parmi les îles de la mer Egée. Le bateau s'arrête pour permettre une visite à l'Acropole, et autres sites de l'ancienne Grèce. Tout le voyage dure environ 20 jours, en comprenant les six jours d'arrêt à Constantinople.

Les bureaux de la Khédivial Mail à Alexandrie sont situés au Boulevard de Ramleh ; ceux de Port Said donnent sur le Quai François-Joseph, et ceux de Londres, 72, Bishopsgate Street Within. Le Board actuel des Directeurs est composé de MM. C. A. Hanson (Président), Francis- Allen, John Temperley, S. Wellhoff, and H. Swinglehurst. Le Directeur Général, résident à Alexandrie, est M. H. F. C. Parkinson, et le Sous-Directeur est M. Ahmed Bey Turc. La Compagnie est représentée à Port Saïd par M. Georges Royle.

NAVIGAZIONE GENERALE ITALIANA.

THE Navigazione Generale Italiana had its origin in the amalgamation of two old-established Italian companies — the Societe Rubattino, founded in 1840, and the Societe L. and V. Florio, started in the following year. These societies were among the pioneers of steam navigation in the Mediterranean, and for many years they rendered important services to the Italian Government, undertaking mail contracts in times of peace, and providing transports for troops at the time of the Sicilian revolution, and during other periods of unrest. On one occasion Garibaldi impressed some of the steamers into his service, and made himself personally responsible for all damage done to the vessels. As time went on, and the companies extended their sailings to India, the Far East, and other parts of the world, it was felt that this common object would best be achieved by a fusion of their interests ; and, accordingly, in 1881, an amalgamation was brought about chiefly through the instrumentality of Domenico Balduino, a prominent banker, and a Director of the Credito Mobiliare.

The new organisation, known as the Navigazione Generale Italiana, had an authorised capital of 100,000,000 lires, of which a first issue of 50,000,000 lires was made. The Company received from the Government the same favourable terms that had been granted to the old societies, and at once acquired several new steamers, bringing their fleet up to 89 vessels, with an aggregate net registered tonnage of 67,000 tons. Further additions were made from time to time, with the result that the Company were able to place at the disposal of the Government all the vessels needed for the Massawa Expeditions of 1887 and 1896, without disturbing the postal service. The second of these expeditions necessitated the transport of 2,762 officers, 75,960 men, and 11,761 animals, together with provisions and war materials.

The law under which the Navigazione Generale Italiana now operate was passed in April, 1893, and requires that, in addition to the postal and (when necessary) transport services, the Company should maintain commercial communications between the various harbours of the State and between the national harbours and the ports of foreign powers, regularity being strictly insisted upon. To comply with these requirements, the Company replaced many of their older vessels, and enlarged their fleet considerably. Some of the new vessels have a gross register of over ten thousand tons and a speed of sixteen knots. In point of comfort they compare favourably with the steamers of other companies. To-day the company own a fleet of over one hundred vessels, which run, on various subventioned routes, an aggregate distance of three million miles a year. The company maintain a fast service to Egypt. The local office is situated at No. 12, Rue Sésostris, Alexandria, and the manager is Mr. F. Baldovino.

La Navigazione Generale Italiana tire son origine de la fusion de deux Compagnies établies anciennement en Italie : la Société Rubattino, qui fut fondée en 1840 et la Société L. and V. Florio créée l'année suivante, lesquelles furent des premières Compagnies de Navigation à vapeur dans la Méditerranée. Pendant plusieurs années elles rendirent d'importants services au Gouvernement Italien, ayant été chargées du transport de la Poste en temps de paix, ainsi que de celui des troupes durant l'époque de la révolution en Sicile, et d'autres périodes de troubles. On sait que Garibaldi réquisitionna à un moment donné pour son service quelques uns de leurs bateaux en se rendant personnellement responsable des dommages qu'ils pouvaient courir. Entretemps, comme les deux Compagnies avaient étendu leurs services vers les Indes, l'Extrême-Orient et autres parties du globe, elles se rendirent compte que leurs buts seraient mieux atteints en mêlant leurs intérêts ; la fusion fut donc décidée, et elle s'accomplit en 1881, grâce principalement à M. Domenico Balduino, éminent banquier et Directeur du Credito Mobiliare.

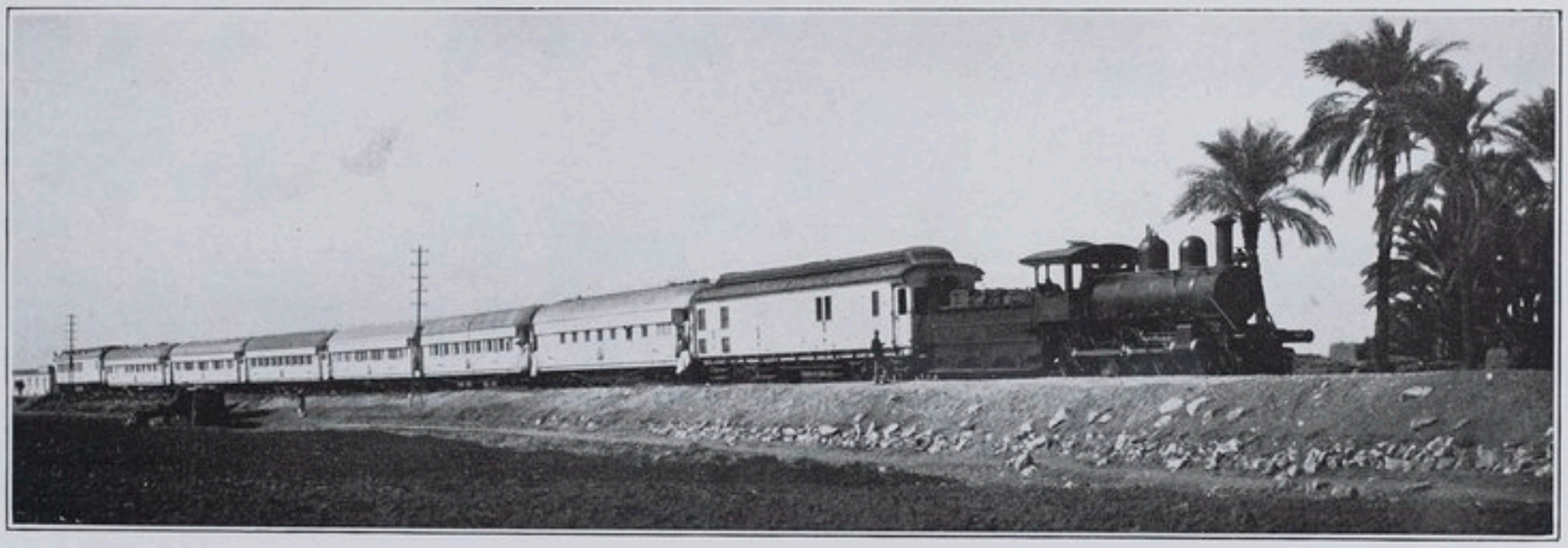
La nouvelle Société prit le nom de Navigazione Generale Italiana, au capital autorisé de 100.000.000 lires, dont la moitié seulement fut émis. Il lui fut fait par le Gouvernement les mêmes conditions avantageuses dont

jouissaient les Compagnies dont elle avait pris la suite, et elle acquit immédiatement divers nouveaux bateaux, élevant ainsi sa flotte à 89 bateaux jaugeant ensemble 67.000 tonnes, net. De nouvelles unités vinrent augmenter dans la suite ce chiffre si bien que la Société put mettre à la disposition du Gouvernement Italien tous les vaisseaux dont il eut besoin pour les expéditions de Massawah de 1887 et 1896, et ce, sans que le service postal eût à en souffrir nullement. La seconde de ces expéditions nécessita le transport de 2.762 officers, 75.960 hommes, et 11.761 animaux, sans compter les provisions et le matériel de guerre.

La loi qui régit actuellement la Navigazione Generale Italiana fut votée en Avril, 1893 : elle stipule que, en dehors du service de la Poste et (le cas échéant), des transports, la Compagnie doit entretenir des communications commerciales suivies entre les différents ports d'Italie, ainsi qu'entre les ports nationaux et ceux des puissances étrangères. Pour remplir ces conditions la Société ne cesse de remplacer ses anciennes unités et d'agrandir considérablement sa flotte. Quelques uns parmi les nouveaux bateaux qu'elle possede sont de très gros tonnage, et dépassent les 10.000 tonnes en déployant une vitesse supérieure à 16 nœuds. Quant au confort ils rivalisent avec ceux des autres grandes Compagnies. Aujourd'hui la Navigazione Generale possède une flotte de plus de 100 bateaux, desservant plusieurs lignes subventionnées, et parcourant ensemble trois millions de milles par an. Avec l'Egypte elle entretient un service direct et rapide. Les bureaux d'Alexandrie sont situés 12, rue Sésostris, et l'Agence est dirigée par M. F. Baldovino.

C. J. GRACE & CO.

MR. CHARLES JOSEPH GRACE, founder of the firm of C. J. Grace & Co., established himself as a shipping agent and merchant in Alexandria and Constantinople in the early forties. He came of a Northumberland family, and was well known and popular in shipping and social circles in Alexandria and Constantinople. In 1879 the business was turned into a company, and Mr. A. Albrecht became a partner in the new firm, styled C. J. Grace & Co. Mr. Grace died in Constantinople in the spring of 1882 (a few months before the bombardment of Alexandria), and the Constantinople house was closed, Mr. Albrecht continuing the Alexandria business as sole partner. The Alexandria premises and all property, documents, &c., were destroyed in the fire which followed the bombardment. When Mr. Albrecht died, in the autumn of 1883, the business was continued by Mr. William Thomas Smith, a grand nephew of Mr. C. J. Grace, and eldest son of the late Rev. Percy Smith, Vicar of Grinton, Yorkshire, in partnership with Mr. Achilles Albrecht, a son of the former partner. Two years later, however, Mr. Albrecht retired in order to take up the legal profession, and Mr. Smith was joined by his brother Percy. The brothers are to this day joint proprietors of the firm. Among the steamship lines represented by them are the Prince Line Limited, Wm. Milburn & Co., the Hamburg-American Line, the P. Henderson Line, Chr. Salvesen & Co., Walter Runciman & Co., and John Bruce & Co.



THE TRAIN DE LUXE.



CAMEL CORPS.

COASTGUARD ADMINISTRATION.

IN the interesting report prepared by Lord Cromer prior to his departure from Egypt, he devoted some space to the subject of hasheesh. While expressing satisfaction at the diminution of the number of cases of insanity in Cairo due to the excessive use of the drug, he recorded the fact that no less than 15,345 kilogrammes had been seized during the year 1906 by the Coastguard, Police, and Customs; and he implied that had it not been for the withdrawal of the Camel Corps patrols in the western desert, when hasheesh "poured into Egypt," the seizures would have been greater and the consumption of the drug less. The fluctuation of the price of hasheesh between 65 francs and 120 francs per kilo he attributed to the quantities smuggled during the transfer of the Camel Corps to the Sinai Peninsula during the "incident" of 1906 in that Peninsula. What deduction Lord Cromer would have made from the statistics of 1908, we are, of course, unable to say. The price ranged from 75 francs to 100 francs per kilo, with the average price in the neighbourhood of 80 francs, while the amount seized was slightly less than feil into the hands of the authorities in 1906.

In 1908 no less than 15,333 kilos. 391 grammes of hasheesh were seized, and, as will be seen from the following figures, most of this was captured by the Coastguard Administration :—

	No. of Seizures.	Weight: Kilos.	Grms.
Coastguard	177 ...	11,517	516
Customs	97 ...	3,198	703
Police...	66 ...	617	172
Total	340	15,333	391

The following is the analysis of the Coastguard seizures :—

	No. of Seizures.	Weight: Kilos.	Grms.
Northern Directorate	42 ...	5,829	450
Eastern ,,	100 ...	1,378	668
Desert ,,	35 ...	4,309	398
Total	177 ...	11,517	516

All the hasheesh captured is destroyed. Twenty piastres tariff is allowed as reward to the parties seizing it or to any one who gives information which leads to a seizure.

The headquarters of the Coastguard Administration are situated at Sharia el Kassed, in Cairo. El Lewa G. Hunter Pasha is the head of the Administration as Director-General, and has as Deputy Director-General El Miralai G. F. G. Purvis Bey. There are 41 officials and subordinates in the headquarters establishment, 20 in the magazine establishment, 1,414 officers and men in the Land Service, and 598 in the Marine Service, a total of 2,075.

Divided into Directorates, the various numbers in the Land and Marine Services are as follow :—

Northern Directorate.

Land	492
Marine	386

Desert Directorate.

Land	456
Marine	6

Land District Services are classified as follows :—

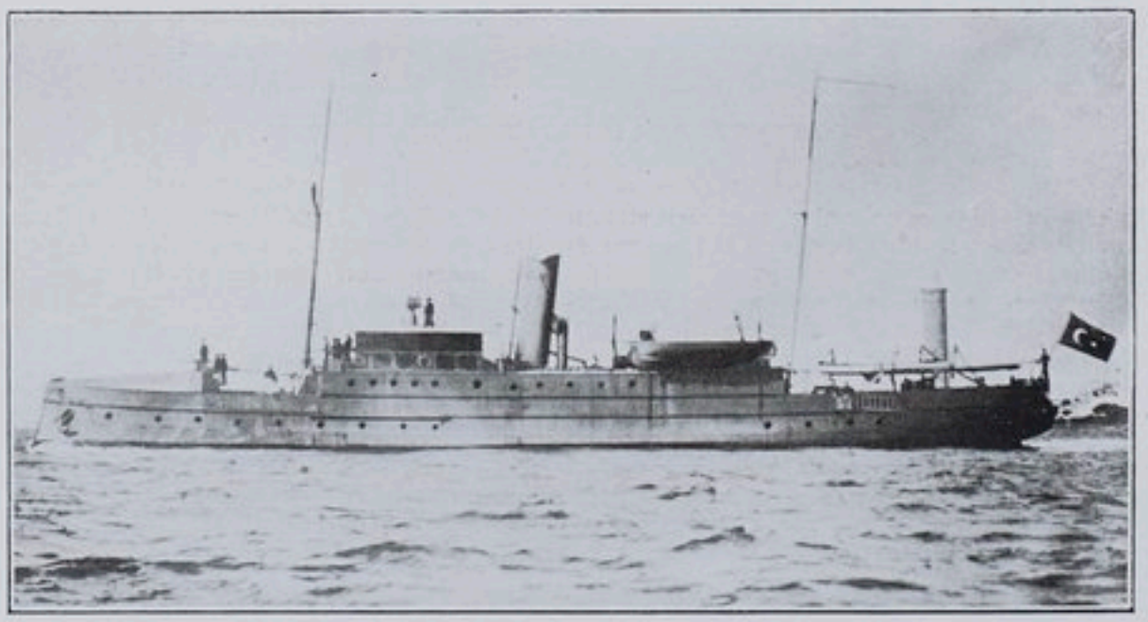
1st Class Districts.—Shefakhana, Alexandria Harbour, Port Said, and Debba District.

2nd Class Districts.—Alexandria, Suez, Middle Egypt, Ramleh, Aboukir, Menzaleh, Depôt, El Amaid, Mersa Matrouh, and Canal District.

3rd Class Districts.—Rosetta, Borollos, Damietta, and Kosseir District.

The Marine Service is distributed as follows, under the control of Directors :—

Northern Directorate.—The Marine Depôt, all cruisers and boat services stationed at Alexandria, Shefakhana, Ramleh, Aboukir, and Rosetta, and the Fishery Protection Services on Lakes Borollos, Edkou, and Mariout.



H.H. COASTGUARD CRUISER "PRINCE MOHAMED ABDEL MONAYM."

Eastern Directorate.

Land	437
Marine	195

Eastern Directorate.—All cruisers and boat

services stationed at Port Said, Ismailia, Suez, Kosseir, Menzaleh, and Damietta.

Desert Directorate.—Boat service stationed at Mersa Matrouh.

The stores and workshops are at the Arsenal, Alexandria. There is also a workshop at Port Said. The headquarters of the three directorates are as follow :—Northern Directorate—Marina, Alexandria ; Eastern Directorate—Port Said ; Desert Directorate—Ain el Shams.

The following are the names of cruisers in Commission :—

Abdel Monaym (610 tons), built at Port Glasgow in 1902.

Abbas (298 tons), built at Troon in 1891.

Noor-el-Bahr (450 tons), built at St. Nazaire in 1884.

Sarcea (71 tons), built in Scotland in 1886.

Neseem (81 tons), built at Maybole in 1885.

Mabrook (45 tons), built at Alexandria in 1890.



COMPANY PARADING FOR INSPECTION.

There are also in commission eleven steam launches two oil launches, and seven motor launches.

Regarded in all respects as a military service, with the same laws, regulations, and orders as govern the army and marine, the Coastguard are recruited largely from volunteers. The remainder are reservists, who, after serving five years in the army or marine under the conscript laws, are transferred for the second period of five years to the Coastguard. Those reservists who are so transferred are liable to serve the whole of their second period in sea-going cruisers, but certain exceptions are made. On the completion of three years' service in a sea-going cruiser, a reservist is eligible for transfer to a boat service provided he has a very good character and it is convenient to the service to carry out the transfer. Volunteers are enlisted, for both land and marine service, as a rule, for a period of not less than three years.

Cadets are trained for the service as officers. Promotion from the rank of yousbashi and upwards is by selection. A premium is placed on common sense. Mere knowledge of drill and regulations is not sufficient to insure promotion.

The rates of pay vary according to the rank and the branch of the administration in which a man is serving. Boy recruits or buglers in the Land Service receive £E1 per month, and bash shawish £E3 750 mills. In the Marine Service, a volunteer boy recruit gets £E1 125 mills., and a bash reis £E3 750 mills while the pay of seamen reservists ranges from £E1 500 mills., to £E2 500 mills., according to whether they are in training establishments, boats or sea-going cruisers. Firemen get from £E2 250 mills., to £E5 per month. Badges for good conduct carry extra pay at the rate of ten piastres per month. There is a scale of pensions and indemnities which includes widows and orphans of officials and employés who have lost their lives in the performance of their duties.

As a general rule, the men live in barracks, though a certain number live outside until accommodation can be provided for them. Where the men are married, each man has two rooms and a court-yard for himself and family. In the Land Service, most of the men are Soudanese. The Camel Corps is entirely Soudanese, as is also a large proportion of the Infantry.

Officers, cadre, and civil employés engaged for more than two years are entitled to two months' leave on full pay in any one year if spent abroad, or one and a half if spent in Egypt, and they may have an extension of one month on half-pay. When on probation, only fifteen days per annum are allowed. Sick leave is also given on varying scales of pay. Ordinary leave with full pay is accumulative, but may not exceed three and a half months in any one year, if spent abroad, or three months if spent in Egypt. In no case can more than one-sixth of the officers or employés of the Administration be absent at one time. Extra leave may be granted to a man who has had to travel a considerable distance to reach his native village.

In addition to their ordinary duties of checking contraband and preventing the importation of prohibited articles, the Coastguard are concerned with the collection of taxes and the prevention of infractions of the fishery and sponge fishery laws ; the regulations for the protection of quail and other birds ; the regulations for the Port of Alexandria ; the quarantine laws ; the regulations for boats plying or employed in the Suez Canal ; the slavery laws ; and the regulations for carrying firearms in the interior.

All merchandise entering the country is liable to a duty of 8 per cent. ad valorem, with the exception of :—

(*a*) Coal, charcoal, mazut (liquid fuel), firewood, wood for construction, petroleum, oxen, cows, sheep, and goats, on which the import customs dues are 4 per cent. ad valorem ;

(*b*) Prepared tobacco leaf removed from the stalk, or midrib, cut, pressed, ground into snuff, or made into cigarettes ; the duty on this is 250 mills. per kilogramme ;

(*c*) Tobacco leaf not prepared in any of the above-mentioned ways ; the duty on this is 200 mills. per kilogramme.

(From countries which have not signed a commercial convention with Egypt, an extra import duty of 20 mills. per kilogramme is charged on tobacco mentioned above. The countries that have signed commercial conventions with Egypt are : Great Britain, Portugal, Spain, United States, Sweden, Norway, Holland, Austria-Hungary, Greece, Belgium, Italy, Germany, and France).

(*d*) All cigars, without distinction as to kind or quality ; the duty on these is 250 mills. per kilogramme.

The following are the articles for which a monopoly of importation and sale has been given :—

Tombac.—Monopoly of importation conceded by the Government to Khalil Pasha Khayat under a contract which expires on June 30, 1919.

Gunpowder, saltpetre and ammunition used for sporting purposes.—Monopoly of importation and sale granted by the Government to the Egyptian Salt and Soda Company, Ltd.

A monopoly of importation of dynamite, gelignite, and blasting gelatine, and any other high explosive of which the manufacture or sale is permitted in Great Britain, as also detonators, electric fuses and detonators, has been given in concession to the Nobel Explosive Company, Ltd., for a period of five years ending March 28, 1909. These explosives will be imported by the Company into Egypt at Alexandria or Suez, but not elsewhere. [This monopoly has been renewed, but the terms were not available at the date of writing.—Ed.].

Travellers arriving in Egypt are allowed to pass free of duty the following quantities for personal use :—Tobacco of any description, 200 grammes ; cigars, 25 in number ; cigarettes, 100 in number. The officers and men of the service, however, are particularly enjoined to exercise discretion in the application of this regulation, in order to avoid vexatious interference with travellers.

The importation of the following articles is prohibited :—

(*a*) Hasheesh.

(*b*) Firearms, except those used for sporting purposes and as curiosities.

(*c*) Ammunition for arms used in war.

(*d*) Explosives other than those the importation of which is given in concession.

The introduction, manufacture, circulation, and sale or detention of adulterated tobacco constitutes an act of contraband; and the cultivation of tobacco, tombac, and hasheesh is prohibited in Egypt. Hasheesh is a composition obtained from hemp-seed, and is a product of Greece. On account of its smallness of bulk it is, like opium, an easy commodity to smuggle. It may be stated in general terms that most of the time of the coastguard authorities is devoted to the prevention of the introduction of hasheesh and the protection of the tobacco revenue. The work is onerous, and requires the constant and close supervision of the higher officials, only a small proportion of whom are European. The total amount voted for the Coastguard Administration for the current year (1909) is £E145,000.



CAMEL CORPS, DISMOUNTED.

Captain G. Hunter Pasha, who is Director-General of the Coastguard Department, saw service in the Soudan in 1888, prior to joining the Egyptian service, in which he is highly esteemed.



RAILWAY STATION, CAIRO.

THE RAILWAYS OF EGYPT.

STATE SYSTEM.

THE railway system is necessarily the main factor in the industrial development of a country like Egypt, which may be said to be in course of rejuvenation under British rule; and the details given in the following pages of the position and the working of both the State and the privately owned lines afford a fair reflex of the progress of this new-old land under modern conditions. While an intricate network of railways in the Delta, tapping all the rich agricultural country in that spread of territory and having a total kilometrage of 976, is owned and worked by the Delta Light Railways Company, a corporation of French origin, the State has devoted itself principally to providing through lines from the seaport of Alexandria and Port Said respectively to Cairo, together with a long length of iron-road from the latter centre south along the course of the Nile through Middle and Upper Egypt to Assouan, the present southernmost point of the railway system. Thus, as the great river in its passage through the country laves and fertilises the thirsty land on either side, the railway running alongside provides the means for the conveyance to market of the produce of this fertilisation. During the winter season, from November and December to the end of April, there is, also, an extensive tourist traffic on the through State lines, caused by visitors from all parts of the world crowding into Egypt with the two-fold object of enjoying the perfect climate of the country at that time of the year and of viewing the wondrous remains of ancient days scattered over the land.

The line between Alexandria and Cairo, constructed by Robert Stephenson, and opened in 1856, was the first railway in Egypt. Thus the capital city was brought into communication with the chief Mediterranean port of the country. For the purposes of completing the overland route to the Red Sea, it remained to construct a line from Cairo across the desert on the east to Suez. This connection was completed early in 1858, all the earthwork and building being performed by natives under the Corvee (forced labour) system. At this time, the India Mail and other through traffic east and west between Alexandria and Suez was bringing in a revenue of £60,000 per month.

In 1868, on the completion of the railway from Ismailia to Suez, the desert line from Cairo to Suez was taken up, being no longer



ROBERT STEPHENSON, WHO CONSTRUCTED THE FIRST RAILWAY IN EGYPT.

of use, the opening of the canal in the following year removing the necessity for the overland route between Alexandria and Suez.

Meanwhile, railway development had begun in a different direction from Cairo, namely, southwards up the course of the Nile. In 1867, the up-river line to Minieh was commenced, the starting point near Cairo being Boulac Dacrour, on the west side of the Nile, near Gizeh. But Boulac Dacrour was not connected with Cairo until 1891, when the Embabeh Bridge was opened and the line joining the Nile railway with the capital was thus carried across the river. In the same year, the line up the Nile was opened from Assiout to Luxor, crossing the river from the west to the east side at Nag Hamadi, and from Luxor on to Assouan, the present terminus of the up-river railway. This latter section is the only portion of the State system laid with the narrow-gauge track (3 feet 6 inches), all the other State line being of the normal gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches. Plans have already been prepared for the conversion of the Luxor-Assouan line to the normal standard. In 1891, also an eventful year in the history of railway construction in Egypt, several branch State lines and extensions in the Delta were completed. The year 1903 saw a beginning made with the doubling of the Nile railway south from Cairo, which work was completed to Minieh, a distance of 247 kilometres (about 150 English miles), in 1908. In 1904, the line between Port Said and Ismailia was converted from the original narrow gauge to the normal standard and thus brought into conformity with the connecting line between Ismailia and Cairo. The work of railway construction in Egypt has been of an easy character, the country being generally level and free from engineering difficulties. The only works of any engineering importance are swing bridges over the Nile at Benha, Kafr el Zayat, Mansourah, Desuk, Barrage and Zifteh in the Delta, also at Embabeh (Cairo) and at Nag Hamadi up the Nile. There is, besides, a road and tramway bridge at Gabbary (Alexandria).

At the end of 1908, there were altogether 2,259½ kilometres, or about 1,410 miles (the

kilometre is equal approximately to ⅝-mile English) of State lines open for traffic, of which 2,037¾ kilometres were of the normal standard gauge (4 feet 8½ inches), and 222¾ kilometres were of the narrow gauge (3 feet 6 inches), the latter being the track from Luxor to Assouan and Shellal in Upper Egypt. Including the doubling of the Nile railway as far as it had been completed, the total kilometrage in single road worked out to 2,806. The doubling of the line is detailed in a subsequent paragraph dealing with the ways and works of the State system.

The lengths of the various main sections of the State Railways are as follows :—

Alexandria to Cairo	208	kilometres.
Port Said to Benha Junction (where the line joins that from Alexandria to Cairo)	191	,,
Cairo to Luxor (up the Nile)	673	,,
Luxor to Assouan (narrow gauge)	213	,,
Ismailia (on Port Said line) to Suez (along the east side of the canal)	93	,,
Damanhour to Mehallet Roh (in the Delta)	73	,,
Kalioub to Zagazig (in the Delta)	62	,,
Zagazig with Mansourah (in the Delta)	69	,,
Tantah with Damietta (in the Delta)	106	,,
Sherbin with Kalline (in the Delta)	80	,,
Mehallet Roh to Zifteh (in the Delta)	31	,,
Tantah to Ashmoun (in the Delta)	63	,,
Sidi Gaber Junction (near Alexandria) to Rosetta ...	66	,,
Embabeh (near Cairo) to Teh el Barud, along the west side of the west branch of the Nile north of Cairo	119	,,



RAILWAY STATION ALEXANDRIA.

Wasta (on the Nile railway) to Abouxah (in the Fayoum Province)	61	kilometres.
Fayoum to Sennures ...	12	,,

On December 31, 1907, there were 274 stations open on the State system.

In 1876, the administration of the State Railways was placed in the hands of a "mixed" International Railway Board, consisting of three members—one of whom was an Englishman, one a Frenchman, and one an Egyptian—which was called into existence as an additional protection to the holders of Egyptian Bonds, the receipts of the railways being one of the principal sources of public revenue pledged to the national creditors. But on November 20, 1905, the International Board ceased to exist, and the system was placed under the direction of a general manager. The present occupant of this position is Lieut.-Colonel G. B. Macauley, C.M.G., R.E., the deputy general manager being Captain R. B. D. Blakeney, D.S.O., R.E., who have under their control an army of some 22,000 employés.

In the section under the heading "Information for Tourists," included in this volume, details are given of the trains from Alexandria or Port Said to Cairo, and thence up the Nile, with brief descriptions of the principal sights to be viewed in the land of the Pharaohs. It is now possible for passengers landing at



INTERIOR OF THE ALEXANDRIA RAILWAY STATION.

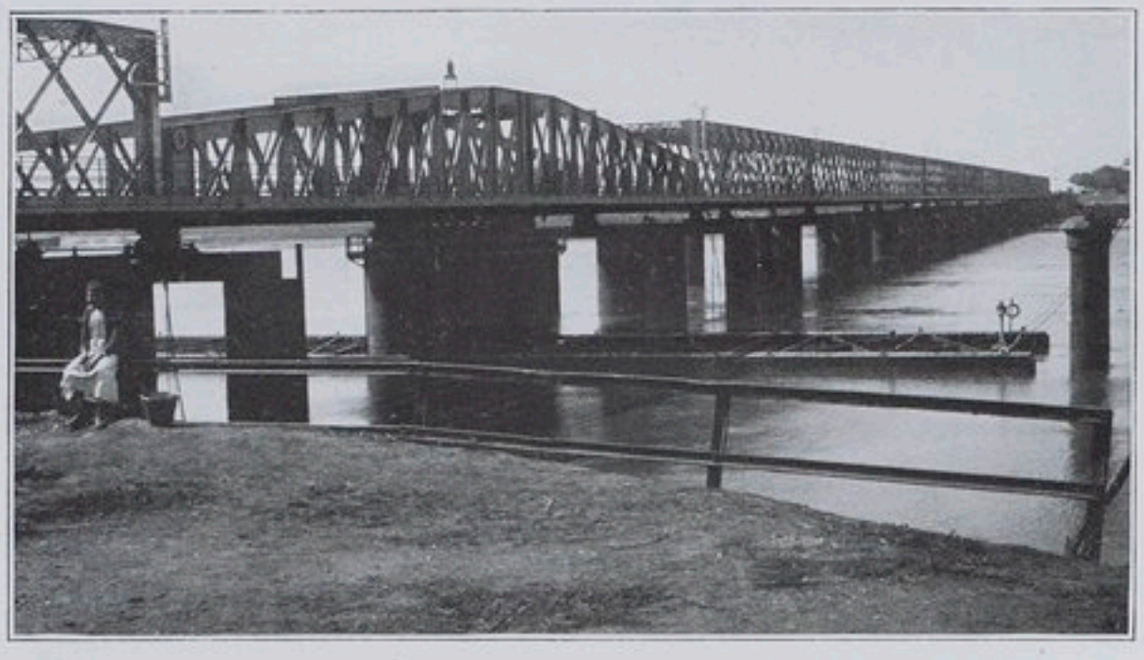
Alexandria during the winter season to leave that port at 3 p.m., and, travelling by the specially equipped *train-de-luxe* of the Wagon-Lits Company from Cairo to Luxor and Assouan, to arrive at the latter terminus at 5 p.m. the following day, the journey from end to end of the State Railway thus occupying twenty-six hours. Dining and sleeping cars are run on the trains, meals at a fixed tariff being supplied, and every convenience is provided for the comfort of passengers. The only arrangement which seems to call for criticism is that all luggage conveyed in the vans is charged for, which leads to the loading up of the passenger carriages with packages. No carriages are set apart for smokers, but ladies who desire the company of their own sex only are accommodated. With the continual increase of the traffic, new trains are run, and the speed of the journey is continually being accelerated. The maximum running speed of the passenger expresses averages 50 miles an hour, a rate easily maintained on the generally level lines of the system. Freedom from serious accidents is a noticeable feature of the traffic department; and, altogether, as a leading authority has stated officially, "the management (of the railways) in Egypt compares very favourably with that of most other countries."

Reviewing the present financial position of the State Railways according to the returns for 1907, it is at once apparent that the system is managed with a due regard for economy. The results of the working for the year show :—

Gross receipts ...	...	£E3,565,040
Working expenses	...	1,953,197
Net revenue...	...	£E1,611,843

This last figure was £E193,786 better than the net revenue for the preceding year (1906),

owing mainly to a considerable increase in the total coaching earnings, three and a half millions more of passengers having been carried. The working expenses as given



BRIDGE ACROSS THE NILE AT KAFR-EL-ZAYAT.

above show a percentage of 54·79 of the gross earnings; but it is not considered possible to maintain quite so low a proportion of current expenditure in future. The cost of working during 1907 was in excess of that for 1906 by £E113,654, amounting to £E842 per kilometre, as against £E795 per kilometre in the previous year. The cost of labour on upkeep during 1907 amounted to £E22·660 millièmes per kilometre.

The capital expended on the State Railways to the end of 1907 amounted to £E24,359,399, so the net revenue for the year, £E1,611,843, gives a percentage of 6·61 per cent., which is an increase of just ½ per cent. on the net return for the year 1906. In its turn, 1906 showed a small increase over the surplus for 1905, and for the last few years there has been a steady annual rise under this head, despite annual increases in the capital expenditure. The capital expenditure during 1907, in new rolling-stock, bridge work, and general improvements to stations and permanent way, including ballasting, was £E868,203. Progress was made with the doubling of the Nile line south from Cairo to Minieh, already completed as far as Wasta (90 kilometres), the intervening section of double track from Fant to Minieh (79 kilometres) being opened in 1908.

Under the main heads of annual revenue the receipts for 1907 showed substantial increases over those for the preceding year. During that year the total number of passengers carried was over 26 millions (of whom 23½ millions travelled third class, 2 millions second class, and about half a million first class), as against 22½ millions in 1906, the receipts from the coaching traffic being £E1,718,421 for 1907, as against £E1,486,931 for 1906, an increase of 15·56 per cent., the increase in passengers carried being 15·48 per cent. The consequent increase in the receipts per kilometre of the passenger trains was 9·3 per cent. The total earnings of the coaching branch accounted for 48·20 per cent. of the gross receipts. The goods traffic returns for 1907, despite a falling off of 7·7 per cent. under the head of transport of service material, also showed a total increase over the total for the preceding year, the figures being respectively £E1,808,834 as against £E1,749,231, and the ratio of increase 3·4 per cent. About 194,000 tons more of merchandise were carried, and 86,000 more head of live stock. The total freight tonnage during 1907 was 6,747,449, and 549,253 animals, and the total earnings of the goods traffic accounted for 50·74 of the gross receipts. The earnings per goods train kilometre, including the freight on service material carried by ordinary trains, amounted to 308 millièmes, as against 299 millièmes in 1906. The chief features of the goods traffic in 1907 were considerable increases in the carriage of building materials, partly due to continued requirements of the works of the Esneh dam (now completed), also in the conveyance of cotton and cotton seed, rice and cereals, and coal; while there were decreases, on a lesser scale, in the transport of sugar and molasses, onions, timber, machinery, and metals. It is a sign of the progress of the country on the soundest base that the increase in cereals carried (amounting, with rice, to 21,292 tons) was due to increased native production, the imports under this head showing a decrease of 30,000 tons. The quantity of ginned cotton was slightly in excess of that in the preceding year; but there was an increase of 62,000 tons, or 14 per cent. in the amount of cotton seed transported by the railway. The falling off in timber, machinery, and metals conveyed (in all, 30,000 tons) is partly attributable to the limitation of building and other works owing to the financial crisis, and partly to the



THE RESERVED PORCH OF THE CAIRO RAILWAY STATION, USED ONLY ON STATE OCCASIONS.



LUXOR RAILWAY STATION.

large quantities carried in 1906, anticipating to some extent the freight carriage of 1907. Additional animal trucks had to be obtained to cope with the increase of 86,000, or 18 per cent. in live stock transported. The total amount of coal and coke received during 1907 was 314,515 metrical tons (of 2,205 lbs.), landed at Alexandria from seventy-one steamers. The principal goods depôts are at Gabbary (Alexandria) and Cairo. At the former, 933,177 tons were received, and 1,530,324 tons despatched during 1907. A new Customs station, to relieve congestion in the outwards traffic to Cairo, was opened.

The working expenses of the system during 1907 are classified as follows :—

	£E.
Maintenance of ways, works, and stations	498,747
Locomotive department	678,483
Carriage and waggon department	217,428
Traffic department	341,889
General charges	139,914
Special and miscellaneous expenditure	76,736
Total	1,953,197

Under the first of these heads, the expenditure in wages and material on both maintenance and renewals of the permanent way amounted to £E227,470 ; on repairs to bridges, £E51,008 ; on repairs to stations and buildings, £E53,363, and on new minor works, £E16,759 ; while general superintendence cost £E86,475 ; the signalling branch absorbed £E16,240 ; and miscellaneous expenditure on plantation work, tools, and plant, carriage of stores, and sundries accounted for £E47,432. In the locomotive department the chief item of expenditure was fuel (chiefly coal), the amount being £E247,066. The expenditure of the carriage and waggon department included £E168,179 for repairs and renewals to vehicles (passengers and goods). Of the £E341,889 total of traffic expenses, salaries and wages of the staff accounted for £E268,369. Under the head of special and miscellaneous charges, the principal items are £E37,000 for indemnities to discharged staff, and £E20,266 for compensation for personal injuries ; while £E4,963 was paid for goods lost or damaged. State special trains cost £E3,000. Law charges only amounted to £E415.



THE DINING SALOON OF THE TRAIN DE LUXE.



ASSOUAN RAILWAY STATION.

At the end of 1907, out of the total of 545 locomotives belonging to the State Railways, 239 were in thorough repair ; and the new engines under order which were delivered in January, 1908, were 10 six-coupled passenger, 20 six-coupled goods, and 10 four-coupled tank engines. The more powerful locomotives in use during 1907 included 24 passenger engines of various types (Atlantic, North British, Henschel, and French Compound) capable of hauling 22 to 24 coaches at a maximum speed of 80 kilometres (say 50 miles) per hour, also 21 goods engines able to haul thirty 30-ton trucks at a top speed of 50 kilometres (just over 31 miles) per hour. The total engine kilometrage during 1907 was 20½ millions as against 21½ millions in 1906, and the coal consumption averaged 11½ kilogrammes per kilometre. The principal locomotive workshops are at Boulac and Gabbary, and there are running sheds at Tantah, Alexandria, Zagazig, Ismailia, Port Said, Suez, Mansourah, Wasta, Minieh, Sohag, Luxor, and Assouan.

The increase in both passenger and goods traffic, which is the promising feature of the progress of the State Railways, necessitated considerable additions to the carriage and waggon stock during 1907, bringing the total number of passenger-train vehicles at the close of the year to 1,123, of which 92 were for the narrow gauge traffic on the Luxor-Assouan section. The total of waggon stock was increased to 10,587 (235 narrow gauge) by the addition of 853 new trucks and travelling tanks of various kinds. The goods waggons of all classes vary in capacity from 6 tons to 30 tons, the most numerous being the 10-ton and the 30-ton classes, there being 8,024 waggons of the former capacity and 1,093 of the latter. At the end of the year, 1,013 carriages and waggons had been fitted with the vacuum brake. Progress is also being made with the lighting of the passenger coaches by gas, in place of oil, and by the end of 1909 it is expected that oil lighting will be completely superseded.

In the Ways and Works Department of the State system there is necessarily continual activity. There are permanent-way workshops at Gabbary and Cairo ; also a bridge

workshop and a signal workshop at Cairo. The principal undertaking in connection with the track carried out during 1907 was the doubling of the main line up the Nile south of Cairo. This has been completed, without interruption to the traffic, as far as Minieh (247 kilometres) by the doubling of the intervening section from Wasta to Fant, opened in 1908. The total of double track on the whole system was brought up to 531 kilometres. Plans have been prepared for the conversion to the normal (broad) gauge of 4 feet 8½ inches of the narrow gauge line (3 feet 6 inches) of 222 kilometres from Luxor south to Assouan and Shellal, a work of some magnitude, and several extensions of branch lines in the Delta are in contemplation, including one to connect the line from Cairo to the barrage immediately north of the capital with the existing line from Tantah to Ashmoun.

During 1907 the cost of maintenance throughout the system averaged £E22·660 per kilometre. Of the total of 2,583 kilometres of broad gauge lines, 2,340 kilometres are laid with steel rails of either vignole on bull-headed or double-headed patterns varying in weight from 35 to 46 kilogrammes per lineal metre (the kilogramme equals 2¼ lbs. English, and the metre equals 3 feet 3½ inches), the remaining 241 kilometres being laid with iron rails weighing 36 kilogrammes per metre. The total length of line over which heavy engines can run thus amounts to about half the length of the whole system. The 224 kilometres of narrow gauge (3 feet 6 inches) line south of Luxor is laid with steel vignole rails varying in weight from 21 to 37 kilograms per metre. For all new lines and renewals the vignole steel rail of 46 kilogrammes per metre (say 92 lbs. per yard) has been adopted as the standard. The various lines are being strengthened to bear the heavier and faster engines, each weighing 112 tons with tender, that are being introduced into the service, the total kilometrage of lines so improved at the end of 1908, including portions of the long sections of the Nile railway between Cairo and Luxor, being 1455. Among improvements in progress at the time of writing is the enlargement of the station at Tantah, in the Delta. The remodelling of the passenger station at Alexandria is also projected. The absence of heavy gradients and sharp curves on any part of the system facilitates the work of keeping the permanent-way in order, and the only engineering features of note are the swing bridges over the Nile at different points in the Delta, some of which (on the Cairo-Alexandria line) have had to be laid with double lines and strengthened to support the increase in the weight of the new locomotives. The expenditure thus necessitated amounted in the year under review to nearly £E20,000. These bridges have total openings carrying from 232 to 500 lineal metres, and a new one in course of construction near Wasta will have an opening of 300 metres. At the end of 1908 there were 256 stations on the normal gauge lines, with 655 kilometres of sidings not counting the "halts" on the auxiliary railways, and 18 stations on the narrow gauge section with 20 kilometres of sidings. In connection with the signalling branch, it may be mentioned that the electro-pneumatic system has been installed at Cairo station. Considerable attention has been paid to the matter of water supply, and during 1907 over seventy new tube wells were sunk and fitted with pumps. The fencing of the lines is also being carried out.

In addition to the main line up the Nile, there are on this route two groups of railways, both on the western side of the river and running parallel with it and the main line, known as the Upper Egypt Auxiliary Railways, and having a total of 557 kilometres of track. These lines are designed for agricultural purposes, and act as feeders to the main Nile railway. They were originally constructed and worked by the Sucreries Company—mainly to promote the sugar-cane industry on the banks of the river—but are now included in the State system. The track is of the normal gauge, but is laid with light rails, and light vehicles only are run, mainly for the conveyance of produce. The first group, with 204 kilometres of line, extends south from Bibeh station, on the main line, through Minieh to Roda, tapping the riverain agricultural strip *en route* and having numerous halting-places and sidings for loading and unloading, also numerous short branches and connections, as well as several connections with the main line, the total kilometrage of the sidings and branches being 261. The second and smaller group, with 34 kilometres of line and 58 of branches, extends from Armant, above Luxor, south to Matana. This group is separated by the river from the Nile main line. These auxiliary railways were worked during 1907 at a loss, the deficit on working being £E7,391 with a revenue of £E15,967. This unfavourable result is attributed to the heavy expenditure on rolling-stock and permanent-way, combined with the low freight rate (nearly three times less than that charged on the rest of the system) and the failure of the cane crop to reach the estimate of production. In 1907 a commencement was made with running local passenger trains on these lines, but they rely for traffic principally upon the conveyance of sugar-cane and cotton locally produced. On the whole, the traffic on the auxiliary railways is increasing, and 15 new stations, besides 49 "halts," were opened during the year under review. The trains on these lines are worked on the staff and ticket system, and their maximum speed is 30 kilometres per hour.

With the exception of the chief directing officers, who are British, the staff of the Egyptian State Railways, numbering 22,184 in all, is comprised of natives, who, under European supervision, are found to fulfil their duties satisfactorily. Special attention is paid to the health and physical fitness of these employés, medical examination of all hands being held periodically. Of the 9,351 candidates who applied for admission to the service during 1907, a little less than half were rejected as unfit. Defect of vision, amounting in many

WORKING EXPENSES.								EARNINGS.				
1907		STATE RAILWAYS.	Abstract	Estimate	1908		Per cent. on the Gross Earnings	1907	STATE RAILWAYS.	Abstract	1908	
Per cent. on the Gross Earnings	Actuals				For the Month	For the Year					For the Month	For the Year
	£E.			£E.	£E.	£E.		£E.			£E.	£E.
14·	498,747	Maintenance of Way, &c.	A	553,113	43,574	482,664	14·05					
19·03	678,483	Locomotive Expenses	B	754,338	61,152	728,727	21·21	1,718,421	Coaching Traffic ...	K	140,132	1,651,858
6·10	217,428	Carriage and Waggon Expenses ...	C	232,329	32,378	245,572	7·15	1,808,834	Goods Traffic	L	189,272	1,744,439
9·59	341,889	Traffic Expenses	D	404,645	37,462	396,797	11·55	37,785	Sundry Earnings ...	M	7,542	39,154
3·92	139,914	General Charges	E	148,165	14,987	152,043	4·43					
2·15	76,736	Special and Miscellaneous Expenditure	F	83,200	18,660	76,248	2·22					
54·79	1,953,197			2,175,790	208,213	2,082,231	60·61					
45·21	1,611,843	NET EARNINGS			128,733	1,353,220	39·39					
100· —	3,565,040	TOTAL			336,946	3,435,451	100·	3,565,040	TOTAL ...		336,946	3,435,451
		TELEGRAPHS.							TELEGRAPHS.			
93·02	106,362	Expenses	G	112,569	8,507	104,089	96·10	114,341	Earnings	N	11,850	108,310

Cairo, *February* 28, 1909.

(Signed) H. G. SHEPPARD, *Auditor.*

cases to blindness of one eye, appears to be a common cause of unfitness. The casualties to staff during the year numbered 2,117, and the Indemnity Committee, which inquires into cases of injury to employés while on duty and grants compensation, dealt with 200 cases, including 46 deaths. Injured employés or the heirs of those killed, who are dissatisfied with the committee's decisions and awards, may appeal to the law, but as this action is very seldom taken, the inference may safely be drawn that, as the general manager's report states, "The Indemnity Committee is working well."

The revenue account to the end of December, 1908, of the Egyptian State Railways and Telegraphs is shown on opposite page.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL GEORGE BOHUN MACAULEY, C.M.G., R.E., has been General Manager of the Egyptian State Railways since 1906. Born on August 25, 1869, he entered the Royal Engineers in 1889, and attained the rank of major in 1900. He was employed in the Egyptian Army from 1896, and was placed on half-pay in 1907. The decoration of C.M.G. was conferred upon him in 1906 for services in connection with the construction of the Suakin-Berber Railway.

EGYPTIAN DELTA LIGHT RAILWAYS, LTD.

BY T. E. POOLEY.

HISTORY AND PROPERTIES.

PRIOR to the advent of the present system of light railways in the Delta, paths and canals formed the only means of communication between those parts not touched by the State Railways. Realising that the development of the country greatly depended on its facilities for communication, the Government decided to undertake the construction of agricultural roads throughout the Delta, and a commencement was accordingly made in the Beheireh Province, a special tax being levied towards the cost of construction on those who would derive immediate benefit from the roads. The Government acquired land for these roads in Beheireh of a width of 12 metres. The level of the roads above the field level was about 1 foot 8 inches on an average, and the earth required for the filling was chiefly taken from "borrow pits," which in themselves had the useful purpose of acting as a drain, and at the same time preventing the encroaching of the fellaheen.

Consequent on the good results obtained from these agricultural roads, and this improvement of the means of communication, the Government took into favourable consideration the question of constructing light railways. Inquiries were consequently made as to likely parties who would undertake their construction, and from this the admirable system of agricultural railways now existing throughout the Delta may be said to have had their birth.

The firm of Messrs. John Birch & Co. were on March 27, 1896, granted a concession by Government for the construction of light lines in the provinces of Beheireh and Gharbieh, and simultaneously an exactly similar concession was granted to Messrs. Suares Frères & Co., Menasce Fils & Co., J. M. Cattaui Fils & Co., and W. Pelizaeus for the construction of light lines in the Sharkia, Dakahlieh, and Kaliubieh Provinces.

The former concessionnaires formed an Egyptian company, under the name of "La Société Egyptienne des Chemins de Fer Agricole," to work the concession, and the latter concessionnaires a company under the name of "Compagnie des Chemins de Fer Economique de l'Est Egyptien."

It should be mentioned, however, that the Basse Egypte Line of one-metre gauge was actually the first line of light railways to be constructed in the Delta, it having been opened to traffic on September 28, 1897. This railway, however, has not advanced with the development of the country in the same manner as the Delta railways. No extension has been made since the original construction.

An English company was formed on March 4, 1897, under the name of the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, Ltd.

This company acquired the shares of La Société Egyptienne des Chemins de Fer Agricole, and the two companies then worked the concession jointly. On September 30, 1900, an arrangement was come to, which resulted in the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, Ltd., becoming sole owners of the railway.

On the same date the concession of the Compagnie des Chemins de Fer Economique de l'Est Egyptien was taken over *pro forma*, though, on account of legal formalities, the Delta Company did not obtain full practical control until early in 1901, and at the same time the board of directors of the two companies amalgamated.

On August 18, 1904, the Delta Company obtained a concession of fifty years for the working of a light line of railways connecting the limestone quarries with Cairo, and construction was immediately commenced. The gauge is similar to that of the Delta lines—75 centimetres. This line was completed and opened to traffic on April 1, 1907.

Early in the year 1904 negotiations were opened, and afterwards completed, with the Metropolitan and Cairo-Helouan Railway Company for the purchase of that railway and its concessions.

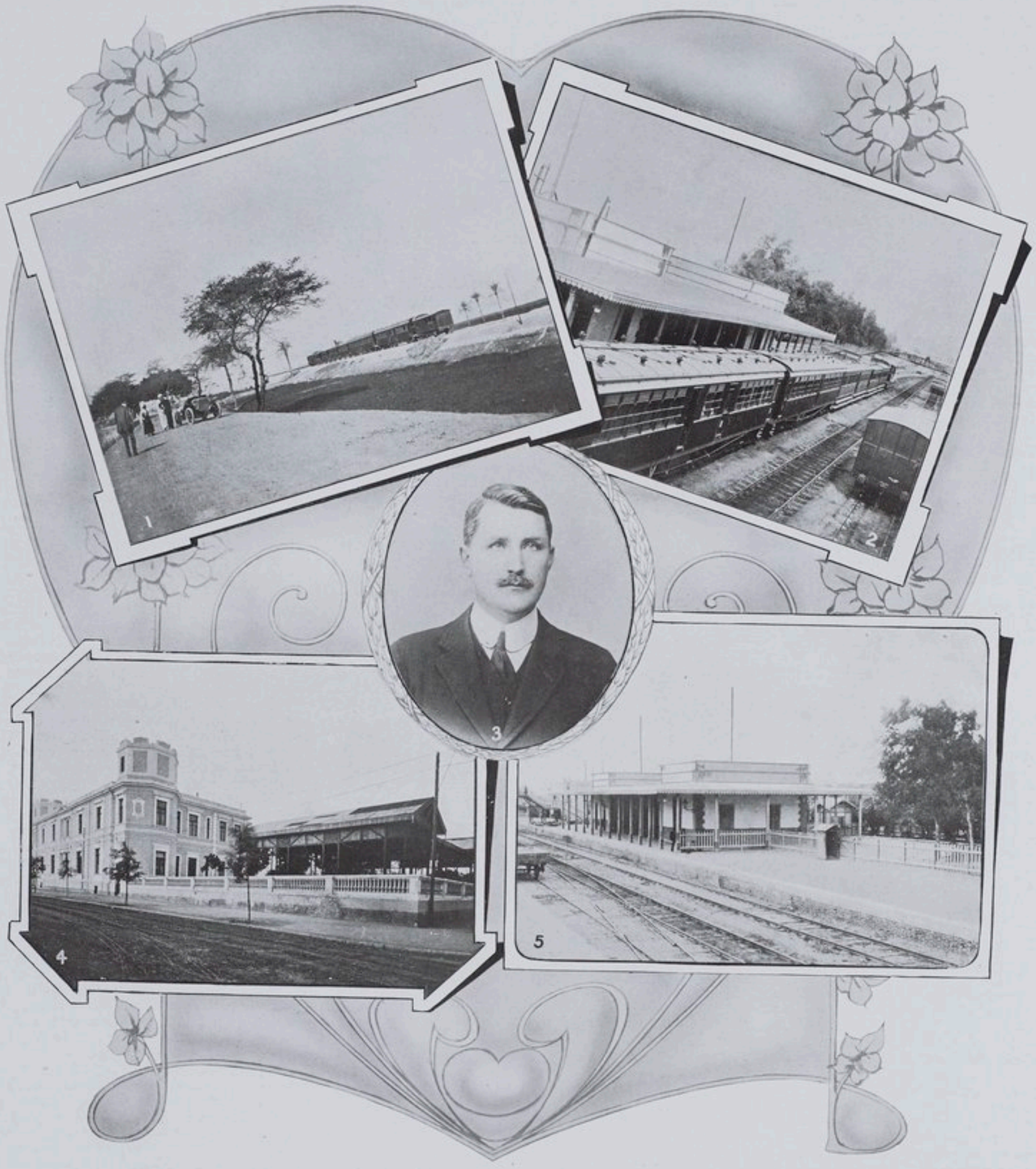
This railway, generally known as the Helouan Railway, has rather a varied history. Its commencement dates from the year 1873, in the reign of Ismael Pasha. Ismael received permission to increase his army to 30,000, and extended his dominions by war to the borders of Abyssinia. A gunpowder factory (fechikhana) was established at a place behind the citadel existing to-day, and a line of railway was laid from the factory to the Nile at Tura, where a big-gun factory (toubkhana) was established. This line is not the present Bassatine-Tura line, but was a line from Bassatine passing through the present Meadi station. In 1875 Ismael continued the construction of this railway from Tura to Helouan, and at the same time laid a branch line from what is known to-day as Moasla Junction to Midan station at the foot of the citadel. This extension was finished in the year 1876, and passenger trains commenced running on January 1, 1877, from Midan to Helouan. This is the first time the line was open to public traffic.

The extension to Helouan was considered advisable on account of the large number of visitors to the sulphur baths there, which were opened as a result of a report called for by the Khedive Ismael Pasha in 1868. Invalids were attracted to Helouan at this time in very great numbers.

On the opening of the line, trains were run round Cairo from the Egyptian State Railways station through Abbassieh to Helouan, as well as the regular service from the Midan station. It was found, however, after a three months' trial, that the passenger traffic round Cairo did not pay, and the trains were discontinued. During the first two years, 1877 and 1878, the line was worked entirely by the military. The barracks for the accommodation of the military existed at various places in the neighbourhood of the line, and the ruins of these barracks, together with half-constructed buildings, are still to be found, and also traces of the old line which connected Massarah station with the barracks on the Nile. In the year 1879, the Egyptian State Railways, on behalf of the Government, took over the working of the line. This was due to the reforms instituted consequent on the deposition of Ismael and appointment of his son Tewfik in that year. It should be noted that in the year 1879, owing to financial and other troubles, the Government support was temporarily withdrawn from Helouan, and the town became almost completely deserted, the train service being reduced to two trains daily.

In the year 1888, when the finances of the country were being regulated, it was decided to give a concession of the Helouan Railway to a private company. Consequently, on April 30, 1888, a concession for fifty years was granted to Messrs. J. M. Cattaui Fils & Co., J. L. Menasce Fils & Co., and Suares Frères & Co., who afterwards founded a company under Khed vial Decree dated April 7, 1890, known as the Metropolitan and Cairo-Helouan Railway. The capital of this company was fixed at £120,000 sterling. By this concession, the right was given for the construction of the line from Tura to Bab el Luk as it now exists, and was carried out immediately. The first train into Bab el Luk was run on November 1, 1889, the extension having been made by the concessionnaires.

On June 12, 1889, the above concessionnaires also obtained a concession till December 9, 1938, for the construction of a casino and other buildings, together with the laying out of gardens on certain Government property at Helouan. The fusion of this concession with that of the railway was sanctioned at a Council of Ministers on June 4, 1891. A decree was issued on March 17, 1890, authorising the extension of the railway from Helouan to the Nile. This extension was made for the convenience of the Khedive Tewfik to facilitate communication with the Nile and his boats. On the 29th of the same month, a decree was also issued authorising the construction of the line from the quarries



THE DELTA LIGHT RAILWAYS, LTD.

1. The First Motor over the Old Cairo-Helouan Road.
2. Train leaving for Cairo.
3. Captain A. Adams, General Manager.
4. The Casino at Helouan.
5. Helouan Railway Station.

of Ain el Sira to Saida Zenab. This extension was not completed until some three or four years later.

On May 21, 1896, a concession over all the Helouan sulphur and other mineral waters was accorded to the Metropolitan and Cairo-Helouan Railway, including the Grand Hotel des Bains and the Establishment Thermal of Helouan. This concession was sublet to the "George Nungovich Egyptian Hotels Company" on May 17, 1899. The period of the concession is from May 1, 1896, to October 31, 1939.

On December 14, 1901, a concession was obtained from the Local Commission of Helouan for the lighting of Helouan by electricity for a period of twenty-two years. This concession was by agreement dated May 11, 1901, transferred to Messrs. Thomas Cook & Son.

In addition to the above, several minor decrees have been issued sanctioning small branch lines, but not for passenger traffic.

On June 10, 1904, the contract of fusion of the Metropolitan and Cairo-Helouan Railway with the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, Ltd., was signed and finally approved by the Council of Ministers on November 26, 1904. The Company immediately commenced and carried out a programme of £60,000 expenditure to improve principally the road-bed and rolling stock.

By the fusion, the Delta Railways became proprietors not only of the Helouan Railways but also of their rights under the other concessions and decrees mentioned.

THE LIGHT RAILWAY SECTION.

The concession which the Delta Railways now holds over the provinces of Sharkia, Dakahlieh, Kaliubieh, Beheireh, and Gharbieh, in the Delta, is a monopoly for light railways of 75 centimetres (2 feet 5½ inches) for a period of seventy years, subject to the Government right of purchase after twenty-five years on one year's notice being given. The purchase price is determined by a scale according to the number of years the concession has still to run. Government also reserved to itself a 40 per cent. share in the surplus of the net profits after payment of 5 per cent. to the shareholders. At the termination of the period of the concession, the Government come into full possession of the railways and dependencies without payment of any indemnity or compensation whatsoever to the concessionnaires.

A start in construction of the lines was made in Beheireh on October 4, 1897, and in April, 1898, 16 miles of railway were opened to traffic. A 30-lbs. 30-feet rail was at first adopted, but it has since been found that a 36-lbs. rail of 10 metres length is more suitable, and these are now used in construction. This rail is laid on sleepers of a minimum size of 4 feet 5½ inches by 9 inches by 4½ inches, which are placed 2 feet 5½ inches apart.

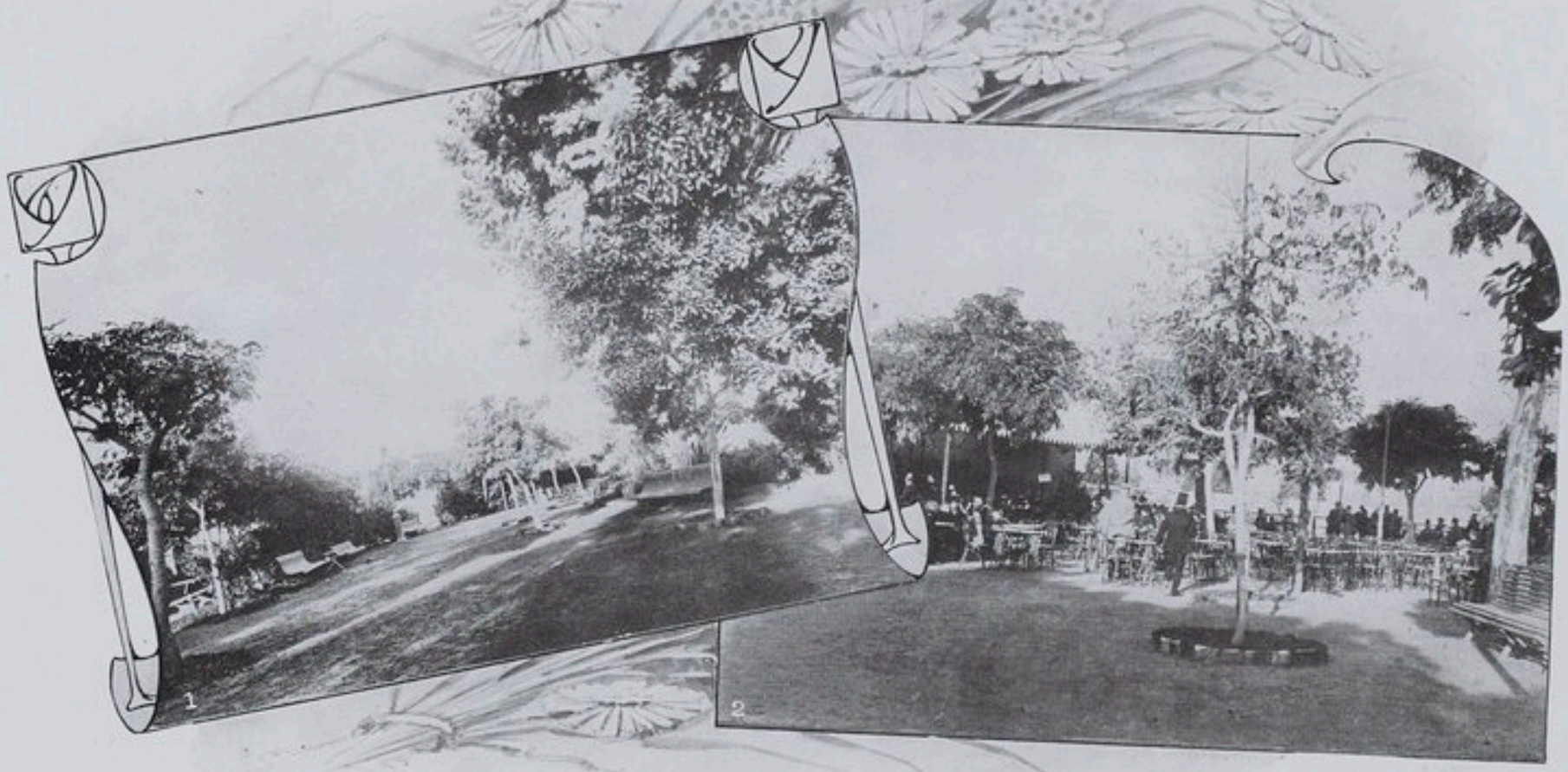
On the main line the curves had a minimum radius of 50 metres, although a minimum of 40 metres is allowed under the concession. It was afterwards found advisable, when speed became a more important factor, to change the minimum radius to 100 metres, and on taking over the Est Railway the changing of all curves to a minimum of 100 metres radius was commenced. To-day the minimum radius adopted in construction is 120 metres.

The first rolling stock had a fixed wheel base of 6 feet 6 inches, and the engine a rigid wheel base of 5 feet to 6 feet 11 inches. The Delta being practically flat, grades only occur in the crossings of canals and roads, and at the over and under-crossings of the State Railways. The worst gradient is 1 in 100 for about 600 metres. The minimum grade of 1 in 120 is now invariably adopted. Navigable canals are crossed by swing bridges on central piers of 5-inch solid screw piles. Many of these bridges are combined road and railway bridges, and consequently the girders are considerably heavier than otherwise would be the case. The Government insists on a maximum stress of 4·12 tons per square inch, whether in steel or iron, for bridges under 50 metre span.

There are throughout the Delta numerous masonry culverts varying from 2 feet to 5 feet opening, and pipe culverts of 5 inches to 14 inches diameter. Where there is little cover, cast-iron pipes are generally used, otherwise it is found that earthenware pipes glazed inside and out are satisfactory.

The original estimate of the cost of construction of the lines was £E1,325 per mile for works only. This estimate at the commencement was closely adhered to, but owing to the increased cost of land, compensation, and material, the cost of construction to-day amounts to about £E2,000 per mile.

The present price of land and the exorbitant demand for compensation made by the landowners, coupled with the fact that the Government gives no assistance to overcome the difficulty, has been a serious check to the further construction of light lines in the Delta. The landowners generally look upon the constructing of the light railway over their land as an opportunity to sell at a high price, and overlook the benefits which accrue from the considerable increase in the value of



THE DELTA LIGHT RAILWAYS, LTD.
THE CASINO GARDENS, HELOUAN.

their land on being brought into closer touch with the market.

There are running sheds and repair shops situated at Damanhour, Mit Ghamr, and Tantah. The total number of engines, coaching and goods vehicles amounts to 98, 369, and 1,314 respectively.

THE CAIRO QUARRY LINES SECTION.

The Government specially interested itself in the construction of the Cairo Quarry Lines of this Company, as it was considered that by carrying the stone and sand from the mountains to the depôts it would greatly relieve the horse and mule traffic over the rough quarry roads, which was a source of great cruelty to these animals.

A concession was granted for fifty years for these quarry lines, and on account of the large expenditure it was foreseen would be entailed in their construction, an absolute monopoly was given in an area named, with a fixed maximum tariff.

The lines as constructed are 14 kilometres, including branch lines; the gauge 75 centimetres; maximum grade, 1 in 75; minimum radius, 100 metres. There are three stations or depôts used for the delivery and storage of sand and stone. The first railway tunnel in Egypt exists on this line, there being two adjacent to each other of about 75 lineal metres.

There were many difficulties connected with the construction, principally on account of the large number of graves and tombs in the district. These graves had to be avoided. Some of the rock cutting work was very difficult in places, it being as much as 35 feet deep.

The chief material transported is sandstone, limestone, and sand. There are five engines on the line and 135 trucks.

THE HELOUAN SECTION.

This concession carries with it the same privileges as the State Railways possess, the Government, however, reserving to itself: Participation in net receipts, acquisition of all properties free on expiration of concession, and the right of re-purchase after twenty years. This period has since been extended for another eighteen years.

The present Company have extended the double tracking of the line from Sahel el Ebli (kilometre 6) to Tura; altogether 14 kilometres of 80-lbs. rails have already been laid, and the remaining lighter rails of 60 lbs. will be replaced as opportunity permits. The substitution throughout of the heavier rails will greatly improve travelling on the Helouan Line.

Tyer's tablet system is in use on all single lines, and all stations are interlocked throughout.

The Company is adopting the system of corridor carriages, and has already purchased four first and four second of these. Two new engines of heavier type were also purchased at the same time.

The total number of engines, coaching and goods vehicles on the Helouan Line is 14, 39, and 122 respectively.

There are twelve stations and three flag stations. The running shops are situated at Saida Zenab and Midan stations, and the repairing shops at the former.

When this section was taken over by the Delta Railways, it had never paid more than 5 per cent.; to-day the railway pays about 7½ per cent. on the total capital expended. The actual capital expended to date is £E268,554·250, against which last year the net receipts were £E19,223·122. In view of the satisfactory results, the Company is considering the extension of the railway about 40 miles south to Birombol.

Mr. W. F. Bearcroft, the present engineer and district locomotive superintendent of the line, joined the old Helouan Railway Company in that position on its formation in 1888, and has continued in that capacity ever since.

TRAFFIC.

The light railway system of the Delta Light Railways, Limited, may generally be considered to act as feeders to the Egyptian State Railways, about 350,000 tons of traffic being exchanged with them annually, in addition to the large amount of traffic moved in the Delta ultimately for their benefit, including about 150,000 tons of cotton.

The principal goods carried are: Building material, unginned cotton, manure, grain and pulse, and cotton seed.

In 1908, the Delta Light Railways carried 188,039 tons of building material and 144,653 tons of unginned cotton, while the State Railways carried 380,789 and 144,493 tons respectively, the Delta Railways thus handling 160 tons more of unginned cotton during that year than the Egyptian State Railways. The above items alone indicate the immense advantage of the light railways to the agriculturist and to Egypt.

Probably the best indication of the increase in the production of the Delta can be obtained from a comparison during the last seven years of the goods carried by the Delta Railways over their light lines.

The following table shows this from the year 1902, when the Delta Railways became proprietors, with the exception of the Basse Egypt Line, of the present light railway system of the Delta:—

	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Building materials	88,903	75,931	102,080	114,799	143,281	188,382	188,039
Cotton	126,044	111,049	136,375	135,606	135,204	164,924	152,416
Cotton seed	22,638	33,658	27,054	36,915	37,107	41,142	23,853
Other seed	1,668	2,310	3,022	2,714	2,856	3,021	3,093
Clothing, &c.	721	756	875	905	813	1,032	1,092
Grain and pulse...	31,024	37,141	45,609	44,527	43,615	43,118	49,698
Manure	82,215	60,267	60,412	60,609	74,450	74,561	73,532
Onions	1,470	1,711	1,942	2,497	2,503	2,470	2,014
Straw (chopped)	13,018	17,420	25,661	32,384	33,685	19,530	18,127
Timber	16,642	21,589	25,090	25,070	26,340	27,140	23,744
Water melons	1,826	2,451	3,369	4,035	4,030	4,291	4,773
Other merchandise	22,496	20,330	25,263	27,400	21,157	22,274	20,350
Total	408,665	390,613	456,753	487,452	525,041	591,885	560,731

The above is the Delta traffic only, and does not include that of the Helouan Branch.

The prosperity of the Delta is particularly indicated by the increase in the transport of building material and timber, there being in 1908 nearly 100,000 tons more of the former and 7,102 tons of the latter transported than in 1902. The transport of clothing has increased by over 50 tons yearly.

The total expenditure and earnings on the Light Lines and Helouan Railway since 1904, the date the latter railway was taken over, are as follow:—

	LIGHT LINES.		HELOUAN.		TOTAL.	
	Expenditure	Earnings	Expenditure	Earnings	Expenditure	Earnings
	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.	£E.
1905 ...	98,200	160,599	26,086	42,149	124,286	202,748
1906 ...	101,193	170,320	26,857	48,217	128,050	218,537
1907 ...	113,313	196,855	29,705	52,531	143,018	249,386
1908 ...	124,290	212,926	37,531	56,754	161,821	269,680

The total goods traffic of all kinds transported over all the Company's Light Lines and receipts therefrom in 1906 amounted to 1,139,440 tons at £E81,887; in 1907, 1,120,912 tons at £E90,040; and in 1908, 1,349,196 tons at £E90,502. It is interesting to note that, notwithstanding the severe depression that existed in trade in Egypt during 1907–8, the above figures indicate that the transport, and consequently, trade was little affected in the Delta. The results obtained from the reorganisation of the Helouan Line are mainly responsible for the growing increase in the yearly returns of the Company, there being in 1908, 1,267,966 passengers carried, and 375,806 tons of goods, as compared with 701,701 passengers, and 208,530 tons of goods in 1903, the last complete year of the old Helouan Railway administration. The total earnings for the Helouan Line for the year 1908 amounted to £E56,754, as against £E36,591 in 1903.

GENERAL.

There are 936 kilometres of light lines open to traffic = 581·53 miles, and 40 kilometres of broad gauge = 24·88 miles.

The percentage of working expenses to gross receipts vary from 57 to 60 per cent., the fluctuation being principally due to the price of coal. The average receipts per mile per year amounted to £E393,022 m/ms. in 1906, £E436,800 m/ms. in 1907, and £E451,712 m/ms. in 1908. The total number of employés in 1898 was 2,729, excluding daily paid, and the total amount of the pay rolls £E89,695.

A provident fund has been established in lieu of pension for the benefit of the employés.

FINANCE.

The authorised capital of the Company is 125,000 5½ per cent. cumulative preference shares of £10 each, and 11,000 deferred shares of £10 each, amounting to a total of £1,360,000; in addition there is a sum of £857,871 15s. 11d. issued in debentures, forming the total authorised capital of £2,217,871 15s. 11d. Against this capital the sum of £1,150,567 and £777,811 15s. 11d. have been issued against shares and debentures respectively, forming the total of

£1,928,278. The authorised debentures are 5,050 5 per cent. of £E100 each, 12,500 3½ per cent. of £20 each, and 1,003 4 per cent. of £100 each.

The dividends declared since 1904 are as follow:—1905, 4 per cent.; 1906, 5 per cent.; 1907, 5½ per cent., and 1908, 5½ per cent.

ADMINISTRATION.

There is a board of directors consisting of ten members, six of whom reside in London and four in Egypt. The present chairman of the board is Sir William Garstin, K.C.B., appointed on November 10, 1908, late Adviser to the Ministry of Public Works in Egypt, who, when filling that capacity, was chiefly responsible for the introduction of the light railway system into Egypt. The previous chairman was the late Sir Auckland Colvin, K.C.S.I., K.C.M.G., C.I.E., who died in March, 1908, and who had held the position of chairman since the formation of the Company. The managing director is Major W. I. Le Breton, appointed in 1906 on the resignation of Lieut.-Colonel Marryat, R.E.

The agent and general manager of the Company in Egypt is Captain A. Adams, late R.E., who was appointed in February, 1899, and he has thus had charge of the system almost from the commencement.

The present manager, together with Lieut.-Colonel Marryat, the late managing director, are responsible for the rapid progress the Delta Light Railways have made both in receipts and extension. The successful amalgamation with the "Chemin de Fer Economique de l'Est Egyptien" was due to their initiative, and owing to their strong recommendation and foresight in realising the benefits to be derived from the reorganisation of the Helouan Railway, that system was purchased. The results have more than justified expectations.

On the retirement of Lieut.-Colonel Marryat he was given a handsome bonus by the Company in recognition of his services; but it may here be remarked that Egypt derived more benefit than the Company itself from those services.

The Light Railways are second only to the Irrigation as an agency for the advancement and prosperity of the Delta. The fellaheen are brought into closer touch with the outer world, the landowner with his market, and a large field of employment has been introduced. The telegraph system of the Light Railways has proved most beneficial, and the mails are carried and distributed all over the Delta, and it can well be understood that the policing and administration of the Delta is greatly facilitated. There is no doubt that the Menufieh Province of the Delta would have greatly benefited in the past had light railways been constructed there.

Mr. J. A. W. Peacock, M.I.Mech.E., late chief engineer and locomotive superintendent, who left the Company on February 14, 1906, having been appointed on May 5, 1897, was responsible for the construction of the light lines in the northern provinces of the Delta. The present secretary of the Company is Mr. F. J. Horne; and the bankers are the Bank of England and National Bank of Egypt.

The London office address is 211, Gresham House, Old Broad Street, and in Cairo, the Standard Buildings.

The cable address of the Company is "Deltalight."

CAPTAIN A. ADAMS is a Canadian, and was at the Royal Military College, Kingston, Canada, from 1883 to 1887, graduating as Bronze Medallist and Prizeman in Civil Engineering. He went to California for a year on the Santa Fe Railway, where he gained his first practical experience. In 1888 he accepted a commission in the Royal Engineers, and, after spending two years at the School of Military Engineering at Chatham, went to India in 1900, where he was employed in the Military Works and Public Works Departments. Appointed in 1893 to the Railway Branch as an assistant engineer on the Burma State Railways, Captain Adams soon afterwards was transferred to the Traffic Department, serving successively as assistant and district traffic superintendents, until he was selected for the appointment of assistant manager of the line, which he filled creditably for five years. He came to Egypt in 1899 in his present position as Agent and General Manager of the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, when the line was less than 100 kilometres, and through his energy and foresight in carrying out amalgamation with the Chemin de Fer Economique de l'Est Egyptien and Cairo-Helouan Railway he has built up the present system of 1,000 kilometres, and made the Company one of the most important concerns in Egypt.

FAYOUM LIGHT RAILWAYS.

From Fayoum, which is reached by means of a branch line from Wasta Junction on the State Railway System, seven separate lines of 75 cm. (2 feet 6 inches) gauge radiate to Shawashna, Gharak, Nezleh Wadi, Kalamsha, Tamieh, Roda, and Lahun. Including sidings they have a total working length of 190 kilometres. Their construction was commenced in 1898 by private enterprise under a concession granted by the Government for seventy years. At the expiration of this term the whole of the rights of the concessionnaires revert, without compensation, to the Government, who further have the option of purchase at any time after May 1, 1931, on certain terms based on the capitalisation at 4½ per cent. for the unexpired term of the concession, of an annuity equal to the average net profit of the five best of the seven preceding years, plus the annuity for the redemption of debentures issued with the authority of the Government. In the meantime the Government guarantee the concessionnaires an annual net income calculated at the rate of £E36 per kilometre upon the whole of the lines. The Government, however, has never been called upon to pay this guarantee. Nevertheless, under the management of the original Company, which was the first to be floated and conducted entirely by Egyptians, the project proved unsuccessful, the highest profit made in any one year being £E6,000—a sum barely sufficient to pay the coupons on the debentures. In 1906 the Anglo-Belgian Company of Egypt, Limited, having acquired the majority of the shares and debentures, assumed control. Under the new administration the receipts, which had amounted to £E22,506 in 1905, rose to £E25,573 in 1906, while the expenditure fell from £E16,309 to £E14,365, leaving a profit of £E11,208. In 1907 the receipts were £E27,013 and the expenditure was £E13,690—showing a profit of £E13,323. The ratio of working expenses to receipts dropped from 72 per cent. in 1905 (the year before the line was taken over by the present proprietors) to 56 per cent. in 1906, and to 50 per cent. in 1907. The old administration left a legacy of coupons in arrears, but this indebtedness has since been discharged, and, of course, the coupons falling due in the meantime have all been paid. It is probable that a dividend will be declared on the shares, for the first time, for 1908, and provision has already been made for the amortisation of the capital, which consists of £104,400 sterling in £4 nominative shares, with debentures to the value of £104,400 sterling (5,220 debentures of £20 sterling each) bearing interest at the rate of 4 per cent. The number of passengers carried over the lines in 1906 was 614,671; in 1907, 721,101; and in 1908, 891,531.

WESTERN OASES RAILWAY.

From Khargeh Junction, which is situated between the stations of Abu Ticht and Farshut, some three hours north of Luxor, on the State Railways, a line of 196·612 kilometres, or about 122 miles in length, branches off to the Western Oases. It was constructed by the Corporation of Western Egypt, Ltd., under a concession granted by the Egyptian Government. The concession is for a period of seventy years, during which the Corporation has the monopoly of railway communication between the Valley of the Nile and the Oases. The Government, however, reserved the right of expropriating the railway at any time before March 5, 1936, and it was notified in Cairo early this year that the Council of Ministers has sanctioned the draft agreement whereby the Government acquire the line from the Corporation for £E125,000. The construction of the line was commenced in November, 1905, and occupied about two years. It was opened for traffic on January 17, 1908, by H.E. Hussein Fakhry Pasha, representing H.H. the Khedive.

Six kilometres after leaving the State Railways the Corporation's Base Station at Qara is reached, and here the locomotive repair shops, carriage sheds, &c., are situated. The line runs by easy gradients to kilometre 25, where the ascent up the Wadi to the Libyan plateau begins, and then crosses the plateau with slight undulations until kilometre 145 is reached, at which point the sharpest gradient—1 in 40—is met. There the descent to the Khargeh Oasis begins. It continues for some 16 kilometres, after which the route runs on past the Corporation Oases Headquarters to the village of Khargeh. The journey occupies about seven hours.

The line is of ·75 metre (2 feet 6 inches) gauge, and the rails, which weigh 36 lbs. to the lineal yard, are for the most part laid on steel sleepers, except in the Nile Valley and

the Oases end of the track, where wooden sleepers are used. The locomotives were specially built by Nasmyth, Wilson & Co., of Manchester, and the coaches by the Metropolitan Amalgamated Railway Carriage & Waggon Company, Ltd., of Birmingham.

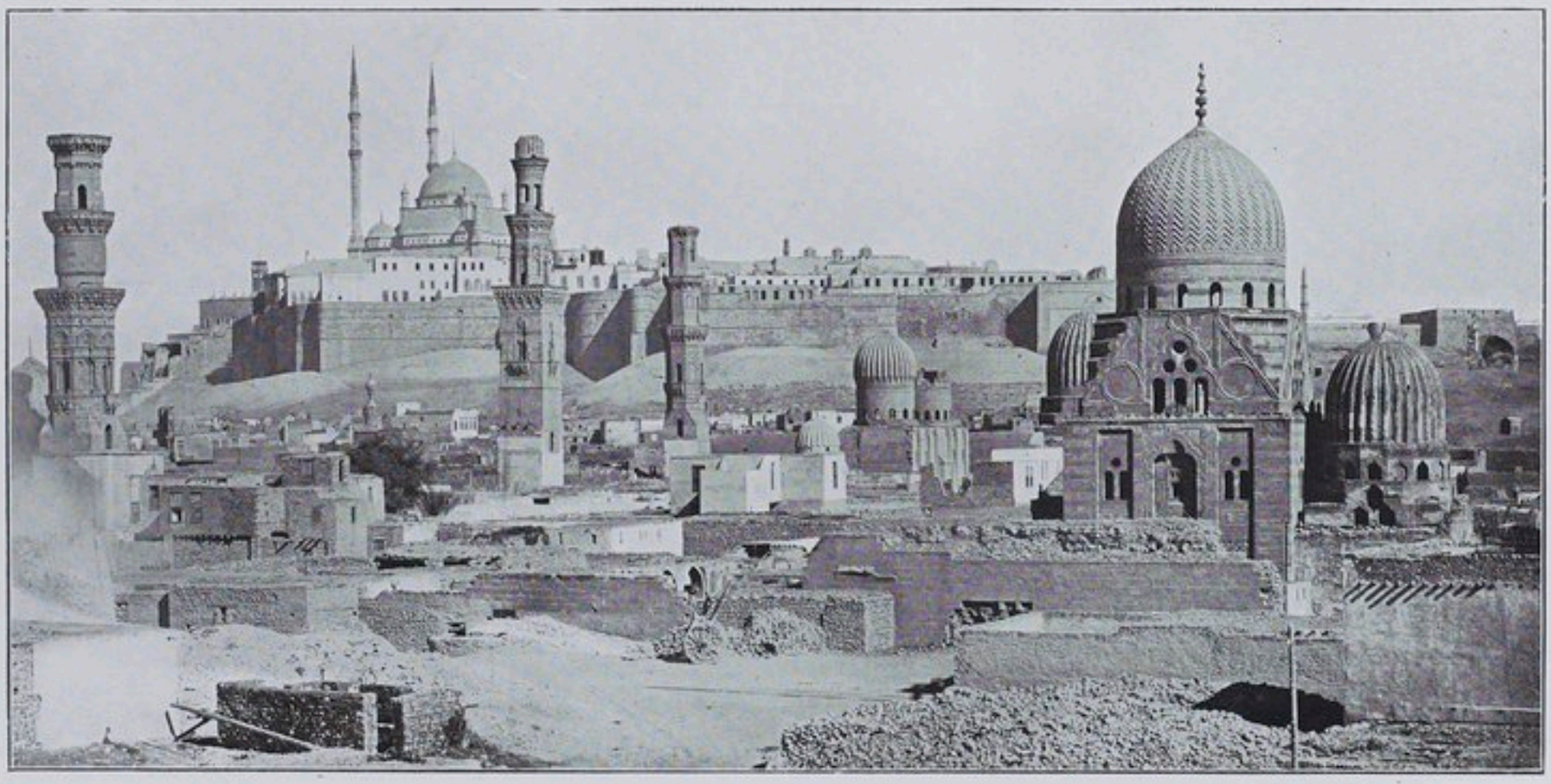
Trains (mixed passengers and goods) are run twice a week each way—from the Nile Valley on Tuesdays and Fridays, and from the Oases on Mondays and Thursdays.

A rest house for the accommodation of visitors has been built at the Khargeh Oasis, and every facility is afforded for visiting the temple of Hibis, the Christian Necropolis, the underground village of Khargeh, &c.

MARIOUT RAILWAY.

From Alexandria along the northern coast of Egypt there is creeping steadily towards the frontier of Tripoli a line of railway, promoted by no less a personage than the ruler of the land—the Khedive. Its present objective is Mersa Matrouh, 287 kilometres from Alexandria; but it is generally accepted that the line, to attain its full fruition, must be continued to Sidi Barani and Solloum on the frontier, where an interchange of commodities between Egypt and Tripoli should be developed.

As a large landowner in the district traversed by the railway, the attention of His Highness was attracted to the cramping lack of transport facilities for its development. First of all he constructed an excellent road. This was superseded by a Light Railway; but in 1900 His Highness gave orders for its conversion into a railway of normal gauge, 4 feet 8½ inches, and work was begun immediately. As the railhead is advanced, the old road is allowed to fall into disrepair, but arrangements are being made to construct subsidiary branch lines to fulfil the necessities of the district. Already there is a considerable amount of traffic over the line, both passenger and goods, the receipts in 1905 reaching £E16,955, yielding a return of from 10 to 12 per cent. Upwards of 500,000 tons of goods are sent over the line every year, and the yearly average of passengers is already over 200,000. First-class stations, with restaurants, waiting rooms, and all the customary conveniences of modern railway systems are provided at the termini, and a new station has been built at the Monasleh Junction to facilitate passenger traffic between the Mariout Railway and the Egyptian State Railway. His Highness takes the closest personal interest in the progress of the line, and makes frequent visits from Cairo to inspect the work and to his estates along the route. There can be no doubt that, conducted on sound commercial principles, the line will be a great success, while it is impossible to over-estimate the benefit that will accrue to the agriculturists and others along the northern provinces of the Delta.



THE CITADEL AND TOMBS OF THE MAMELUKES CAIRO.



THE GENERAL POST OFFICE, CAIRO.

POSTS, TELEGRAPHS, AND TELEPHONES.

IT would tax the powers of the most inventive and imaginative of writers to find anything new to say regarding the usefulness of the postal and telegraphic services in any country. The benefits conferred upon civilised humanity by these means of sure and rapid communication have become accepted long since as matters of course. It is impossible to imagine any semi-civilised country even without them ; and the condition of modern Egypt without these indispensable conveniences, including the telephone system in the principal centres, is inconceivable.

THE POSTAL SYSTEM.

The institution of a modern postal system in Egypt was due to the enterprise of an Italian company styled the "Posta Europea," which inaugurated the business of letter-carriage in the country some years before 1865. But the official postal system dates from January 1 of that year, on which day the Government took over by purchase the rights of the private company. In the early days, the correspondence, packed in bags, was carried by railway, or by the boats of the river lines, or by couriers on foot or horseback. The system, so far as it extended then, was of the same nature as that of European countries. It possessed no features peculiar to the ancient land of the Nile. Post offices after the modern type were established in the principal centres, and the delivery of letters was made from a small wicket or window. Those who subscribed for the privilege had their correspondence handed to them at a special window. Some three or four years after the Government assumed control, the system was introduced in Cairo and Alexandria of special boxes which could be rented by those who preferred, and could afford, the luxury of this method of receiving their correspondence. The only difference between a system of distribution such as existed at the same period in London, for instance, and that in operation in the Egyptian towns was that in the latter, owing to the uncertain nomenclature of the streets and the fact that the houses were not numbered, a street delivery was impossible. Persons expecting letters had to take the trouble to inquire for them at the Post Office. It was not until 1884 that a delivery to houses was instituted in Cairo and Alexandria. But even then this convenience was not general. It was a privilege which had to be paid for by each householder desiring to benefit from it, the charge to each such being 5 piastres per month. Some years afterwards this charge was abolished, and a house-to-house delivery was established in all the principal centres, the system of distribution being thus brought thoroughly up to date. The foreign parcel post was established on October 1, 1881, the maximum weight then allowed being 3 kilogrammes. By decision of the Lisbon Postal Congress of 1886 this limit was raised to 5 kilogrammes. The parcels are delivered at the post offices, the addressees being notified in writing of the arrival of the packages.

When the Government took over the postal business in 1865, the rate for letters was fixed at 1 piastre (2½d. in English money) for each 10 grammes (a gramme equals about 15½ grains troy) for Lower Egypt, while 2 piastres was charged on letters of the same weight for places in Upper Egypt and on the Red Sea. Letters for the Soudan, however, in consequence of the expense of transport to that distant part in those days of the infancy of railway extension, were charged at higher rates, varying according to the distance. Foreign correspondence, before the inauguration of the Postal Union in 1875, was carried to and from Egypt under the scale of rates fixed by a Convention with Great Britain, Austria, and Italy, the tariff varying according to the country of origin or destination, each country levying a different charge for letters, newspapers, and patterns. Letters for countries with which Egypt had no postal agreement, in addition to being charged the internal rate, had to be prepaid with the foreign stamps of the country of destination ; and if these were not procurable and not affixed in Egypt the recipients abroad were charged double the foreign rate on delivery. All letters for abroad from Alexandria, Cairo, Port Said, and Suez—which were of course the principal centres of foreign correspondence—were sent to the foreign post offices in these towns, each principal European country having its own post office. With the inauguration of the Postal Union, on July 1, 1875, which Egypt joined upon its institution, a welcome change was effected. The cumbersome and anomalous system of dealing with foreign correspondence hitherto prevailing was abolished, and the present system, under which letters for abroad are sent through the Egyptian Post Office, was established. A uniform rate was fixed of 1½ piastres for each 15 grammes, reduced three years later to 1 piastre for each 15 grammes. In the case of those foreign countries which had not joined the Union, the charges were fixed according to destination.

A comparison of the time occupied in the carriage of corre-spondence in the early days of the postal system and that required for transmission to-day, shows, as regards both Lower and Upper Egypt, a reduction of one-half. This improvement has been rendered possible by the increased facilities and rapidity of communication throughout the country, afforded, principally, by the extension of the railway system. While, as regards the Soudan, which has now been brought within neighbourly reach by the fast Nile traffic and the Soudan railway, journeys which, before these facilities were provided, occupied ten, twenty, and even thirty days, and were attended with risk and danger, are now accomplished in perfect safety and with European certainty in from four to six days. This improvement of the postal service throughout the Nile region as far south as Khartoum is not the least conspicuous of the benefits which have followed upon the institution of British rule in that region. In the town where no long time back Gordon met his heroic end, the tourist now has his letters from home or elsewhere delivered at his hotel, and the resident his correspondence at his house or office, with punctuality and despatch. With the general development of

the country under British sway during the last twenty years, the foreign correspondence into and out of Egypt has naturally increased largely.

The advance of the postal system in Egypt to its present creditable condition of efficiency has been marked of later years by successive reductions in the postal tariff. On April 1, 1878, the letter rate was reduced from 1 piastre for 10 grammes weight to 1 piastre for 15 grammes for Lower Egypt, and from 2 piastres for 10 grammes to 1 piastre for 15 grammes for Upper Egypt, thus making the rate both lower and uniform for the whole country. (To-day this rate is half a piastre (about 1¼d.) for each 30 grammes or fraction thereof.) On the same date the rate for letters for delivery in the town of origin was reduced from 1 piastre for 10 grammes to half a piastre (5 millièmes) for 15 grammes. (To-day this rate is 3 millièmes for each 30 grammes.) At the same time, the prepayment of letters for abroad was reduced from 1½ piastres to 1 piastre for 15 grammes; while the registration fee on letters was lowered from 2 piastres to 1 piastre per article. (To-day this duty is 5 millièmes for the inland service and 10 millièmes, or 1 piastre, for the foreign service.)



THE POST OFFICE, ALEXANDRIA.

Two years later the river mail service between Assiout and Assouan was inaugurated. Prior to the installation of this service the postal despatches were conveyed between these two centres, distant 330 miles from each other, by couriers; but specie was not accepted for carriage. This new development shortened the time of transmission from Cairo to Khartoum by seven days, the reduction being from twenty-eight to twenty-one days. In October of the same year, the river mail service in the Delta between Kafr el Zayat and Atfe, on the Rosetta branch of the Nile, was established, in conjunction with carriage of specie and passengers. This service has since been superseded by railway conveyance. In November of the following year, the river service on the Bahr el Seghir was initiated, together with conveyance of specie and passengers.

A change that entailed considerable pecuniary loss upon the Post Office came with 1888, when, in February of that year, the Indian mails, inward and outward bound, ceased to be conveyed between Alexandria and Suez, carriage by way of the Canal being substituted. During the following year, the rural postal service was inaugurated, a provision necessitated by the general development of the agricultural districts. In May, 1890, the postal service by river—between Assiout and Assouan—was entrusted by the Government to Messrs. Thos. Cook and Son, the pioneers of the modern Nile traffic. Other new features introduced in the same year were the inauguration of the system of collection at post offices of subscriptions to domestic and foreign newspapers, the institution of street delivery, and the reduction from one piastre to half that amount in the charge on letters for the interior. In 1895, the postal department relinquished the monopoly which up to that time it had held of the conveyance of specie on the railway. In 1897, the river service in the Delta between Mansourah and Menzaleh, on the Damietta branch of the Nile, was abolished. In the following year, the maximum weight for letters to be carried for half a piastre within the country was doubled—from 15 to 30 grammes, this being the existing rate. In 1900, the system of payment of money orders at the recipients' own houses was inaugurated. The adoption of the penny postage between Great Britain and her possessions had the effect of reducing, in December, 1905, the charge on Egyptian letters for those countries to half a piastre (1¼d.) for 15 grammes, and a further concession of another 15 grammes was subsequently made. Then, on January 1, 1906, the registration fee on letters was reduced by one half—from 1 piastre to 5 millièmes—on correspondence for the interior, and was fixed at 1 piastre on letters for abroad, and the duty on money orders from 4 to 3 millièmes per £E1. July 1 of that year witnessed the inauguration of what is virtually the penny post with Italy and her colonies—a charge of 5 millièmes for 15 grammes weight—a concession since increased to 20 grammes for the same amount.

The first issue of postage stamps took place in 1866, following upon the acquisition of the postal business by the Government from the Posta Europea Company in the preceding year; and the stamps were of the following denominations:—5 paras, 10 paras, 20 paras, 1 piastre, 2 piastres, 5 piastres, and 10 piastres. The values of the stamps now in use are 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 millièmes, and 1, 2, 5, and 10, piastres. Stamped envelopes of the values of 1, 2, and 5 millièmes and 1 piastre are issued; also newspaper wrappers of the denominations of 1 and 2 millièmes, the charge for newspapers published in Egypt being 1 millième per number, and for other newspapers and printed matter of all kinds 1 millième for each 30 grammes weight or fraction thereof. Single post cards are carried within the country for 2 millièmes each and reply cards for 4 millièmes, while post cards for abroad are charged double these rates. The commission on money orders payable in Egypt is 3 millièmes per £E1; if payable in the Soudan the commission is half a piastre (5 millièmes) for each £E1, with a minimum charge of 1 piastre on each order. The receipts from the sale of postage stamps in 1908 amounted to £E230,715, the denominations in largest demand being those of 1 millième and 5 millièmes, the latter being the general letter rate for the country. The fee for registration is 5 millièmes in addition to the postage. The inland parcels rates are:—For Egypt: not exceeding 1 kilogramme in weight, 3 piastres; 1 to 3 kilogrammes, 4 piastres; 3 to 5 kilogrammes,

5 piastres. For Wadi Halfa and the Soudan: not exceeding 1 kilogramme, 6 piastres; 1 to 3 kilogrammes, 8 piastres; 3 to 5 kilogrammes, 10 piastres.

The rates of postage for abroad are:

	Piastres.	Mill.
LETTERS:		
To United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and all British Colonies, Possessions, and Protectorates with the exception of Newfoundland; also to Italy (including Colonies of Eritrea and Benadir):—		
For each 20 grammes or fraction thereof - - - - - - 1½d.	—	5
To other Countries in the Postal Union:—		
For the first 20 grammes - - -	1	0
For every additional 20 grammes -	—	6
To Countries not in the Postal Union:—		
For every 20 grammes or fraction thereof - - - - - - -	1	0
REGISTRATION FEE (in addition to postage)	1	0
POST CARDS (Official or private cards) - - -	—	4
Illustrated post cards can be transmitted at the reduced rate for "printed matter" if they bear no communication, and the words "Post Card" are erased.		
NEWSPAPERS, PRINTED MATTER, & SAMPLES:		
For each 50 grammes or fraction thereof -	—	2
with a minimum charge in the case of commercial papers of - -	1	0
and in the case of samples of - -	—	5
MONEY ORDERS (on the United Kingdom and all British Possessions):		
Commission on each Order for any sum up to £40 in the case of the United Kingdom. For each £E or fraction thereof - -	1	0
POSTAL ORDERS (payable in British countries only):		
Commission payable on Orders from 6d. to 2/6 - - - - - - - - -	—	3
On Orders from 3/- to 15/6 - - -	—	6
On Orders from 16/- to 21/- - -	—	9
PARCELS (To the United Kingdom):		
Not exceeding 5 kilogrammes { viâ France	13	0
Not exceeding 5 kilogrammes { viâ Italy	15	0
Viâ Port Said and Gibraltrar by British steamers:		
Not exceeding 1 kilogramme - -	6	0
Exceeding 1 but not exceeding 3 kilos.	9	0
Exceeding 3 but not exceeding 5 kilos.	12	0
Parcels when handed in at the Post Office in Egypt, must be accompanied by "despatch notes" and "Customs declarations" duly filled up. These forms are obtainable at the Post Office free of charge.		

As far back as 1873 the money order system was adopted by the Egyptian post office; and on August 1, 1905, the service of postal orders with the United Kingdom and the British Possessions came into being. The amount of international money orders issued in Egypt during 1908 was £828,000; and of those paid, £97,400. The great difference between these figures will at once be noticed. The Savings Bank in connection with the Post Office was established on March 31, 1901; and at the end of 1908 the number of depositors was 86 728, the total amount standing to their credit being £E401,933. As has already been stated, the system of distribution of correspondence to renters of private boxes was brought into existence in Cairo and Alexandria in the earliest days of the Egyptian postal service. Nowadays, in accordance with the modern plan, private boxes are provided in all the principal post offices. The rural service, instituted in 1889 and since gradually extended, permits of the delivery of letters to all the inhabited parts of the country, including villages away from the railway system. Altogether the postal department employs some 2,800 hands; and the total receipts for 1908 were £E295,947, against an expenditure of £E260,500.

Mails are carried overseas between Egypt and Europe, America and the further East by several lines of steamers. All the chief lines of mail steamers between Europe and India, Australia, and the Far East pass through the Suez Canal, depositing or receiving the Egyptian mails at Port Said. Between Europe and Egypt there are four principal services, all weekly, and running on different days, namely: by the Peninsular and Oriental steamers, between Brindisi and Port Said; the Austrian Lloyds boats, between Brindisi and Alexandria; the German Lloyds line, between Naples and Alexandria; the packets of the Italian line (Navigazione Italiana) also between Naples and Alexandria; and the French line (Messageries Maritimes) between Marseilles and Alexandria. The letter mails between England and Egypt are conveyed across the Channel from Dover to Calais (and vice versâ), and overland across the Continent to one or the other of the above ports on the Mediterranean. The principal lines of steamers used for the carriage of the English mails across the Mediterranean are the Peninsular and Oriental, the Austrian Lloyds, and the Italian line. No English mails are transmitted by the German line, and few by the French line. The shortest time in which letters can be carried between England and Egypt is four days by the Peninsular and Oriental service across the Mediterranean, five days by the Austrian line, and six days by the Italian line. As many as from eighty to ninety large bags of letters form an average mail from London to Egypt. The mails between the United States and Egypt pass through London, being there received from, or despatched to, the latter country in company with the English mails. Postal parcels are carried to and from London and Port Said in eight days by the trans-continental service, and in thirteen days by the all-sea route, taking a day longer, by either service, to reach Alexandria.

The following particulars will show the volume of the business transacted by the Egyptian Post Office during 1908:—

CORRESPONDENCE.

	No.
Inland Service:	
Ordinary and Registered Letters	24,639,000
Postcards	2,105,000
Newspapers, Commercial Papers, and Samples	15,239,000
Total	41,983,000
Foreign Service:	
Despatched—	
Ordinary and Registered Letters	6,657,000
Postcards	1,482,000
Newspapers, Commercial Papers, and Samples	3,068,000
Total	11,207,000
Received—	
Ordinary and Registered Letters	6,717,000
Postcards	1,256,000
Newspapers, Commercial Papers, and Samples	8,367,000
Total	16,340,000

PARCELS.

Inland Service	404,500
Foreign Service—Despatched	125,750
Received	339,680
Total	869,930

THE TELEGRAPH SYSTEM.

Electric telegraphic communication was introduced in Egypt about sixty years ago, the first connection by wire being between Cairo and Alexandria. The system has been extended gradually since until it now covers the whole of the inhabited parts of the country, with the exception of the remote oases. The wires have been carried over the southern border into the Soudan, and, through Khartoum, as far south as Gondokoro. Transmission on the Cairo-Alexandria section was originally effected by needle circuits; but that method of transmission was long ago superseded by the quadruplex system between these two main centres; and this system has now also been established over the whole length of the line from Cairo to Wadi Halfa, on the southern boundary of Egypt. Sections of secondary importance are worked by the duplex system; while at the ordinary offices Morse or Sounder instruments are employed. During 1907 the length of new wires erected was 935 kilometres; and the length of telegraph lines (not including telephone wires) in operation (at time of writing) is 4,667 kilometres (a kilometre equals ⅝ of an English mile), the length of wires being 19,856 kilometres. No important extensions are at present in contemplation, the system being complete so far as concerns existing centres of habitation.

The control of the internal telegraph system of Egypt is under the administration of the Railways Department, not under the Post Office, as in other countries; and the telegraph staff numbers altogether some 1,411 hands. But a portion of the work of sending and receiving messages on railway service is performed by the railway station officials, who are not included in this total of employés. In 1907 just under 3½ millions of public service telegrams were transmitted, as against just under 2½ millions commercial messages, the total number of all telegrams sent being 6 millions. Despite the severe financial depression which prevailed in the country during 1907, there was an increase of 157,496, or 6¼ per cent., in the number of commercial messages transmitted over the total for 1906. But in the previous year, when normal financial conditions prevailed, the annual increase under this head was no less than 15 per cent. The total of telegrams in Arabic is almost double that of the messages in European languages, the numbers for 1907 being respectively 1,532,141 and 843,739. The urgent telegrams transmitted during the year amounted to 61,858, being in the ratio of 2¼ per cent. to the total of all messages. That the service gives general satisfaction may be gauged from the fact that the number of complaints received only averages two for every 10,000 telegrams.

Since the telegraph system was inaugurated in Egypt reductions in the charges for messages have been made from time to time. For the purposes of telegraph tariff Egypt is divided as follows:—Alexandria to Cairo, 1st division; Cairo to Assiout, 2nd division; Assiout to Esneh, 3rd division; Esneh to Halfa, 4th division. Originally the tariff for each division was 5 piastres for every ten words, and the cost of a message of ten words from the first to the third division was 15 piastres. This scale was reduced subsequently, all Egypt being made one division, and the cost of a message of ten words from any one part of the country to another was fixed at 5 piastres. This tariff was further lowered in 1891, when the charge for a message of eight words was reduced to half a piastre (5 millièmes) for every two words, or fraction of two words, with a minimum per message of 2 piastres. This is the existing rate for ordinary messages; and as a piastre equals 2½d. in British coinage, it is apparent that the minimum charge of 2 piastres (5d.) is 1d. less than the minimum rate in England. The charge for urgent telegrams is thrice the ordinary rate. The tariff for telegrams for the Soudan is for urgent messages, 4 piastres for every two words or fraction thereof, with a minimum charge per message of 16 piastres; for ordinary messages, 1½ piastres for each two words or fraction thereof, with a minimum charge per message of 6 piastres; for deferred messages, 1½ piastres for each four words or fraction thereof, with a minimum charge per message of 3 piastres. Deferred telegrams are not delivered to the addressee until forty-eight

hours after they are handed in at the office of origin. The number of State Telegraph Offices in Egypt is 317; and twenty-seven of these are open day and night. At places where it would be expensive to maintain a telegraphist, arrangement is made with the Postal Administration for the local postal agent to do the telegraph work (either on telegraph or telephone instrument), for which he is paid a small salary. The offices at which this arrangement is in force are included in the above number. During 1907 twelve new offices were opened, and two old ones were closed.

The total revenue of the service for 1907 was £E112,656, as against £E105,681 for 1906; and the expenditure for the former year amounted to £E106,047, as against £E91,714 for the latter. The surplus for 1907 therefore was £E6,609. In necessary accord with the figures given above of the numbers of messages sent in 1907, the percentage of annual increase in the revenue for the year was only 6 per cent., as against 14 per cent. in the previous year. To the stagnation in Stock Exchange transactions, in common with all financial business during 1907, may be attributed the decrease of 9,850 from a total of 71,708 in 1906, in the number of urgent telegrams transmitted. Of the increase of £E14,333 in the annual expenditure, some £E10,000 was due to improvements of the condition of the staff. During the year a new telegraph school was opened at Demerdache, at which about one hundred students are now in attendance.

Egypt is placed in direct telegraphic communication with the rest of the world by means of the submarine cables belonging to the Eastern Telegraph Company at their transmitting stations at Alexandria and Port Said. The Company's system was established in the country in 1862. The tariff with England is approximately 1s. per word.

TELEPHONES.

Egypt is furnished with facilities for telephonic communication by a private company which was established in 1881, just before the British occupation. The first lines were those erected by order of the Khedive for use in his palaces. From that time onward, the system has gradually been extended and improved, until now it embraces all the more populous centres, and is as efficient as any in Europe, the total kilometrage of telephone wires being 4,101, of which 1,007 kilometres were erected in 1907. Exchanges are in operation in Cairo, Zeitoun, Helouan, Alexandria, Ramleh, Tantah, Mansourah, Zagazig, Port Said, Suez, and Fayoum. Junction lines afford means of communication between the branch exchanges at Cairo and Alexandria, and a system of trunk lines, belonging to the Government, are at the disposal of the Company between Cairo and Alexandria, Cairo and Tantah, and Cairo and Zagazig. At present there are eight circuits of trunk telephone between Cairo and Alexandria, of which four are leased to the Telephone Company. There are also one circuit between Cairo and Tantah, and one between Cairo and Zagazig, both of which are leased to the Company. It is hoped further to develop the trunk line system in the near future by bringing Port Said, Suez, and a number of smaller towns into direct communication with the remainder of Egypt. There is a fairly extensive network of lines in the villages; and these are principally used by the Government Administration, especially for police work.

In Cairo and Alexandria the cables are laid, for the most part, underground. Practically the whole of the exchanges are worked on the "Magneto calling and clearing system, with indicators." Specially designed and commodious premises have recently been erected by the Company in Cairo, and to these it is intended eventually to transfer the whole of the local subscribers' lines. The system to be adopted in the new exchange is that of the "Magneto ringing, with lamp signals for calling and clearing." A power plant, with the necessary charging and ringing machines, is being installed, as well as an accumulator battery.

Owing to the cosmopolitan character of the community, it is necessary for each of the operators to understand at least four of the following five languages, namely, Arabic, French, English, Italian, and Greek—a circumstance probably without parallel in telephony. The total number of subscribers is approximately 6,000. The Telephone Company of Egypt, it may be mentioned, is associated with the Oriental Telephone and Electric Company of the Far East.

CAPTAIN NEVILLE TRAVERS BORTON BEY, who is at the head of the Postal and Telegraphic Department, entered the British army on May 29, 1890, and retired from the Royal Warwickshire Regiment in May, 1905.

H.E. SIR JOSEPH SABA PASHA, K.C.M.G., who retired in September, 1907, from the postal service, after a connection extending over thirty-five years, held for twenty years the office of Postmaster-General, and in that capacity thrice represented Egypt at congresses of the Postal Union. His valuable services have not lacked recognition, for the Egyptian Government have decorated him with the Order of Mejidieh, 1st class, and the Order of Osmanieh, 2nd class; Great Britain has created him a Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George; Italy has conferred upon him the Grand Cross of the Crown of Italy; and Austria has made him a Commander (with star) of the Order of Francis Joseph. Referring to his retirement, *L'Union Postale*, an official organ published in Berne, said: "This news will be very much regretted by all who had an opportunity of appreciating this distinguished gentleman, who possessed eminent qualities of mind and heart. Saba Pasha's retirement is a great loss to the Egpytian postal service, which he has organised in an excellent manner in every respect. It is also a great loss to the Postal Union, to the development of which he has contributed much by his active participation in the deliberations of the Postal Conrgesses of Vienna, Washington, and Rome. His name will be lastingly remembered in the history of the Postal Union." A son of the late Nichola Saba, Sir Joseph was born in Cairo in 1852. He joined the Post Office in April, 1872. Since his retirement his activities have been employed in connection with the Cairo Waterworks and the Frigorifique Company, Cairo, of which concerns he is now managing director. Recently, Sir Joseph was invited to undertake the reorganisation of the postal service in Turkey, but he declined the honour.



THE TOMB OF A SHEIKH AT MARG.

ECCLESIASTICAL.

MAHOMEDANISM.

WITH its hundred million adherents Mahomedanism easily takes rank amongst the great religions of the world. Next to Christianity and Judaism, it is the most widely diffused of all faiths. Followers of the Prophet are to be met with in all parts of Asia, even the most remote. They are scattered over a large part of Africa, and are found in small numbers in America and Australia and even in England. Egypt has been a great stronghold of the faith from its early days—from the period in the reign of the Caliph Omar when Amr, one of the most successful of the Mahomedan generals, planted the flag of Islam on the walls of the second city of the Greek Empire—the Cairo of to-day. That conquest was more than an extension of the power of the Caliphate. It was the deathblow to the establishment of Christianity as the predominant faith in Northern Africa. With ruthless severity the promising churches formed by the early Greek fathers were destroyed and their congregations killed or dispersed, and with feverish zeal the principles of Mahomed were proclaimed. In vain the serried multitudes of the Crusaders in the Delta and in Syria strove to recover the advantage that had been lost, and wrest from Mahomedan hands the holy places of Christianity. Islam, though occasionally beaten, in the end triumphed, and it won the position of overwhelming predominance in Egypt which it has never since lost or even allowed to be seriously threatened.

What is this faith which has had such a profound influence upon the destinies of the human race, and which is likely, for many generations to come, to be a leading factor in the moulding of the world's history? For a reply to this question we may turn to the famous chapter in Gibbon in which, to use the words of a great modern critic, the historian "has descended on this magnificent subject in all the fulness of his strength." The great historian, in eloquent language, traces the various religious movements which preceded the birth of Mahomed. Then he tells the story of the birth and early life of the Prophet. Mahomed (literally, "the Praised One") was born in the city of Mecca, A.D. 570. "His descent from Ismael was a national privilege or fable, but if the first steps of the pedigree were dark and doubtful, he could produce many generations of pure and genuine nobility; he sprang from the tribe of Koreish and the family of Hashem, the most illustrious of the Arabs, the princes of Mecca, and the hereditary guardians of the Kaaba (the famous temple enshrining the sacred stone). The grandfather of Mahomed was Abdol Motalleb, the son of Hashem, a wealthy and generous citizen who relieved the distress of famine with the supplies of commerce. Mecca, which had been fed by the liberality of the father, was saved by the courage of the son. The kingdom of Zemla was subject to the Christian princes of Abyssinia; their vassal Abrahah was provoked by an insult to avenge the honour of the cross, and the holy city was invested by a train of elephants and an army of Africans. A treaty was proposed; and in the first audience, the grandfather of Mahomed demanded the restitution of the cattle. 'And why,' said Abrahah, 'do you not rather implore my clemency in favour of your temple, which I have threatened to destroy?' 'Because,' replied the intrepid chief, 'the cattle is my own; the Kaaba belongs to the gods, and they will defend their house from injury and sacrilege.' The want of provisions, or the valour of the Koreish, compelled the Abyssinians to a disgraceful retreat. . . . The glory of Abdol Motalleb was crowned with domestic happiness; his life was prolonged to the age of one hundred and ten years, and he became the father of six daughters and thirteen sons. His best beloved, Abdallah, was the most beautiful and modest of Arabian youth; and in the first night when he consummated his marriage with Amina, of the noble race of Zahrites, two hundred virgins are said to have expired of jealousy and despair." Mahomed was the offspring of this union. "In his early infancy he was deprived of his father, his mother, and his grandfather: his uncles were strong and numerous; and in the division of the inheritance the orphan's share was reduced to five camels and an Ethiopian maid servant. At home and abroad, in peace and war, Abu Taleb, the most respectable of his uncles, was the guide and guardian of his youth; in his twenty-fifth year he entered into the service of Cadijah, a rich and noble lady of Mecca, who soon rewarded his fidelity with the gift of her hand and fortune. . . . By this alliance the son of Abdallah was restored to the station of his ancestors; and the judicious matron was content with his domestic virtues till, in the fortieth year of his age, he assumed the title of a prophet, and proclaimed the religion of the Koran."

Such in brief outline, as impressively told by the gifted author of "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," is the story of Mahomed's ancestry, birth, and early years. By general consent of all leading authorities, Mahomed was a man of great personal attractiveness. Gibbon refers to his "commanding presence, his majestic aspect, his piercing eye, his gracious smile, his flowing beard,



THE HOLY CARPET PROCESSION (MAHMAL), CAIRO.

his countenance that painted every sensation of the soul, and his gestures that enforced each expression of the tongue." He says, further, that the Prophet's "memory was capacious and retentive, his wit easy and social, his imagination sublime, his judgment clear, rapid, and decisive." Mr. Gilman, an



1. EL-SAYID BAKRI MOHAMED ASHOUR EL-SIDFA.

2. SAYED MOHAMED TEWFIK EL-BAKRI.

3. EL SAYED ABD-EL-HAMID EFFENDI EL-BAKRI.

authority on Saracenic history, gives this pen portrait of him: "His wide chest and broad shoulders were surmounted by a long and finely moulded neck, and a massive head, from which looked out a frank, oval face, marked by a prominent aquiline nose, large, restless and piercing black eyes over which long, heavy lashes drooped, and a bushy beard fell upon his breast." Mahomed's married life was one of supreme domestic happiness. To him were born two sons and four



A SHEIKH ON HIS DONKEY.

daughters. The former died very young, and only one of the daughters, Fatima, attained to any fame. This lady was the mother of Hassan and Hussein, whose tragic death at Kerbela at the hands of assassins has supplied the Mahomedan world with a Passion Play which vies with that of Oberammergau in sustained and moving interest.

Mahomed's rise from a position of comparative obscurity to the greatest heights of fame as a religious teacher, regarded by no inconsiderable section of the world's population as the inspired Prophet of the Most High, cannot be traced in detail here. It must suffice to say that from his earliest youth he was addicted to religious contemplation, and that as he advanced in years he withdrew himself more and more from the world, retiring, with his devoted wife, to a cave on the side of a mountain named Hera to the north of Mecca. In this remote spot he gave himself up to fasting, meditation, and prayer. At times he would fall into a trance and lie upon the ground as one dead. For years this travail of the soul went on, and then at length, in 610, in the fortieth year of his life, there came the crisis. On a certain night, according to his own account, the angel Gabriel appeared unto him and displayed to him a broad band of silk covered with written characters, of which the following is the translation:—

"Cry! in the name of Allah!
In the name of Allah who hath created man!
O arise and preach
And magnify Allah!"

The mission thus imposed was accepted. Mahomed went back into the world determined to fight the idolatry of his countrymen and to enforce upon them the supreme truth that there is only One God Almighty, All-merciful, Who claimed the adoration of their hearts. At the outset Mahomed had but poor success in his great work. For a long time his devoted wife was his sole convert. She was joined after an interval by his nephew Ali, a son of Abu Talib, and then Zeyd, a slave who had been freed by Mahomed and adopted as his son, cast in his lot with him. There were other adhesions as time went on, but progress was terribly slow, and the death of the beloved Cadijah cast a gloom over the life of the Prophet. To add to his misery the people of Mecca commenced to persecute Mahomed and his disciples. But, as ever in the history of religion, the oppression of the believers in the new faith only served to strengthen its position. Converts joined in numbers and soon Mahomed had quite a large following. The turning point in his career came one day when he received seven devout men who had come from Medina to Mecca to worship the sacred stone in the Kaaba. The Prophet spoke to the deputation of the splendour and purity of the creed which he had been divinely commanded to propagate, and urged them to turn from the worship of their false gods. Greatly impressed with what they had heard, the men of Medina returned to their native town and spread the news of the rise of this new faith. In this town the townsmen were much moved by what was told them, and, influenced by the seven, they gave their adhesion to the doctrines preached by Mahomed. Within a short space of time the whole population, with the exception of the Jews, was converted. When matters had reached this stage an invitation was sent to Mahomed to quit Mecca and establish himself in Medina as the spiritual ruler of the people. Nothing loth, Mahomed, in the month of June, A.D. 622, accepted the invitation and proceeded to Medina. Thus was consummated what is known in Mahomedan history as "The flight from Mecca." It is from the period of the Hegira, or Flight, that Mahomedan chronology is reckoned, and very appropriately so, for, as has been truly said by a modern writer at Medina "a new

life opened out for the Prophet—a life of the highest earthly power and dignity—his word being law, and his influence greater than that of a king, for he was Prince and Prophet in one." Thereafter Mahomedanism, aided by the sword, made gigantic strides, and the prophet lived to see his doctrines professed by millions of people inhabiting a considerable part of Asia. His death occurred on June 8, 632, when he was at the age of sixty-one. His last words were: "O Allah, succour me in the agonies of death! Gabriel, come close to thy servant. O Allah! grant pardon—yes, pardon and eternity in Paradise."



EXTERIOR OF THE MOHAMMED ALY MOSQUE, CAIRO.

In the Alkoran, or "the reading," Mahomed has left behind a testament of the highest interest and value. To the Mahomedan it is the most sacred of books, a revelation of divine purpose made by God to the Prophet through the angel Gabriel. As befitting such a work, it is treated with the highest honour and reverence by Mahomedans. "They generally take care," says Lane, "never to hold it or suspend it in such a manner as that it shall be below the girdle; and they deposit it upon a high and clean place; and never put another book or anything else on top of it. On quoting from it they usually say: 'He whose name be exalted (or 'God whose name be exalted') hath said in the Excellent Book.' They consider it extremely improper that the sacred volume should be touched by a Christian or a Jew, or any other person not a believer in its doctrines. . . . It is even forbidden to the Muslim to touch it unless he be in a state of legal purity; and hence these words of the book itself—'None shall touch it but they who are purified'—are often stamped upon the cover."

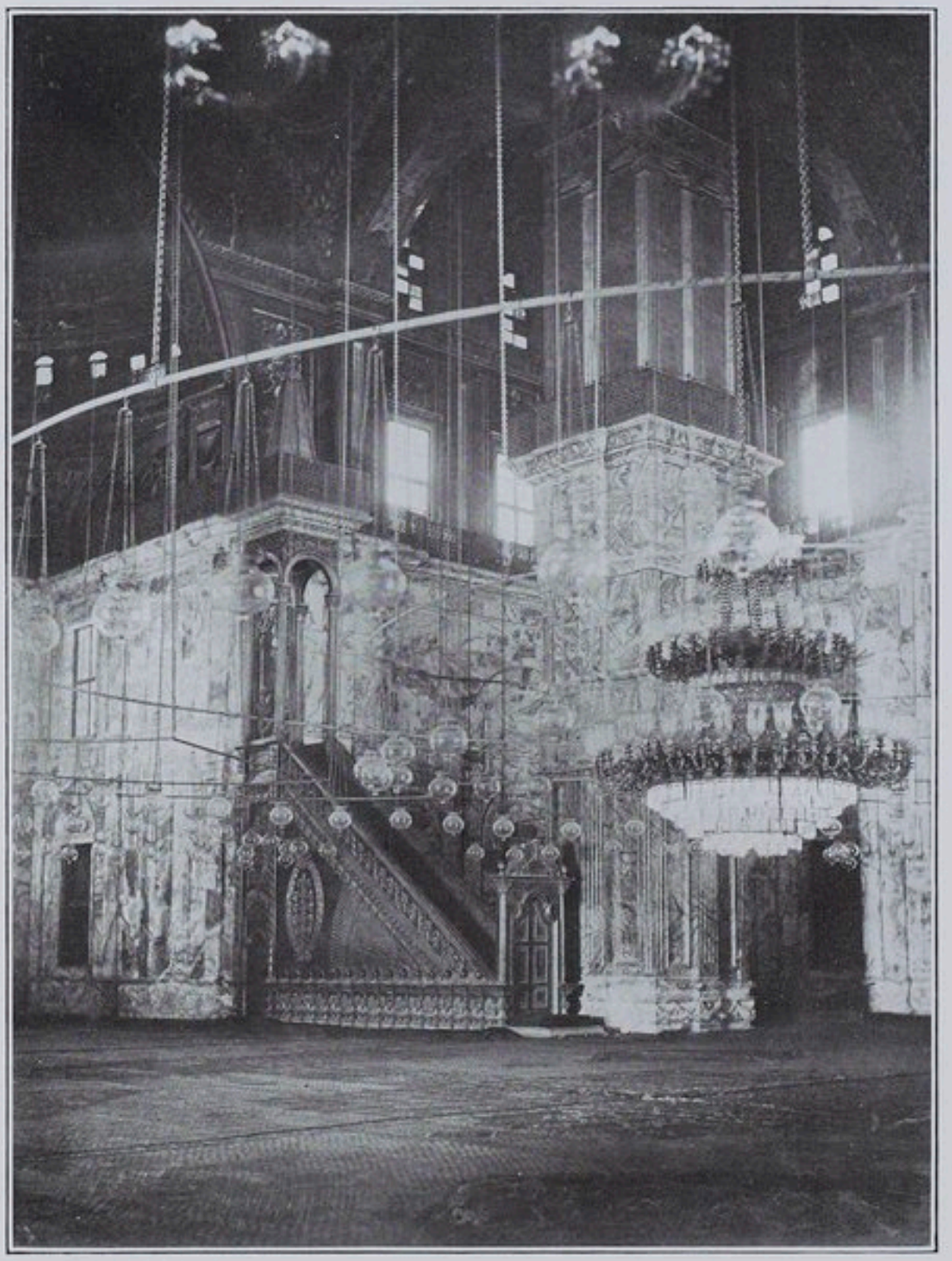
As for the contents of the volume they are extremely varied, and cover a multitude of subjects. It is not a series of books like the Christian Scriptures, but one book with a number of divisions of unequal length, which are called Suras, *i.e.* portions of chapters. There are 114 in all, some very short, and some very long. Mr. J. J. Pool in his "Studies in Mohammedanism" gives some interesting particulars relating to the Koran, which we may appropriately reproduce. "The Koran," he says, "contains 77,639 words and 323,015 letters. If we compare these figures with our Bible, which has 773,746 words and 3,566,480 letters, we see that the Mohammedan Scriptures are in bulk about one-tenth the size of the Christian. It is interesting to note that every Sura of the Koran has a title. The first is headed 'The Preface'; the second, 'The Cow'; the fourth, 'Women'; the fifth, 'Cattle'; the fourteenth, 'Abraham'; the sixteenth, 'The Bee.' Other titles are 'The Poets,' 'The Spider,' 'The Cave,' 'The Night Journey,' 'The Hypocrites,' 'The Slanderer,' 'The Elephant,' 'The Pen,' 'Man,' 'Smoke,' 'The Daybreak,' and so on. Every Sura also save one (the ninth) commences with the words, 'In the name of the most merciful God.' Mohammed evidently wished to impress most deeply on the minds of his disciples the divine origin of the Koran. From the beginning to the end of this remarkable book everything is declared to be in the name of the Most High."

Another writer conveys in some deft sentences a clear impression of the character of the contents of this sacred book of the Mahomedans. "Many passages," he says, "consist of theological or moral reflections. We are reminded of the greatness, the goodness, the righteousness of God as manifested in nature, in history, and in revelation through the Prophets, especially Mahommed. God is magnified as the One, the All-powerful. Idolatry, and all deification of created beings, such as the worship of Christ as the Son of God, are unsparingly condemned. The joys of heaven and the pains of hell are depicted in vivid, sensuous imagery, as is also the terror of the whole creation at the advent of the last day and the judgment of the world. Believers receive general moral instruction, as well as directions for special circumstances. The lukewarm are rebuked, the enemies threatened with terrible punishment, both temporal and eternal. To the sceptical the birth of Islam is held forth; and a certain, not very cogent, method of demonstration predominates. In many passages the sacred book falls into a diffuse preaching style, others seem more like proclamations or general orders. A great number contain ceremonial or civil laws, or even special commands to individuals, down to such matters as the regulation of Mahommed's harem. In not a few definite questions are answered, which had actually been propounded to the Prophet by believers or infidels. Mahommed himself, too, repeatedly receives direct injunctions, and does not escape an occasional rebuke."

As regards doctrine the Koran inculcates belief in God, in angels, in the scriptures, in a future life, and in predestination to good or evil. The leading tenet is thus forcibly expounded in the second sura, "God, there is no God but he, the living, the self-subsistent. Slumber takes Him not, nor sleep. He is what is in the heavens and what is in the earth. Who is it that intercedes with him save by his permission? He knows what is before them, and what behind them, and they comprehend not aught of his knowledge but what He pleases. His throne extends over the heavens and the earth, and it tires him not to guard them both, for He is high and grand." Belief in the prophets is held to embrace faith in Adam, Noah, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus, but Mahomed is regarded as the greatest of the men of God and the belief is emphasised in the statement which Mahomedans make: "There is no God but God,

and Mahomed is the Prophet of God." The Mahomedan view of a future life embraces a belief in a Resurrection, a Judgment Day, a Paradise for the good, and a Hell for the wicked. The joys of Paradise are thus painted in the Koran: "Herein are rivers of incorruptible water, and rivers of milk, the taste whereof changeth not, and rivers of wine pleasant unto those who drink, and rivers of clarified honey, and therein shall they have plenty of all kinds of fruits and pardon from their Lord. Moreover, they shall receive beauteous damsels as wives, having fine black eyes and complexions like rubies and pearls." On the other hand we have this presentment of hell: "Those who believe not shall have garments of fire fitted unto them, boiling water shall be poured on their heads, their intestines shall be dissolved thereby, and also their skins; and they shall be beaten with maces of iron. So often as they shall endeavour to get out of Hell because of the anguish of their torments, they shall be dragged back into the same, and their tormentors shall say unto them, 'Taste ye the pain of burning.'" These pronounced views are further illustrated by an oft-quoted remark of Mahomed's: "I stood," said the Prophet, "at the gate of Paradise, and lo, most of the inmates were poor; and I stood at the gate of Hell, and lo, most of its inmates were women."

The rites and ceremonies of the Mahomedan faith are set forth with minute care in the Koran. The most important duties enjoined are prayer, alms-giving, fasting, and pilgrimage. Prayer must be accompanied by religious purifications, for the exercise is a duty so important that it is called "the key of Paradise," and supplications will not be accepted from a person in a state of uncleanness. The ablution preparatory to prayer, termed "el-wudoó," is thus described by Lane: "A small hanafeezeh of tinned copper placed on a low shelf, and a large basin, or a small ewer and basin of the same metal are generally used in the house for the performance of the wudoó. The person having tucked up his sleeves a little higher than his elbows says in a low voice, or inaudibly, 'I purpose performing the wudoó for prayer.' He then washes his hands three times, saying in the same manner as before, 'In the name of God, the Compassionate, the Merciful. Praise be to God who hath sent water down for purification and made El-Islam to be a light and a conductor and a guide to Thy gardens, and to Thy mansion, the mansion of peace.' Then he rinses his mouth three times, throwing the water into it with his right hand, and in doing this, he says, 'O God, assist me in the reading of Thy book, and in commemorating Thee and in thanking Thee, and in worshipping Thee well.'" The ceremony is protracted for several minutes, each manual act being accompanied by an invocation to the Deity. When the ablution is completed the worshipper, looking towards heaven says, "Thy perfection, O God, (I extol) with Thy praise: I testify that there is no deity but Thou alone: Thou hast no companion: I implore Thy forgiveness and turn to Thee with repentance." Then, looking towards earth, he says, "I testify that there is no deity but God; and I testify that Mahomed is His servant and His apostle." When water cannot be easily procured, or would be injurious to the health of the individual, he may perform the ablution with dust or sand. The times of prayer are announced by the muezzin of each mosque. Having ascended to the gallery of the minaret he chants the *adan* or call to prayer, which is as follows: "God is most great" (this is said four times). "I testify that there is no deity but God" (twice). "I testify that Mahomed is God's apostle" (twice). "Come to prayer" (twice). "Come to security" (twice). "God is most great" (twice). "There is no deity but God." Most of the muezzins of Cairo have harmonious voices and their chants have a solemn effect, particularly in the stillness of the night. Friday is a day especially set apart for prayer amongst Mahomedans. This day was selected, according to Mahomedan tradition, because Adam was created on that day and died on the same day of the week, and because the general resurrection was prophesied to happen on that day. The Mahomedan is not required to abstain from worldly business on Friday except during the time of prayer.

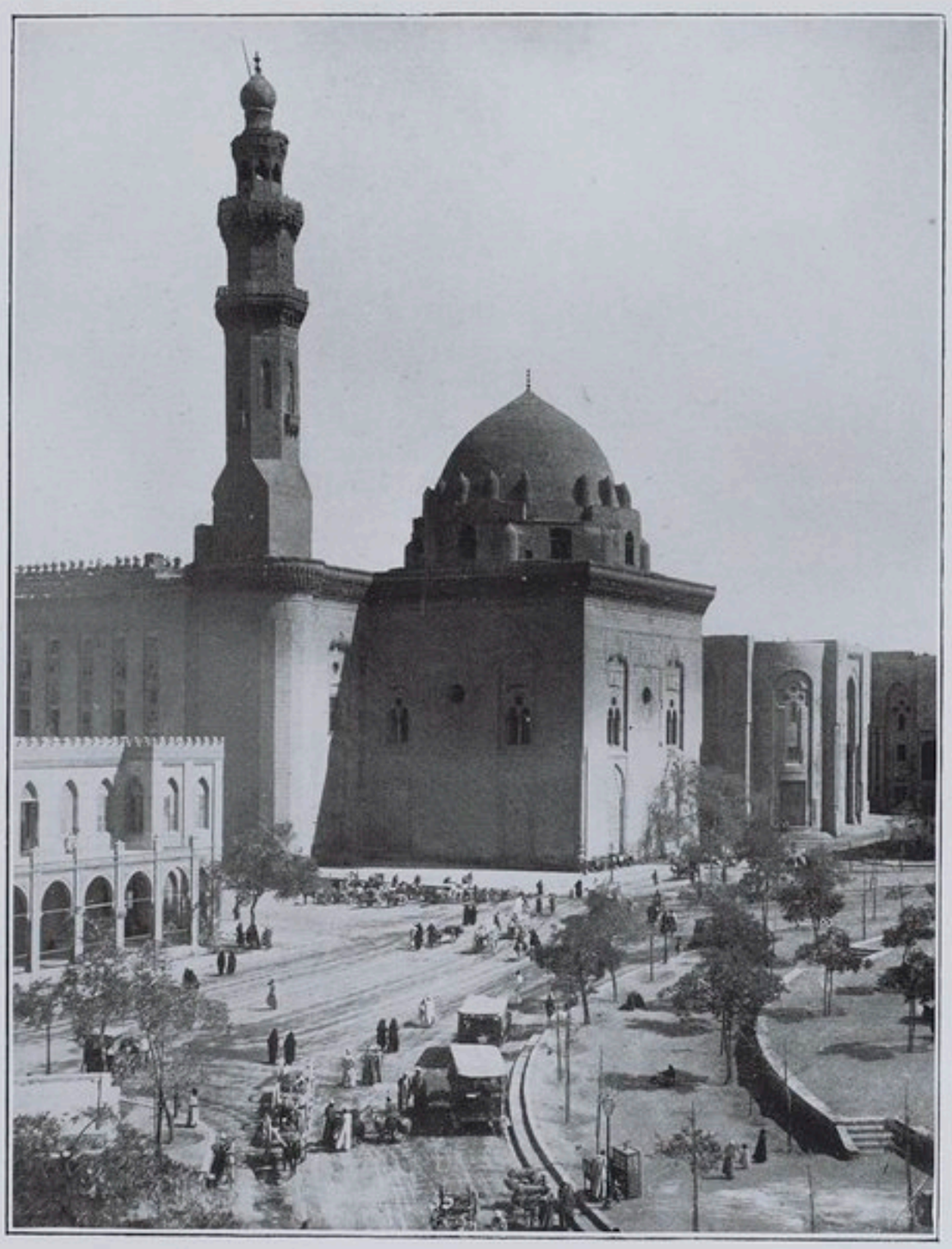


INTERIOR OF THE MOHAMMED ALY MOSQUE.

Fasting, as has been stated, is an important duty to be performed by every good Mahomedan. The great time for the exercise of self denial is the month of Ramadan, that period being selected because it was the month in which the Prophet received the first revelation. Every day during Ramadan, from the first appearance of daybreak until sunset, the believer must abstain from eating, drinking, smoking, smelling perfumes and every unnecessary indulgence or pleasure of a worldly nature, "even," says Lane, "from intentionally swallowing his spittle." When Ramadan falls in summer the fast is very severe, the abstinence from drinking being most painfully felt. Persons who are sick, or who are on a journey, and soldiers in time of war, are not obliged to observe the fast during Ramadan; but if they do not keep it in this month they should fast an equal number of days at a future time. Fasting may also be dispensed with in the cases of a pregnant woman and a nurse. Some of the more devout spend the last ten days and nights of the Ramadan in the mosque of the Hasaneyn or that of the Seyyideh Zeyneb. One of these nights, generally supposed to be the 27th of the month, is particularly blessed. On this night the angels are believed to descend and to be occupied in conveying blessings to the faithful until dawn breaks. Moreover,

the gates of heaven being then opened, prayer is held to be certain of success.

Associated with the fast of Ramadan and marking its close is the festival of the *Eed*, which is held on the first three days of "Show-wál," the tenth month. This is a time of great rejoicing and festivity. Friends meeting in the street offer their felicitations to each other. The poorer classes don new clothing at the commencement of the period. Presents are exchanged between masters and servants, and special dishes are prepared.



SULTAN HASSAN MOSQUE, CAIRO.

Most of the shops are closed on the day, excepting those which vend articles of food and sherbert, but the streets are gay with holiday crowds in their new finery.

Intimately associated with the religious life of the Mahomedan is the pilgrimage, which, if he be a true believer and acts up to the commands of the Koran, he makes at some period of his life to Mecca, the birthplace of Mahomed, and Mount Arafat, six hours' journey distant from that city. Cairo has long been conspicuously identified with these pilgrimages to the holy places of Islam. In distant times, when the journey was one of real difficulty and danger, the annual passing of the caravan was an event of supreme interest in the events of the year. Long trains of camels and horsemen set out in all the panoply of Eastern state, and when the pilgrims returned they were acclaimed with a fervour proportioned to the meritoriousness of the real sacrifice then demanded. The introduction of railways and steam communication on the sea has shorn the pilgrimage of much of its earlier picturesqueness, but there is still sufficient of the old spirit of religious pageantry left to give the event an interest in the eyes of the stranger who happens to be at Cairo at the proper moment. The first ceremony associated with the pilgrimage is the procession of the Kisweh, which is usually timed to make its passage through the streets a few days after the *Eed*. The Kisweh is the covering of the Kaaba or central shrine in the Temple of Mecca. It is of a coarse black material, covered with inscriptions of passages from the Koran worked in silk and having a broad band across each side, ornamented with similar inscriptions worked in gold. At the time of the procession the covering is not in a completed condition, and the object of the ceremony is to convey the Kisweh to the mosque of the Hasaneyn to have the covering sewn together and lined preparatory to its despatch.

The Kisweh ceremony is followed at an interval of some weeks by the Mahmal procession. The Mahmal is an ornamental framework with a pyramidal top covered with black brocade, richly worked with inscriptions and ornamental embroidery. It is traditionally supposed that this parading of the Mahmal had its origin in a pilgrimage made to Mecca by a beautiful princess, the wife of a Sultan of Egypt, in the very early years of Arab ascendency. The fair pilgrim was accommodated in a litter borne on the back of a camel, and such was the impression made by her visit that for several successive years afterwards an empty litter was carried with the pilgrims. The practice commended itself to other wearers of the purple, and so in time the Mahmal came to be one of the chief features of the display which annually marked the departure of the pilgrims' caravan.

While the duties of religion are fully expounded in the Koran, provision is also made in the sacred volume for the administration of civil law. Rules are laid down in regard to inheritance, contracts, usury, theft, manslaughter, and other matters affecting the personal rights and interests of the people. The use of the flesh of swine is prohibited, and Mahomedans are also strictly enjoined to abstain from the use of intoxicating liquors. Games of chance are denounced, but chess is permitted, as it is a game which requires skill. The law of marriage is carefully set forth. Four wives are permitted to a Mahomedan, and he can divorce any one or all of them under given circumstances.

The Mahomedans are divided into two great sects called, respectively, "Sunnees" and "Sheeahs." The schism which produced the cleavage in the ranks of Mahomed's followers occurred in the years following the death of the Prophet. It arose out of the assassination of Ali, the nephew and son-in-law of Mahomed, and successor of Othman as Commander of the Faithful. Enraged at the brutal murder of their leader, and mourning his memory with a deep intensity of sorrow, the adherents of Ali regarded him as a martyr to the faith, and declined to have any association with those who had done him to death. They claimed that the first three Commanders of the Faithful—Abu Bekr, Omar, and Othman—were usurpers, and that the only true Imam was Ali. The division thus created grew wider with the lapse of time, until it eventually became a permanent feature of Mahomedanism. The Egyptian Mahomedans are of the Sunnee sect, and mainly of the Shafee or Mahkee branch of that sect. There are four sub-divisions of the Sunnees, of which these are two. The other branches are the Hanafees, to which the Turks belong, and the Hambilees, a very small sect. All persuasions agree in deriving their code of religion and law from four sources, viz., the Koran, the Traditions of the Prophet, the concordance of his early disciples, and analogy.

HIS REVERENCE SAYED MOHAMED TEWFIK EL-BAKRI was born at Roda Island, Cairo, in 1870. After a period of private studies, he was educated at the Alieh School, founded by the Khedive Tewfik for the sons of notables, and had a distinguished scholastic career. He also passed in a knowledge of the

Koran and Islamic laws before the late Sheikh El-Imbabi, the head of Al Azhar University. Upon the death of his elder brother in 1892, he took over the titles and responsibilities of head of the house of El-Bakri, principal chief of Soufieh and Nikabet el-Ashraf (President of the Prophet's descendants). In the same year he was appointed continual member of the Legislative Council and General Assembly, and received the Order of the Mejidieh (second class). Having travelled through Europe, he went to Constantinople, and was received in audience on several occasions by the Sultan, who personally bestowed upon him the Order of Osmanieh (first class) and the title of Kada Askar-el-Anatol. Subsequently he received the Order of the Imtiaz and other decorations. In January, 1895, he divested himself of the position of President of the Prophet's descendants, but, at the Khedive's request, he again took up the position in 1903. Devoting himself to literature, he has published numerous valuable works of a religious and historical nature. He is a strong advocate of the Nationalist cause, and wrote letters to the *Times* as far back as 1893 on the subject. In 1906, when the Prince of Wales visited Egypt, His Reverence wrote an open letter to His Royal Highness, setting forth the Nationalist views, comparing the control of Egyptian affairs with the freedom accorded to the British people through their Parliament, and craving the bestowal of constitutional reform on Egypt, and the establishment of an independent Parliament.

HIS REVERENCE EL-SAYID BAKRI MOHAMED ASHOUR EL-SIDFA, who for the past three or four years has held the position of Mufti el-Diar el-Masuir, or Chief of the Legal Religious Advisers for Egypt, was born at Sidfa, in the province of Assiout, in 1849. At the age of eleven he entered the Al Azhar University, and in 1870 took the highest degree, and was granted the uniform of honour. He afterwards joined the teaching staff as a professor of languages and religious subjects. At the age of thirty he was appointed Mufti to the Beit Mal and to the Maglis El-Hasby, which has the oversight of orphans and minors. Prior to his present appointment he was for seven years a judge in the Mahkamah el-Sharieh el-Kabra, or High Religious Courts in Cairo. His Reverence is the author of several philosophical treatises in Arabic. Besides making pilgrimages to Mecca and Medina, he has travelled throughout Europe. His father was El-Sayid Mohamed Ashour, a learned man of great eminence, and he traces his descent from the Prophet. His sons follow worthily in his footsteps as professors of the Al Azhar and as legal advisers.



COLONNADES OF THE AMROU MOSQUE.

EL SAYED ABD-EL-HAMID EFFENDI EL-BAKRI, Sheikh (or Chief) of the Saggada el-Wafaieh Mission, est né au Caire en 1875, et étudia avec les hommes les plus instruits de son temps, y compris le Sheikh Mohamed Mahmoud el-Shaukiti et le Sheikh Hassan el-Sakka. Il se versa dans les études de l'Arabe et de l'Islam et dans la langue française ; il étudia différents ouvrages historiques et économiques dans cette langue. Par son mariage avec la fille de El-Sayed Abdul Kalik el-Sada il unit les maisons de El-Sada el-Bakri et El-Sada el-Wafaieh, deux des plus anciennes familles d'Egypte. A la mort de son beau-père il fut nommé par le Khédive le successeur à la position de Sheikh el-Saggada el-Wafaieh.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.

THE Cairo branch of the Young Women's Christian Association has been in existence for some sixteen years, but its present-day usefulness dates only from Christmas, 1902. At about that time the late Mrs. Boldero, the first President, was instrumental in raising a sum of £1,000 for the purpose of extending the work of the institution, and a lease was obtained of the premises now known as Connaught House, situated in the Rue Kasr-el-Nil. Here a large hall provides facilities for lectures, educational classes, bible study, devotional meetings, and social gatherings, and, with the comfortable reading room and library adjoining it, answers the requirements of a girls' club ; while the hostel, or boarding-house, affords accommodation for English-speaking girls earning their living in Cairo. The residential flat has undergone various adaptations from time to time, with the result that where formerly only seven boarders could be accommodated, provision has now been made for eighteen. The Association, however, is cramped for room. An annexe, with quarters for six or seven girls, has been opened in a cheaper part of the city, but this is only a tentative measure, and the committee hope that within a few years the Association will be established in a building of its own, worthy in every way of its fourfold aim—the promotion of the social, physical, intellectual, and spiritual well-being of its members. A valuable department of the work of the Association is that conducted by the Registry Office, for, in spite of continual warnings uttered at home, young women frequently find their way to Cairo, as to other places abroad, without any definite idea as to the prospects of employment which await them, or, indeed, as to what class of work they may be capable of undertaking. No fewer than 1,410 visits were paid to the Registry Office during 1907, and but for the help extended by the Association many of the applicants must have found themselves in great difficulty.

The Y.W.C.A., which is both international and interdenominational in its working, has about 105 members and 130 honorary associates on its roll. The president is Miss MacInnes, upon whom the direction of affairs devolved after the death of Mrs. Boldero in 1903, and the honorary secretary is Miss Margerison, who has been associated in that capacity with Connaught House ever since it was opened. From a financial point of view the Association is somewhat severely handicapped by the fact that there is no summer season in Cairo. The boarding-house, which is entirely self-supporting during the winter months, entails a serious deficit during the remainder of the year. In spite of these difficulties, however, the Y.W.C.A. is in a fairly prosperous state, thanks to the loyalty of its supporters and the indefatigable labours of those responsible for its management, and requires additional funds rather for the purpose of extending its usefulness than for maintaining its present standard of efficiency.

CHRISTIAN CHURCHES IN EGYPT.

CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

BY THE VEN. ARCHDEACON WARD, M.A., Chaplain of St. Mark's Church, Alexandria, and Bishop's Commissary in Egypt.

THE Church of England first obtained a footing in Egypt under the vigorous and enlightened rule of Mehemet Ali about the year 1819, when he was constructing the Mahmou Siyeh Canal from Alexandria to the Nile.

The pioneer was the Rev. William Jowett, M.A., Twelfth Wrangler and Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, who commenced his labours in the Mediterranean in 1815 under the auspices of the Church Missionary Society and the British and Foreign Bible Society, came to Egypt in 1819, and had much intercourse with the Coptic Patriarch and priests during that and succeeding years.

Jowett was followed in 1821 by the Rev. Joseph Wolff, father of Sir H. Drummond Wolff, G.C.B., High Commissioner in Egypt 1886–87. Wolff came to Egypt under the *ægis* of the London Society for Promoting Christianity among the Jews. When he arrived in Alexandria in September, 1821, Mr. Henry Salt, the distinguished Abyssinian traveller, artist, and archæologist, was His Majesty's Consul-General in Egypt (1816–26). In the vestry of St. Mark's Church, Alexandria, there is an old Bible with "Notes and Practical Reflections by the Rev. Isaac Saunders, 1811." This Bible was presented to the Rev. Joseph Wolff by Isaac Saunders, and was given by Wolff to John Barker (Consul 1829, Consul-General 1829–33), and was used for the English services (1831) which were held in Alexandria in a chapel near the British Consulate. The fly-leaf has an entry made and signed by Wolff.

In 1825 five Church of England Missionaries were sent to Egypt by the Church Missionary Society, viz., Samuel Gobat, Christian Kugler, J. R. T. Lieder, Theodor Müller, and William Krusé, all Germans from Basle Missionary Seminary. Gobat and Kugler afterwards went to Abyssinia, and the former, who published a "Journal of a Three Years' Residence in Abyssinia in 1831–1834," became the second Anglican Bishop in Jerusalem and the East in 1846. The other missionaries travelled in Egypt, visiting the Coptic schools and distributing Bibles and Christian literature among the Copts and Mahomedans.

The work in Egypt was carried on for more than thirty years, chiefly by Lieder, who died at Cairo in 1865. Schools were established, and these included a Boys' Boarding School at Cairo, which, in 1842, was changed into a Theological Seminary for the training of Coptic clergy. Lieder revised the Coptic and Arabic New Testament for the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and translated into Arabic the Homilies of St. Chrysostom and some other works.

On January 9, 1831, the year in which the cholera first came to Egypt and carried off 160,000 of the population, the first English Protestant chapel in Egypt was opened for public worship at Alexandria in a room hired for the purpose in the "New O'Kella," which stood on the site of the present pile of buildings erected by Monferrato in 1886. The population of Alexandria at that time was between 36,000 and 40,000. Of this number 3,000 were under British protection. As early as 1825 there were nine English commercial houses in Alexandria, and until 1882 the Consul-General for Great Britain in Egypt had his official residence at Alexandria.

In Cairo, Divine service was held at the house of Mr. Krusé, the resident missionary. Dr. Edward Hogg, who visited Alexandria and Cairo in June, 1832, tells us that the English in Cairo, including the operatives employed in the Pasha's manufactories, were nearly as numerous as at Alexandria. It is said that a small chapel was opened in Cairo in 1834, but nothing is now known of its site.

In 1838 the Chaplaincy of St. Mark's, Alexandria, was founded. In the same year Anglican Churches were founded also at Constantinople (Embassy), Jerusalem, and Malta. On August 22, 1838, at a meeting of British Residents held in Alexandria at the house of Colonel Patrick Campbell, the first Political Agent and Consul-General for Great Britain in Egypt (1833-39), the following resolutions, among others, were passed :—

"That, taking into consideration the inadequacy of our own means, His Majesty's Agent and Consul-General be requested to solicit the aid of His Majesty's Government, of the Honourable Court of Directors of the East India Company, and of the Right Honourable and Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of London."

"That, owing to constant communication between Europe and India by the Red Sea, and to the daily increasing number of British travellers from all parts of India who visit this country, we consider the Indian Protestant Community equally interested with ourselves in advancing the good work. That, therefore, subscriptions be promoted in the three Presidencies by means of the Right Honourable the Governor-General, the Right Honourable the Governors of Madras and Bombay, and the Right Rev. the Bishops of the three Presidencies, Calcutta, Madras, Bombay; and the Right Hon. the Governor of Ceylon."

"That, so soon as means be provided for building a Chapel, the necessary steps be taken for engaging a Clergyman of the established Church of England to whom an adequate salary is already guaranteed by the British residents at Alexandria."

At a subsequent meeting on May 24, 1839, Colonel Campbell was requested to ask Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, for permission to purchase a piece of ground for the site of the intended church. The large-minded and generous Pasha made a free gift of the plot selected, only stipulating that the church to be erected should be an ornament to the New Square which he was then constructing. The site given measured 145 pics by 50 pics.

On December 17, 1839, Colonel Campbell, assisted by Colonel Lloyd-Hodges, C.B., the newly appointed Political Agent and Consul-General (1839-41), laid the foundation-stone of St. Mark's Church, and a sermon was then preached by the Rev. W. Grimshaw, a clergyman of the Church of England. The Church Building Committee in 1847 stated that the church, "as a work of art, stands unrivalled in modern Egypt, both as regards its solidity and beauty of execution." Mr. Somers Clarke, F.S.A., consulting architect to St. Paul's Cathedral, London, described the church in his report in 1905 as "most carefully thought out in every detail; the proportions are excellent, whilst the drawings testify to the great care taken by Mr. Wild in preparing his design." The following is a list of the chaplains of this church :—Edmund Winder, 1840-60; R. M. Rowe, 1860-61; Edwin John Davis, 1861-1901; and Algernon Ward, 1902.

When the Jerusalem Bishopric was founded by Great Britain and Prussia in 1841, Anglicans in Egypt were placed under the care of Bishop Alexander, the first Church of England Bishop in the Mediterranean. The Anglican Church in Egypt is still within the jurisdiction of the Anglican Bishop in Jerusalem and the East. The following is a list of the Bishops :—Michael Solomon Alexander, 1841-45; Samuel Gobat, 1846-79; Joseph Barclay, 1879-81 (from October 22, 1881 to March 25, 1887 the See was vacant); G. F. Popham Blyth, 1887. A fund for endowing an independent bishopric in Egypt was opened in 1898 and it amounts at the present time to about £10,500. Bishop Blyth is very anxious to see this bishopric established, and interest in the scheme is growing.

With respect to Church of England services in Cairo it will be best to quote the words of the late Dean Butcher, who was chaplain in Cairo from 1880 to 1907 :—"The Rev. J. R. Lieder, a missionary of the Church Missionary Society, was the first clergyman to hold services for British residents in Cairo. He came in 1849 and officiated for over ten years. The English Episcopal Chapel was situated in the Coptic quarter. When Dean Stanley came to Egypt (1862) with his present Majesty, then the Prince of Wales, he attended service in the chapel, and at once saw that measures should be taken to build a proper church. He collected money, and subscriptions flowed in from the visitors. On Mr. Lieder's death (1865) services were held by winter chaplains in the New Hotel. All Saints' Church was completed from designs of Mr. Curzon Thompson. The foundation-stone was laid by the late Duke of Sutherland in 1873, and the building was consecrated in 1876, by Bishop Gobat, the second Bishop in Jerusalem." Various clergymen came out as season chaplains, amongst whom were George Washington, H. Clarke, W. Beatty, J. Poe, and G. W. Collins. In 1880 Dean Butcher, of Shanghai, came out at the invitation of Sir Edward Malet, Consul-General. A Church House was built, and the chaplaincy became a

permanent one. Services have been held regularly without a break since 1883. The present Chaplain is the Rev. J. H. Molesworth, M.A. (Oxon).

The Church Missionary Society Mission discontinued its work in 1862, but resumed it in 1882 in response to the appeals of the late Miss Whately, and in consequence of the British occupation of Egypt. The Rev. F. A. Klein, formerly of Jerusalem, was sent to Cairo to begin a new mission among the Mahomedans. The mission of 1825-62 had a two-fold object; first, to revive the Eastern Churches; and, secondly, through them, to evangelise the Mahomedans.

A Medical Mission was opened in Cairo in 1889, and ladies were added to the staff in 1890. Helouan was occupied in 1903. At the present time the Church Missionary Society has four clergy and about thirty-five lay workers engaged in missionary work in Egypt, mostly in Cairo. The institutions of the Church Missionary Society include two churches, schools, an important medical mission, and a book depôt. Evangelistic work is carried on in various ways, *e.g.*, addresses, lectures, visiting, and distribution of literature. A weekly illustrated magazine, the *Orient and Occident*, in Arabic and English, has a large circulation. The Rev. R. MacInnes, M.A., is the Secretary of the Church Missionary Society in Egypt.

The London Society for Promoting Christianity among the Jews sent missionaries to Cairo in 1847 and to Alexandria in 1871. The Committee of the Society re-opened the mission in Cairo in 1906, when the Rev. C. E. Thomas, M.A., took up his residence in the city. There is a Bible depôt in the Jewish quarter, and a colporteur is at work.

The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in 1819 sent Arabic Bibles to Mr. Salt, British Consul-General, for distribution in Alexandria among the Copts. In 1840 the Society assisted the British residents at Alexandria (with £100) to build a church in that city, and in 1861 it began to contribute towards the maintenance of an English chaplain at Cairo. In 1899-1900 the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel gave £200 towards the erection of a church at Assouan, and in 1900 granted £50 towards the maintenance of a chaplain. The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel also granted £400 for the maintenance of a girl's school for natives—Copts and Mahomedans. In 1902 the Society allocated £600 for the support of an itinerant chaplain in the Delta, the amount being payable at the rate of £200 a year. This grant has been renewed several times. The Rev. T. D. C. Firminger, M.A., is the Society's itinerating chaplain in the Delta, and resides at the Church House, Mansourah.

The Jerusalem and the East Mission Fund is the Episcopal Fund of the Bishop in Jerusalem and the East, the Right Reverend G. F. Popham Blyth, D.D., Sub-Prelate in the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. In 1890 an Arabic-speaking clergyman began work in Cairo under the auspices of the fund, a valuable site was obtained in the Kasr-el-Doubara quarter, and a house, schools, and mission chapel were built upon it. Recently, a large and dignified church, which will hold about seven hundred worshippers, has been opened. The rector is the Rev. T. A. Branthwaite, D.D., LL.D.

To-day, the Anglican Church in Egypt has 19 places of worship and 24 clergy, 13 of whom are chaplains to English congregations, 4 are chaplains to the forces, 5 are engaged directly in mission work, and 2 others are connected with the British and Foreign Bible Society or engaged in other work. Six of the English chaplaincies are permanently established and hold regular services throughout the year; four are season chaplaincies. The total church accommodation in Egypt (excluding provision in the four garrison churches for 1,000 soldiers) is for 3,265 persons. The total number of communicants on Christmas Day, 1907, was about 1,120. The British community in Egypt, including the army of occupation (about 4,800), probably numbers from 21,000 to 22,000.

Appended is a list of the English chaplaincies, with the date of their foundation, arranged in chronological order:—

St. Mark's, Alexandria, 1838; Chaplain, the Ven. Archdeacon Ward, M.A.

All Saints', Cairo, 1873; Chaplain, the Rev. J. H. Molesworth, M.A.



1. "ALL SAINTS'" (ENGLISH) CHURCH, CAIRO. 2. "ST. JOSEPH'S" (R.C.) CATHEDRAL, CAIRO.
3. "ST. ANDREW'S" (PRESBYTERIAN) CHURCH, CAIRO (Photo by Diettrich).

Church of the Epiphany, Port Said, 1881; Chaplain, the Rev. Canon Strange.

All Saints', Ramleh, 1890; Chaplain, the Rev. E. H. Blyth, M.A.

St. Mary's Mission, Cairo, 1890; Chaplain, the Rev. T. A. Branthwaite, D.D., LL.D.

Gizeh, Cairo, 1890; Season Chaplain.

St. Saviour's, Suez, 1891; Chaplain, the Rev. A. H. Longley, B.A.

Luxor, 1892; Season Chaplain.

St. Mark's, Assouan, 1897; Season Chaplain.

St. Paul's, Helouan, 1902; Season Chaplain.

Delta Chaplaincy at Mansourah and Tantah, 1903; Chaplain, the Rev. T. D. C. Firminger, M.A.

GARRISON CHURCHES.

Kasr-el-Nil, Cairo; Chaplain, the Rev. R. Armitage, D.S.O.

Citadel, Cairo; Chaplain, the Rev. J. Burrough, B.A.

Abbassieh, Cairo; Chaplain, the Rev. F. I. Anderson, M.A.
St. George's, Mustafa, Alexandria; Chaplain, the Rev. C. S. Ensell, B.A.

ALL SAINTS' CHURCH, CAIRO.

was consecrated for the handful of residents and for the few visitors that came to the city in 1876. With the British occupation, Cairo became the centre of British interests; and a large resident community, civilian and military, settled itself in the capital. From that day, a quarter of a century ago, All Saints' became the parish church of the English-speaking people, and has remained so to the present date. Under the inspiring guidance of Dean Butcher, who was chaplain continuously for twenty-six years, the church became, as the dean described it, "the memorial church of the English in Egypt." Its walls are one long and continuous history of the fortunes of the British people in Egypt ever since the days of the occupation. There our military deeds are recorded, from the battle of Tel el Kebir, and the first exploits in the Soudan, down to the present time. On the west wall is the simple but beautiful monument to General Gordon. The altar rails commemorate the noble career of Sir Herbert Stewart. Soldiers, officers, and men who have fallen in the various campaigns of the last twenty-five years, have their names inscribed in brass, and all the coloured windows, as well as the other furniture of the church, are in memory of civilians and soldiers who have helped to build up modern Egypt. All Saints' has thus grown to be the Westminster Abbey for the British in Egypt. It has also served for the American community in Cairo, in fact the first memorial in the church was a window placed to the memory of a prominent American citizen.

The church is managed by a committee elected by the congregation, but the British Agent and Consul-General, the American Agent and Consul-General, the general commanding the army of occupation, the chaplain, and others, are *ex-officio* members. The church, having served a quarter of a century, is now greatly in need of repair or rebuilding, and should a bishopric be established in Egypt there is a widespread feeling that a new and dignified All Saints', containing all the memorials of the past, will be the proper place for the bishop's seat; that the new church should, as the church of the capital and of the centre of government, be his cathedral. Even now the congregation is representative, and hails from afar. On Christmas Day people come a hundred miles down the river in order that they may take their communion in All Saints' Church. It should be added that the church is mainly supported by the subscriptions of the resident British and Americans, and by the offerings of the winter visitors.

THE REV. J. H. MOLESWORTH, the chaplain, was formerly chaplain to Archbishop Magee, and Rural Dean of Peterborough. For eleven years Mr. Molesworth was vicar of St. Mark's, Peterborough, and for ten years he presided over the parish of St. John's, Leicester. He was also a missioner for the diocese of Peterborough. Mr. Molesworth was appointed to his present post by the Archbishop of Canterbury, in whose hands Lord Cromer and the committee placed the selection of a chaplain on this occasion.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

SERVICES were begun in Cairo in connection with the Church of Scotland in February, 1899, the first service being conducted by the Rev. William Cowan, of St. Andrew's, Alexandria. For some time public worship was held in premises granted by the minister of the German Church and his committee of management, but in November, 1901, a small church was secured beside the British Headquarters, off the Kasr-el-Nil, at a yearly rent, and opened for regular worship by the Rev. James Mitchell, D.D., of South Leith.

Gradually, however, it was found that the building did not meet all requirements. It was insufficient to accommodate all who wished to attend the services during the season, and in itself it was not a suitable edifice. Accordingly, a movement was initiated to secure a fitting church, and on January 2, 1909, in the presence of a representative congregation, an attractive new building was formally opened in the Sharia Boulac beside the Ismailia Canal by Lady Gorst, while Sir Eldon Gorst, His Britannic Majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary and Agent and Consul-General in Egypt, laid a stone commemorative of the occasion. On the following day, St. Andrew's Church was dedicated by the Very Reverend Dr. Mitford Mitchell, one of the King's Chaplains and Convener of the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, assisted by the Rev. J. A. Findlay, M.A., of St. Mary's, Edinburgh. The church, which cost over £3,000, was opened free of debt. Hitherto the services have been conducted by various ministers sent out from Scotland, but now steps are being taken to appoint a permanent minister. The church is maintained for the resident Scottish community of Cairo, for all to whom the Presbyterian form of service appeals, and for tourists and visitors of Presbyterians and kindred churches. The present chaplain is the Rev. J. A. Findlay, M.A. The clerk to the Kirk Session is Mr. J. H. Scott, Zeitoun, and the treasurer, Mr. J. A. Crawford, National Bank of Egypt, Cairo.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

BY THE REV. F. EDWIN, O.F.M., St. Joseph's, Cairo.

A CONSIDERABLE effort is required to throw oneself back in imagination to the early ages of our era and to reconstruct a Christian Egypt, where Christians of all denominations now form but a twentieth part of the entire population. So accustomed are we to associate Egypt with Islamism that it is difficult to fancy Christian churches and emblems instead of mosques and minarets, and to realise that, before the end of the fourth century after Chris', the overwhelming majority of the inhabitants were Christians and Christianity the State religion.

St. Mark came to Egypt about 43 A.D., and, in quick response to his preaching, large numbers both of the Egyptians and of the Greek and Jewish settlers embraced Christianity. Among his early successors in the Patriarchal See of Alexandria and the Alexandrian Christians of those ages, were men of either eminent sanctity or renowned erudition, whose writings are part of the great Christian treasury of patristic theology. Clement, Origen, Dionysius, Athanasius, Cyril, and many others are names known to every Christian scholar. The region between Achmim and Luxor, once known as the Thebaïd, and the district about the Natroum Lakes, formerly Scete, were peopled with tens of thousands of hermits, or monks, followers of Paul, Antony, and Pachomius, whose enthusiasm for the higher life of asceticism spread to Europe, and inspired the modified cenobitic life of Western monasticism. While Alexandria's civil and commercial importance made her a rival of Imperial Rome and Byzantium, her theological school, attracting scholars from the lands bordering on the Mediterranean, made her a centre of Christian apologetic studies. The Church grew apace, and her wisdom was more than a match for the revived pagan learning. But error found favour in this home of orthodoxy, and fanatical attachment to religious parties resulted in a separation of the native Christians from the Christianity of the West. Earlier heresies, with Arianism as the chief, had accustomed minds to doctrinal discord, so that Dioscorus, Patriarch of Alexandria, the twenty-fourth successor of St. Mark, refusing to accept the decrees of the Council of Chalcedon, in 451, and unwilling to submit to his own deposition, was able to draw the greater part of the native Christians to the side of the Monophysites. Thus began a series of rival Patriarchs. Constantinople favoured the Greek adherents of Chalcedon, refused to acknowledge Dioscorus and his successors as the lawful occupants of the Patriarchal See, and gradually transferred the revenues of the Alexandrian Church to the Melchite Patriarchs. This policy so strengthened the Egyptians both in their opposition to the conciliar decrees and canons, and in their growing dislike of the Byzantine dominion, that after two centuries of religious struggle and political estrangement

they welcomed the Arab invasion as an emancipation. The resistance of a united population would, in all probability, have repulsed the advancing conquerors, but the Egyptians, imagining complete liberty under a new rule, joined the ranks of the invaders, and helped to secure for them the possession of their land. Persecution, oppression, apostasy, decimation have, until recent years, been the sad inheritance of the Monophysite Church of Egypt.

It does not appear that any Copts remained in communion with the See of Rome after the Arab conquest, but the Coptic Church, though it afterwards relapsed from its adherence, officially declared its union with Rome at the Council of Florence in 1442. From this time, however, considerable numbers of Copts have acknowledged the Roman supremacy. On the other hand, the Greek Melchites maintain that throughout the centuries of the Arab dominion Greeks in union with Rome existed in Egypt, and they point to the testimony of even an Arab writer, El Kalcachendy, who lived at the end of the thirteenth and the beginning of the fourteenth centuries. El Kalcachendy says that the Melchites acknowledged the Pope of Rome as their head, just as the Greeks were subject to the Patriarch of Constantinople, and the Melchites contend that the writer's testimony is proof both of their known attitude towards the Roman See and of the presence of their body in numbers sufficiently large to attract the notice of an Arab author.

From the first quarter of the thirteenth till about the first half of the nineteenth century—a period of more than six hundred years—the Franciscans, or Friars Minor, were the only Catholic missionaries in Egypt. The incident of their founder's visit to the camp of the Crusaders at Damietta and of his interviews with the Soldan of Egypt, in 1219, are well known to the many readers of the life of St. Francis of Assisi. Probably the saint, anxious for the conversion of the Saracens to Christianity, left some of his companions at Damietta on his return to Italy, for, in 1245, King Louis IX. of France (Saint Louis) found the Friars Minor already established there, and was to them, as to their brethren elsewhere, a generous benefactor. A record of faithful service stands to the credit of the followers of St. Francis in Egypt. Here they were the sole spiritual pastors of the European traders—the link attaching them to the religion of their own fair lands. In times of calamity, and such times were but too frequent, they were near at hand to the Christian captives, and by means of alms collected from the merchants or received from Europe, could gain access to the fetid prisons, administer religious consolation, succour the unfortunate prisoners, and even purchase their release. In the narrow streets of the East they were at home. Periodical outbreaks of pestilence thinned their numbers, but the survivors stood their ground till reinforced from Palestine. The Mediterranean, too, has claimed a death tribute from them and has engulfed in its blue waters many a noble hearted missionary, whose fate is recorded with pathetic brevity in the Franciscan necrologies: *in mari demersus.* It is a glory among them that certain members of their Order in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were put to death for the fearless preaching of the Gospel or for steadfastness to the Christian faith. As early as 1307 they settled in Cairo. In 1320 Queen Sancia of Naples, at her own expense, sent other friars to Alexandria, where they lived, as at Cairo, in the houses of the Consular agents or of traders till 1632. In this year they were able to build a church and residence at Alexandria, and a house at Cairo, where they served the small churches of the French and the Venetians. Apart from the special annoyances, varying in degrees of severity, at outbursts of fanaticism, times of oppression, or of reprisals against some European government, "the Brothers of the Cord," as the Franciscans were styled in the Ottoman firmans and popularly known among the Arabs and the Turks, lived unmolested. The Egyptians grew accustomed to their brown habit, suspected them less of being emissaries of a foreign Power, and recognised the peaceableness of their lives. To this day they are respected by the native population. The present dynasty has always been kindly disposed towards them. A story is current among the Franciscans of the East that Ibrahim Pasha when in Palestine, not always tru-ting himself to his surroundings, was frequently the guest of the Franciscan community there. At a certain critical juncture of his affairs Ibrahim found it necessary to communicate with Mehemet Ali, his adopted father, who was then in Egypt. His messengers were watched, suspected, and searched; the difficulty was overcome in this particular case when a Franciscan offered to take the message sewn between the soles of his sandals. In effect the communication reached Mehemet Ali. Ismael Pasha, grandfather of the present Khedive, gave the Franciscans the land in the Ismailia quarter of Cairo on which their church and house are built, and, indeed, offered much more land than the strict necessity of their work justified them in accepting. As the conditions of international intercourse have in recent times changed many of the characteristics of Oriental life in Egypt and modified the feelings of the native population towards foreigners, so the opportunities for the exercise of a ministry of lofty charity and of the constant self-sacrifice inherent in a purely missionary life have almost ceased to exist, and the external work of the Franciscan Order is here restricted to the usual duties of a parochial clergy.

Until 1839, the Custos of the Holy Land, as the superior of these missions is called, exercised episcopal jurisdiction over the Latin Catholics in Egypt, in the capacity of Commissary-Apostolic. At one time his ecclesiastical territory extended so far as Wadi Halfa, and included the Oriental Catholics that were without a superior of their own particular rite. It is against the provisions of Canon Law for a religous superior to be at the same time a bishop; but the Holy See, by way of privilege, or through local necessities, empowers a priest to exercise those episcopal functions which do not necessarily require episcopal consecration. Egypt has always been considered an integral part of the Holy Land missions, as having been the place of sojourn of the Holy Family, and was thus within the jurisdiction of the Custos of the Holy Land. The political re-awakening of Egypt under Mehemet Ali and his successors, the influence of France, and the enormous labour of constructing the Suez Canal, attracted to the country large numbers of traders and workmen from Europe and the Levantine regions, of whom Catholics were the large majority; thus, ecclesiastical re-organisation became a necessity. Egypt was withdrawn from the quasi-episcopal jurisdiction of the Custos of the Holy Land, and in 1839, the Holy See appointed a Vicar-Apostolic, *i.e.*, a bishop with territory depending for its supply of clergy on strangers, and thus not sufficiently developed to constitute a formal diocese. Father Perpetuo Guasco, a Franciscan, was consecrated bishop, and at the same time the Pope nominated him Delegate-Apostolic for the Oriental rites in Egypt and Arabia. The succeeding archbishops have all been members of the same order of Friars Minor.

VICARIATE-APOSTOLIC OF EGYPT.

The extent of this Vicariate at its creation was vast, and embraced what are now practically four dioceses, viz., the actual Vicariate of Egypt, extending as far as Assouan, but excluding the Delta; the two Vicariates of Arabia and the Soudan, and the Prefecture-Apostolic of the Nile Delta. All the parishes of Latin Catholics, except Minieh and Helouan are in charge of the Franciscans, who number some eighty-four priests—sixty-six belonging to the Holy Land mission, and eighteen to the mission of Upper Egypt. At Alexandria their church, which serves as the pro-cathedral, has attached to it three chapels-of-ease, with a Catholic population of 30,000. At Cairo, with 19,000 Catholics, they have three churches; at Port Said with 11,000, they have one church. Suez has 1,000 Catholics; while Damietta, Mansourah, Rosetta, Damanhour, Kafr el Zayat, Ismailia, and Port Tewfik, each with a church and one or more resident priests, vary in numbers between 30 and 800. It is an interesting feature in the church services that on Sundays sermons are preached in several languages. For example, in St. Catherine's Church, Alexandria, on any ordinary Sunday, sermons are preached in Arabic, Italian, French, Slav, German, and sometimes in English; at St. Joseph's Church, Cairo, a sermon in English is preached every Sunday.

The Franciscan mission of Upper Egypt, at present served by eighteen priests, was established during the pontificate of Pope Innocent XI., in 1687, and was attached to the custody of the Holy Land, but ten years later it became an independent Prefecture. Till 1745, the missionaries' headquarters were in Cairo with their brethren of the Holy Land. In this year, the Consul of the Venetian Republic gave them a house adjoining, and they were thus able to establish a residence of their own. Their missionary field was then transferred from the protection of France to that of Venice, and when Venice was annexed to Austria, in 1797, Austria assumed its protection, and retains it till this day. The work of this mission in its early years was principally for the benefit of the Catholic Copts, and had to be carried on with secrecy. No emblem of Christianity or sign of religious activity was allowed to appear until a firman was obtained from the Sultan in 1777. At the present time, this mission includes twelve stations. Daher, a suburb of Cairo, has a good house and a temporary chapel. Fayoum, Beni Souef, Assiout, Nag Hamadi, Keneh, Luxor, and Armant, have each a small missionary church and residence with priests attached; while Busce, Tamia, and Hewandieh, are served from Beni Souef, and Dier Dronka from Assiout. Fifty years ago the mission counted ten more stations, which have since been handed over to the Catholic Copts, whose increasing number of priests has enabled them to take charge of them.

The Lazarists, a congregation founded by St. Vincent de Paul, in 1625, established themselves at Alexandria in 1844. Till 1881 they had a secondary school. Their church was burnt by the incendiaries during the troubles at Alexandria, and after rebuilding it they devoted themselves entirely to ecclesiastical work. Their present community consists of seven priests.

In 1875, the Missionaries of the Sacred Heart, of Verona, whose sphere of work is the Soudan, bought a property at Cairo, where they have since built a church, and now serve the Italian and Austrian hospitals as chaplains. The parish at Helouan is in their care, and their school there, conducted by brothers of the same congregation, has nearly two hundred boys in attendance. Six priests are in this vicariate.

The Fathers of the Society of Jesus came to Egypt in 1881. Pope Leo XIII. had requested the Superior-General to send some members of the Society as a help to the Catholic Copts. The priests of the province of Lyons were ordered to undertake the work, and soon after their arrival in Egypt founded a seminary for the Copts at Cairo. This seminary was transferred to Tantah a few years ago, and is now conducted by the Copts themselves; but the Jesuits maintain some forty-six village schools for the Copts, employing natives to teach under their supervision. They have a church and college at Alexandria, another at Cairo, and the parish of Minieh is in their charge. They have been fortunate enough to purchase the land contiguous to the garden of the Virgin's Tree at Matarieh, and have erected a small but pretty church there. This land most probably forms part of the once famous Garden of Balm, the balm of which was everywhere used in the administration of baptism and confirmation. The Virgin's Tree itself and the Sacred Well, with a small chapel between—long ago destroyed—formerly belonged to the Franciscans, having been bought for them by the Venetian merchants of Cairo in the early part of the sixteenth century. The Mahomedans, however, confiscated the place in 1660. The work of the Fathers of the Society of Jesus in Egypt has been both vigorous and successful. Their churches are well frequented and their colleges flourishing. Some twenty priests are at present in this vicariate, and thirty-two in the Prefecture of the Nile Delta, while a large number of their scholastics, *i.e.*, members of the Society who are not yet priests, are engaged in their colleges.

The Don Bosco Institute was opened by the Italian Salesian priests in 1897 at Alexandria. The Egyptian Government granted them some land, then outside the town, forming part of the old fortifications, where three years later they built their present school for 250 boys. Here in the workshops children of the humbler classes may learn a useful trade, together with a knowledge of Arabic, Italian, French, and English, and should thus find employment in any town of Egypt. Nine priests, with about twenty assistants, devote themselves to this work.

The cosmopolitan nature of the population, in the large towns especially, whilst requiring a number of languages in commercial and social intercourse, affords facilities for the acquiring of a practical knowledge of several tongues. In a family of mixed parentage, say Syrian and Italian, or Greek and German, two languages would be spoken at home. In nearly all Catholic schools French is the official language, in some Italian, in a few German. Arabic is heard on every side in the streets, besides being well taught by natives in most schools; and of late years English has received special attention. Thus it is common to find children of twelve years of age speaking three, four, or even five languages with an ease that astonishes visitors from Europe and America. The rapidity with which children at play turn to address their companions in a different idiom, and with a complete change of accent, is almost a linguistic feat.

The number of elementary schools at present existing—generally small in size—will be included in the statistics given at the end of this article. Secondary schools for boys, called "colleges" in Egypt, are conducted by the Jesuit priests and by the Brothers of the Christian Schools. The programme of studies, based on the instructions of the Egyptian Government, leads up to the French or the Egyptian baccalaureate. Educationally, these degrees, though they suppose long and careful preparation, are much inferior to a B.A. of the British universities. The French degree covers a fairly wide ground; the Egyptian, though more restricted, is of professional value in the country.

In 1846, Mgr. Guasco, then Vicar-Apostolic of Egypt, and the Franciscan fathers of St. Catherine's, invited the brothers to take charge of the parochial school. Buildings adjoining the church were given over to them, and the present successful secondary school, in addition to the elementary school, attended by more than five hundred boys, native and European alike, is the result of their long-continued zeal. They have, moreover, opened six other schools in connection with St. Catherine's College, either at Alexandria or in the neighbouring districts, and have lately established a trades' school. No fewer than 1,900 pupils attend these schools. In their two elementary and three secondary schools at Cairo they have 2,100 boys in attendance; at Shoubra, a suburb of Cairo, 300. In nine other towns they have schools, so that the total number of pupils under the care of 296 brothers is 6,100. In the early eighties of the last century the Jesuit fathers opened their colleges at Cairo and Alexandria, and they have now some 900 boys in attendance. Both are fine spacious buildings with large playgrounds, where the physical side of education can receive due attention.

All the schools for girls are conducted by nuns. Many of the elementary schools are small, but the children are carefully taught. In the higher-class schools one finds the usual convent education, in which a fair proportion of time is given to the *arts d'agrément*.

Of the twelve congregations of women, scattered in forty-two houses, and numbering 598 members, some are exclusively engaged in corporal works of charity, others in teaching, while some combine both works. Only one contemplative community exists in Egypt, namely, French nuns of the Carmelite Order. Seven of the well-known Sisters of St. Vincent de Paul came to Alexandria in 1844; now they are nearly a hundred. The natives called them the "Seven Maidens" (in Arabic, *banât*), and the street containing their largest establishment has since been called Rue des Sœurs. The Franciscans gave them the land on which has been built the European hospital, at one time the only hospital for foreigners in Alexandria. Here, as at their other larger houses, they have a free dispensary, where numbers of natives, equally with strangers, receive medical attendance. They have orphanages for boys and girls, a house for abandoned children, and several schools at Alexandria. At Port Said and Ismailia they have charge of the public hospitals. Their work at Cairo was begun as late as 1901, but already they have six hundred children in their schools, a large dispensary, a home for servant girls, and a public kitchen for supplying cheap meals for the poor. The Suez Canal Company have handed over to them their schools at Port Tewfik. Franciscan Tertiary Sisters from the Roman province have been in Egypt since 1859. They number about 150, and have fifteen houses here. Each house has a school attached, and in most houses shelter is given to a small number of orphans. At Alexandria and Cairo the sisters have larger orphanages. In the latter town they keep a free dispensary, where a daily average of three hundred poor receive attendance. At Assiout they serve the public hospital. The Sisters of St. Charles, mostly German, have, besides several schools, homes for the aged and for servant girls at Alexandria; the Sisters of the Good Shepherd have homes for penitent women at Cairo and Port Said. Quite a number of similar activities exist on a smaller scale—too many, in fact, to enumerate in detail—and these will be found summarised in the tabulated form.

The success and multiplication of Catholic schools in Egypt cannot in justice be attributed to their financial well-being. Home governments have in several cases subsidised the schools of their respective nationalities; but without the self-sacrifice and community of goods consequent upon the religious vows, the present extension would not have been possible. However mixed may have been the motives of various governments in granting financial assistance, it is but fair to the religious men and women alike to recognise that they have engaged in work from motives even higher than patriotic, and have expected rewards other than men can bestow.

Architecturally, the religious buildings of the Catholic body are of little importance; they are mainly domestic and utilitarian. The Melchite Cathedral at Cairo is good, though its heaviness is unsuitable to so small a building. The interior of the Jesuit church, in a mixed Byzantine style, is pleasing, and the space has been well utilised to accommodate a large number of worshippers. The new Franciscan church in the Ismailia Quarter is the largest Catholic edifice in Egypt. It was commenced in 1904 by the Rev. Godfrey Schilling, the actual superior of St. Joseph's, from plans by Signor Aristide Leonori, of Rome. In style it is Lombard Gothic. The lofty belfry would have given impressiveness to the façade, but its position near the chancel apse is a loss to the general effect of the building. At Alexandria the whole block of buildings, comprising the church and house of the Franciscans, built in 1847, the college, archbishop's residence, and European hospital, contains not one feature of architectural beauty.

The following figures have reference only to the Latin rite under the jurisdiction of the Most Rev. Aurelio Briante, O.F.M., Vicar-Apostolic of Egypt, and Delegate for the Oriental rites of Egypt and Arabia:—Catholic population, 63,000; public churches or chapels, 30; elementary schools—for boys, 50, with 6,300 pupils; for girls, 30, with 4,500 pupils; secondary schools—for boys, 11, with 3,340 pupils; for girls, 9, with 1,360 pupils; orphanages, 8; other charitable institutions, 16; priests, 126—Franciscans, 84, Jesuits, 20, other congregations, 22; teaching brothers, 297; brothers of the Christian schools, 279; others, 18; nuns, 598.

PREFECTURE APOSTOLIC OF THE NILE DELTA.

This Prefecture, *i.e.*, a missionary district, the superior of which is not a bishop, was separated as an independent missionary field from the Vicariate of Egypt in 1891, with the Very Rev. Augustine Duret as Prefect. It comprises the four provinces of Gharbieh, Menufieh, Kaliubieh, and Sharkia, excluding Kafr el Zayat and Boulac, and is confided to

the Society of African Missions, of Lyons, a congregation of secular priests established in 1846 by Mgr. Melchior de Brésillac. In 1877, two members of this congregation began their mission in Egypt, and the number of stations has increased so rapidly that at present forty-three priests are doing the work begun by the pioneers. At Shoubra, the part of Cairo in this Prefecture, at Tantah, Zeitoun, Zagazig, Zifteh, Samanud, and Mahalla, they have opened churches with resident priests, who serve ten of the stations in neighbouring districts. The Jesuit college at Cairo, already referred to, with 450 boys, belongs to this Prefecture. Eight Marist Brothers take charge of the junior classes there. The Brothers of the Christian schools have a school at Shoubra and Zagazig, while at Tantah, Zeitoun, and Zifteh the missioners conduct their own schools. The seven congregations of nuns established in the Prefecture take charge of the schools for girls, or are engaged in the charitable institutions which have sprung into existence within the last few years. Catholic population (Latin rite), 7,000; public churches, 8; a diocesan seminary; priests, 75, viz., 43 of the Society of African Missions, and 32 Jesuits; schools—for boys, 6, with 1,080 pupils; for girls, 8, with 1,070 pupils; teaching brothers, 27; nuns, 268, of whom 98 belong to the Congregation of African Missions. The charitable institutions include two orphanages, one home for the aged, and one house of refuge for penitent women.

VICARIATE APOSTOLIC OF THE SOUDAN.

The present Vicar-Apostolic, the Right Rev. F. X. Geyer, presides over a district, the history of which forms a sad page in the annals of Catholic missionary work. In 1644, Propaganda allowed the Andalusian Capuchins to undertake missionary work in Central Africa, but the insuperable difficulties of the mission soon brought their work to an end. In 1846, Canon Casolani, a Maltese, tried to revive this mission, and was appointed Vicar-Apostolic with a residence at Ghedam. Two years later Father Ryllo, with several other priests of the Society of Jesus, came as pro-vicar and settled at Khartoum, but died soon afterwards. The Austrians then took up the work—first Father Knoblecher, and after him Father Kirchner. Fever played havoc with the small band of workers, and thinned them to vanishing point. One, Father Giovanni de Dukla, a Franciscan friar, leaning over a boat, was devoured by a crocodile. In 1872 the Holy See gave the mission to the priests of the Institute of Verona, since called Missionaries of the Sacred Heart. The troubles following the Mahdi's revolt paralysed the work again; some missionaries fled, others were imprisoned. But the restored state of peace has allowed the work to proceed with few hindrances other than those which are climatic. There are mission stations with boys' and girls' schools at Khartoum, Omdurman, Assouan, and Port Soudan. Father Ohrwalder, who, before his happy escape, had been the Mahdi's prisoner for ten years, has charge of the Omdurman residence. South of Kodok five stations have been opened since 1900, viz., at Lul, Atigo, Wau, Kayango, and Mbili. Wau and Kayango have each a school.

The Catholic population at present does not exceed 1,300, and, as many families are scattered, long journeys are a frequent necessity for the missionaries. Thus, in 1907, a single priest travelled 1,000 miles by donkey, 1,800 by rail, and 800 by steamer. But the number of workers is increasing, and the mission has now 30 priests, 20 lay-brothers, and 40 nuns. In the various small schools, 400 children are in attendance. At some stations, children remain as boarders; at others orphans or the aged find a home.

ORIENTAL RITES IN COMMUNION WITH THE HOLY SEE.

From statistics supplied by the respective authorities of the Oriental rites in Egypt, the number in communion with Rome should reach 64,000. The Copts are natives, but the Syrians and others have of late years made a home in Egypt. The improved condition of this country has drawn many, while the unfavourable, and often desperate, state of affairs in the East drove numbers to a land whose language they themselves spoke, and where security of life and property seemed established. Ibrahim Pasha himself brought Syrians to Egypt, and entrusted them with important offices. Many families of the name of Kahil, Zananiry, Bahri, Mesara, Taguer, Beitar, and others, are descendants of those who came at his invitation.

The ecclesiastical administration of the Oriental rites is dependent upon the respective patriarchs, who are directly responsible to Rome. The Vicar-Apostolic of Egypt in his capacity as delegate has no immediate authority over them; but, as representative of the Holy See, may judge those cases which are submitted to him, or which are expressed in his commission. The faithful may frequent the churches of a rite different from their own, though they may not communicate at all times. Members of those rites in which Mass is offered with unleavened bread are allowed to communicate, but are forbidden communion with the rites which use leavened bread or communicate under both species, *i.e.*, of bread and wine. Thus Latins, Maronites, and Armenians may communicate among themselves, but not in the Coptic, Melchite, or Chaldean churches, and vice versâ. This rule, however, does not bind where members find themselves without a church of their particular rite.

	Catholic population.	Churches or public chapels.	Bishops.	Priests.	Schools.	Attendance.	Teaching Brothers.	Lay Brothers.	Nuns.	Charitable Institutions.
LATIN:										
Vicariate of Egypt ...	63,000	30	1	126	100	15,500	297	50	594	24
Prefecture of Nile Delta	7,000	8	—	76	14	2,150	27	17	268	4
Vicariate of the Soudan	1,300	9	1	30	10	320	—	20	40	5
ORIENTAL:										
Greeks	30,000	14	1	36	1	200	—	—	—	—
Copts	20,000	51	3	61	52	1,940	—	—	—	—
Maronites	10,000	6	1	22	—	—	—	—	—	—
Armenians	1,700	3	1	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
Syrians	1,500	2	1	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chaldeans	300	1	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL	134,800	124	10	364	177	20,110	324	89	902	33

Of late years the training of candidates for the priesthood has been an object of special care. For the preparatory studies each rite has a school of its own, though not necessarily in Egypt; the course of higher studies is in Rome, or at the Jesuit University at Beyrout. St. Anne's Seminary at Jerusalem is exclusively Greek. The celibacy of the clergy is now almost general. Some rites ordain only a few married men destined for isolated missions, while others refuse all married candidates. With few exceptions, and especially in the case of village schools, children of Oriental parentage attend the elementary and secondary schools conducted by the Latins.

The Coptic Rite.—The Copts, so-called by the Arab conquerors in their attempt to pronounce the word Αἴγυπτος, and to signify a native of the land as distinguished from a Greek of the Empire, have a hierarchy of three bishops. In 1896, Pope Leo XIII. appointed Mgr. Kyrillos Macaire Administrator-Apostolic, and three years after raised him to the dignity of Patriarch, with Alexandria as the titular See. The patriarchal diocese comprises Lower Egypt, and extends as far as Cairo. It has six churches. The diocese of Hermopolis (Minieh) has ten churches, with Mgr. Maximos Sedfaoui as bishop. Thebes (Luxor) has the largest number of churches—35. The Bishop, Mgr. Ignace Berzi, resides at Tahta. In this town the Copts have a national seminary, where candidates for Holy Orders may receive ordination without further studies at Rome or Beyrout, the complete divinity course being given in Arabic.

The total population of Catholic Copts is given as between 20,000 and 25,000. The bishops maintain 10 elementary schools; the Jesuits 46 others. The three dioceses contain 61 Coptic priests.

Greek Melchites.—The Melchites, literally "royalists," were the Alexandrian Greeks of the fifth and following centuries who adhered doctrinally to the decrees of the Council of Chalcedon, and were the political followers of the Byzantine Emperors. They are generally supposed to have become united with Rome about the end of the seventeenth century, though the Melchites actually in Egypt think that there has always existed here a body in communion with Rome. They are immediately subject to the Melchite Patriarch of Antioch. The present patriarch, his Beatitude Cyril VIII., is represented in Egypt by a patriarchal vicar, Mgr. Macarios Saba, who, like his predecessors in office since 1834, is of episcopal rank. Fourteen parishes belong to the Melchites, viz., 3 at Alexandria, 4 at Cairo, and 1 each at Helouan, Mansourah, Port Said, Damietta, Tantah, Zifteh, and Mahallah-el-Kebira. At Cairo the Melchites have lately opened a secondary school for 200 boys. Of their 36 priests, 14 belong to the Basilian Congregation of Mount Lebanon. The number of Melchites in Egypt is given as 30,000.

Maronites.—The Maronites of Mount Lebanon at present in this country are supposed to number 10,000. Their name is probably derived from St. Maro, a Syrian monk, and, with the exception of a short break, they have always been in union with the Roman See. In 1760, the Maronites were organised here under a vicar-general, and in 1906, Mgr. Darian was consecrated and appointed patriarchal vicar. This vicariate contains 6 churches of the Maronite rite, with 22 priests, 12 of whom are monks. Their patriarch, Mgr. Houayek, resides at Bekurky, Lebanon.

Armenians.—About 1,700 Catholic Armenians are now in Egypt, and form a diocese in direct obedience to Rome. From 1732 the Armenians here were subject to the Patriarch of Cilicia, but in 1849 they were allowed independent administration under a bishop of their own rite, with Alexandria as the titular See. The present bishop, Mgr. Koyounian, has only 7 priests, who serve 3 churches—at Alexandria, Cairo, and Tantah.

Syrians.—Catholics of the Syrian rite number 1,500 in Egypt. Natives of Syria and Mesopotamia living at Alexandria in 1776, became converts to Church of Rome through Mgr. Jarwa, Syrian Archbishop of Aleppo, who had fled to Alexandria at an outburst of persecution. He was, however, able to return to Syria, and was elected patriarch in 1783. A priest was always sent to Egypt to take charge of the small Syrian community, till in 1842 regular vicars-general were appointed. His Beatitude Ignatius Ephrem II. resides in Mesopotamia, but is represented here by Mgr. Noury, titular Archbishop of Bagdad. This rite has 2 churches served by 4 priests.

Chaldeans.—A small body of 300 Syro-Chaldeans have a church at Cairo served by two priests. For a hundred years a priest of this rite was charged with the spiritual care of the Chaldeans; since 1906 the Patriarch of Babylon has been represented by a vicar-general who is a bishop, Mgr. Khondabache.

The table on page 205 shows the Catholic population and works in Egypt, including the Oriental rites in communion with the Holy See.



1. MGR. J. DARIAN. 2. HIS BEATITUDE KYRILLOS V. 3. MOST REV. MGR. AURELIO BRIANTE, O.F.M.

GREEK CHURCH.

BY GREGORY PAPAMICHAEL, Professor of Theology, Alexandria.

HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE CHURCH IN ALEXANDRIA.

THE Church of Alexandria, founded by St. Mark the Apostle (40–62 A.D.) and developed during the first centuries of Christianity, had an extremely chequered history, as a result of the political vicissitudes of Egypt. The attacks upon the Christian religion and Church began at the time the new religion was first preached. They were attacked by Greek pagans and Jews alike. As Alexandria was the most important and the most flourishing of the great cities of that time, not only from the point of view of commerce and industry but especially as the centre of science and learning, here were gathered the representatives of all the different philosophic and theological systems which then prevailed in the Greek and Oriental world.

For this reason the attacks upon Christianity at Alexandria were of a different character from those elsewhere. They were of a scientific and philosophic character, both on the part of the Jews and of the pagans. On this account we see the Church of Alexandria becoming gradually equipped with well-trained theologians and pastors, and founding a superior School of Catechism, the most renowned and the most ancient of all the great Christian schools of that time. In this school were trained first-rank theologians who afterwards taught the doctrines of the Church, such as Pantainos, Clement, Origen, Heraclas, Denis the Great, and several others. It is reported that the first Bishop of Alexandria to appoint bishops in the country was Demetrius (188–230), who was succeeded by Heraclas, the twelfth bishop after St. Mark. He was an exceedingly learned man. He established twenty new episcopal sees in Egypt. According to tradition, he was the first to be styled Pope of Alexandria, though it may be maintained that before that time not only the bishops but also the priests were called by this name in Egypt, just as subsequently the women who led an ascetic life in the desert were called "ammes."

Among the most learned bishops of Alexandria must be mentioned the successor of Heraclas, Denis the Great (247–264), in whose time the Alexandrian Church was cruelly persecuted by Decius and Valerian, and was ravaged by plague and famine. It was then that Denis carried Christian self-denial to a miraculous length, thus giving an extraordinary authority to the title of Bishop of Alexandria. Persecutions were subsequently proclaimed against that Church by Diocletian in the time of Bishop Peter (300–311); this was also the time of the martyrdom of St. Catherine, specially honoured by this Church. Special mention should also be made of the Bishop Alexander (311–326), in whose time the famous heresy of Arius (Arianism) arose. Against Arius, Bishop Alexander convened a Synod of 100 bishops and many presbyters. It should be noted that this bishop was present at the first Œcumenical Council at Nicea, where for the first time the Pope Bishop of Alexandria received the title of Patriarch. This title gave him the second place, after the Pope of Rome, in the hierarchical order, which order of precedence afterwards passed to the Bishop of Constantinople, owing to the political importance acquired by that city. In addition to his title, the Patriarch of Alexandria had the right to determine and to announce by letter the day on which Easter was to be celebrated. Whilst till then the Bishop of Alexandria had been elected by a meeting of Presbyters, Alexander ordered that this election should be carried out only by the Throne bishops.

Alexander was succeeded by Athanasius I., the Great (326–373), who, as deacon to his predecessor, had done much work for the Church and for Orthodoxy. Afterwards, as patriarch, he fought very strongly against Arianism, both by his teaching and by his personal suffering, being several times exiled from his patriarchate and returning each time with greater glory and honour. Under

Athanasius the Great lived the famous Anchorites, Pachomius and Anthony. It was then that St. Ephraim, a hermit in Syria, visited the famous Egyptian deserts. Christian asceticism in Egypt owes its rise to the influence of these ascetics. Afterwards it spread throughout the Christian Church, as a historical phenomenon, a new aspect of Christian public life till then unknown. Here was laid the first legislative basis to which the rules of St. Basil for the Christian Orient owe their origin, and those of Benedict for the West. At that time, at Oxyrynchus alone, more than 20,000 women lived as nuns. Among the celebrated patriarchs of Alexandria of that time is included St. Cyril I. (413–446), worthy of mention owing to his fight against the errors and heresies of Theodore, Bishop of Mopsuestia, and those of Nestorius. He presided over the third Œcumenical Council convened at Ephesus against the latter.

But after this Patriarch, terrible divisions and troubles began in the Church of Alexandria. Dioscuros, the successor of Cyril (446–451), having embraced the heresy of Eutyches, who recognised Jesus as having one nature, had caused great confusion throughout the Church, and particularly in that of Alexandria and in the succession of its patriarchate. After that time the followers of Eutyches were called Monophysites. The latter, under the direction of the apostate Presbyters Timotheus Ailouros and the Deacon Peter Mongos, after having killed Proterius, the Orthodox successor of Dioscuros (451–456), occupied the throne. From that time onwards, the Church of Alexandria was the scene of terrible disputes between the two parties, the Orthodox and the dissident Monophysites. After a period of discord, lasting almost a century, Paul was elected Patriarch of Alexandria, because until 536 it was the Monophysites who possessed the legitimate throne by violence and usurpation. After 536, however, they elected a separate patriarch, and from that time formed the unlawful conciliabulum of the Monophysite Copts. The Church once more gave signs of great life and progress, and above all under the Patriarch John the Charitable (611–621), during whose reign the number of churches in Egypt was doubled. Several towns, villages, and monasteries passed *en masse* to Orthodoxy, which thenceforward acquired authority with the Monophysites themselves under the direction of this eminently charitable patriarch. The attacks of the Saracens which followed, however, besides arresting the ever-increasing progress of this Church, likewise ruined the whole of what existed. Chosroës, the Persian King, destroyed six hundred monasteries around Alexandria, and put to the sword seven hundred monks with eighty thousand inhabitants, under the Patriarch Cyrus (631–641).

Peter III., the successor to Cyrus, was compelled to take up his residence in Constantinople owing to the occupation of Egypt by the Arabs (644). The decay and fall of the Church of Alexandria followed the unfavourable political conditions. As the Orthodox Greeks had alone marched against the invaders to protect the country, whilst the Copts readily yielded to the Mahomedans and assisted them in their work of conquest, the new masters of Egypt showed greater compassion towards these latter, and afforded them every protection. It will be readily understood that the Orthodox underwent many persecutions, and wrongs of every kind were inflicted on them; they were even compelled to embrace the Monophysite heresy. At the sixth Œcumenical Council (680), we note the presence of a certain representative of the Church of Alexandria, the Presbyter Peter, who signs as follows:—"Vicar of the Apostolic Throne and the Great City of Alexandria." Profiting by this misfortune and vacancy, the Monophysite Copts extended their action as far as Abyssinia, where, through their missionaries, they spread their heresy. It is true that in the V.–VI. Trullan Synod (691) we find the name of Peter, the humble bishop of the great city of Alexandria, and a few other names of bishops of that city, but it was only under Kosmas I. (742–748) that the Church began gradually to recover. In the time of the Patriarch Christodoulos (907–932) such was the superiority of the Orthodox Patriarch of Alexandria that the Patriarch of the Copts (913–923) paid him tribute, to which we find even the Copt Patriarch Theophanus (954–958) subject. Owing to his very friendly relations with the Caliph of Egypt, the Patriarch of Alexandria, Arsenius (1000–1010), possessed great influence. His successor, Theophilus or Philotheos (1010–20), was the first to be appointed "Judge of the Universe," a title afterwards borne by the Popes and Patriarchs of Alexandria, who also wore the double stole and the tiara. These special privileges were given to the Patriarch Theophilus for his ingenious settlement of a difficulty regarding what was known as the "Solidary" law between the Emperor of Byzantium, Basilius, Conqueror of Bulgaria, and the Patriarch of Constantinople, Sergius.

Unfortunately, the Saracens gave the Church no peace, and the continually persecuted Christians found no relief. Under the Patriarch Nicholas I. of Alexandria (1210–35), 115 churches were destroyed in Egypt by the Saracens. The persecuted Orthodox flocks were scattered hither and thither. Owing to these persecutions, the Patriarchs of Alexandria were compelled for the most part to reside away from their See, above all in Constantinople. As to the majority of them, no information has come down to us until we reach Philotheos. This Philotheos was a contemporary of the pseudo-synod convoked at Florence for the purpose of re-uniting the Catholic Church with the Orthodox Church. Although this patriarch had not given his consent and had not sent his representatives, nevertheless the Byzantine Emperor, Joannes Palæologus, without the knowledge of the patriarch, appointed delegates for the throne of Alexandria. These delegates were Antonius, the Metropolitan of Heraclea, who signs as follows: "Antonius, the most humble Metropolitan of Heraclea, Vicar of the Apostolic See of the Most Holy Patriarch of Alexandria, Philotheos"; and his Confessor, the monk Gregory. It will easily be understood that Philotheos, having learnt of the deceit with surprise, rejected the union. His successor, Gregory V. (1459–86), likewise condemned this pseudo-synod.

From Joachim, the successor of this patriarch (1486-1565), dates the discord between the Patriarchs of Alexandria and those of Jerusalem. It arose out of the spiritual overlordship of Sinai, which each of them claimed. The Sinaitic question owes its birth to this. In the time of Joachim, more intimate relations were cultivated with the Russian Church of the like faith, during the reign of the Grand Duke Basil Ivanovich. The patriarch appealed to this sovereign to rescue a learned Greek monk, known in Russia as Maximus the Greek, but his intervention was fruitless. The monk had been persecuted and imprisoned on account of a misunderstanding, although he had done much work for the Russian people and Church. The grateful Russian Church canonised him after his death, and continues to our day to honour his memory. Under the Patriarch Silvester, the Christians of Alexandria were bitterly persecuted by the Turks, who cut out the tongues of 30,000 Greek Christians and demolished many churches (1566–86). Silvester, crushed by persecution, was compelled to seek refuge in Constantinople. During his absence, the Sinaitic question was decided in favour of the patriarch in Jerusalem. Fortunately, Silvester, having appointed Meletius Pegas as protosyncellus, had found in him the resources of wide theological and secular knowledge. Pegas, as Archimandrite of the throne of Alexandria, worked very strongly against the Gregorian Calendar. He wrote a special work on the subject, and another on the conversion of the Monophysite Copts to Orthodoxy, from which they had fallen away. He also wrote on the preparation of good clergy worthy of the Church of Alexandria. Silvester entered into relations with the Russian Church. He denounced the desolation and the indigence of his patriarchate to the Emperor Theodore Ivanovich and to Denis, the Metropolitan of Moscow. After Silvester begins a series of patriarchs, who, by their learning and ecclesiastical activity generally, were renowned far beyond the boundaries of their Church. Silvester was succeeded by Pegas (1586–1601). In the person of his nephew Cyril Lucaris, Pegas had a valuable assistant, who afterwards greatly distinguished himself. His presence being necessary in Constantinople, Pegas hastened thither in order to work once more in connection with the Calendar. There he presided over the Synod of the Four Patriarchs, representing the Patriarchs of Antioch likewise in this synod. The question regarding the Russian patriarchate being settled, Pegas next sent Lucaris to south-west Russia in order to strengthen Orthodoxy there, but the Sinaitic question was again revived. Living sometimes in Alexandria and sometimes in Cairo, Pegas took care of the old monastery of St. Sabbas in Alexandria and that of St. George in Cairo, as well as the unique Patriarchal Church of St. Nicholas. For all this he appealed to the generosity of his pious flock, who, having confidence in his impressive personality, with pleasure furnished the necessary means. He made great efforts, even as a patriarch, for the conversion of the Copts to the Church, but in vain, as the Latin propaganda had accomplished its work with them by the customary Jesuitic means.

After the death of the Patriarch of Constantinople, Theophanus (1597), Meletius, being strongly urged, was compelled against his will to undertake the direction of the Œcumenical patriarchate. He accomplished his additional duties with complete integrity until 1599. The curious point is that under this patriarch no metropolitan or bishop or chorepiscopus is mentioned as on the throne of Alexandria. Meletius appointed as his successor Cyril Lucaris (1602–20) regarding whose work whilst on the Alexandrian throne we have but little record. We know, however, that during his patriarchate he assisted the affairs of the Churches of Cyprus and Russia. This patriarch was called to govern the Church of Constantinople as inspector, owing to the very anomalous state of the affairs of that Church. Lucaris was celebrated for his relations with the protestants and the works he had written to defend Orthodoxy against the Latins. After 1621 he was elected Patriarch of

Constantinople, being replaced at Alexandria by Gerassimus Spartaliotis (1620–36), a man of wide philosophical and theological attainments. He visited Constantinople several times during the patriarchate of Lucaris, assisting him in founding a printing office in Constantinople. The Patriarch Gerassimus is likewise known for his relations with the Anglicans and the Russians. To the latter he transmitted information on various questions regarding the cult; in the time of Philaretos, Metropolitan of Moscow (1633), he sent his protosyncellus Joseph to translate Greek books into Slavonic.

After the death of Gerassimus, Metrophanos Critopoulo, a hierarch of European culture, succeeded him on the throne (1636–39). Among the Patriarchs of Alexandria who followed, we must note Paisius (1657–77), who took part personally in the synod convened in Moscow for the purpose of degrading the Russian Patriarch Nicon. He contributed greatly during his stay in Russia to the foundation of higher schools for the propagation and study of the Greek, Latin, and Slavonic languages, literature and theology. The Patriarch Gerassimus II. (1668–1710) was likewise a hierarch of wide European attainments. His successor, Samuel Kapassoulis (1710–23), is likewise a patriarch worthy of mention.

The Greek Church did not rejoice in a large number of rich adherents, owing to the continual persecution and exhausting opposition on the part of the Turks. It could, therefore, neither provide sufficiently for its material needs, nor make war against the Latin propaganda, and the papal influence which easily found extension in this country. For this reason, the Alexandrian patriarchs mostly remained in Constantinople, and could only be persuaded with difficulty to accept the poor throne of Alexandria. The Alexandrians often complained to the other patriarchs with regard to the decadence of their Church owing to its poverty. For this reason, the patriarchs in those times were compelled to have recourse to the charity of the Orthodox Czars and Metropolitans in Russia, who sent some pecuniary assistance. Being in this state of indigence, the Alexandrian throne was certainly unable to maintain any worthy clergy, and it was only under the Patriarchs Artemius (1845–46) and Hierotheos (1846-59) that bishops began to be consecrated in Egypt, in order that it might be possible to elect the Patriarchs of Alexandria from among the clergy of that Church, in accordance with the usages sanctioned by earliest tradition, without having recourse to other Churches. It is reported that under the latter patriarch the Church of Alexandria possessed only two monasteries and ten very old churches. The cause of this devastation was said to lie, as appears from an appeal by the patriarch to his flock, in the frequent invasions by enemies, tyranny, murder, the greed of the Turkish Government employés, the crushing taxes, the complete destruction of the charitable establishments, such as hospitals, orphanages, homes for the aged, schools, &c. This state of affairs was slightly improved under the Patriarch Callimnicos (1859–1861), by means of offerings and collections among the Christians. Under this patriarch and under Nicanor (1866–70) once more the throne was a continual centre of troubles and anomalies, which worked great harm to the Church. Tranquillity was achieved by the election of Sophronius IV. (1870–89), ex-patriarch of Constantinople, who was succeeded by the present Patriarch Photius I. (1900).

From this brief history of the Church of Alexandria, it will be seen that its formerly glorious patriarchate, owing to extraordinary ill-fortune, has been reduced to regrettable mediocrity. The pagans in early centuries forced even the pastors of the Church to take refuge in the mountains and the deserts. Then the successive heresies divided the Church and detached from it a large number of Christians, who from that time onwards formed a special sect. After this the Orthodox Church, owing to the sympathies of the Mahomedan conquerors for the Copts, suffered indescribable wrongs and had a miserable existence during almost a century, deprived of pastors, and it was only in the eighth century that it began to renew its vitality. From the eighth century, however, a fresh enemy appeared in the Church of Alexandria —Latin influence. The position of the patriarchate was rendered still more parlous when, in the sixteenth century, the Turks had possession of Egypt. But in the seventeenth century, the Church having lost the revenues accruing from its monasteries in Russia and Roumania, poverty was added to the already existing misfortunes. Happily, during the last few decades of the nineteenth century, the political condition of the country has gradually improved, and the Orthodox Greeks, under more propitious circumstances, have found means to develop once more, by means of their inborn love of work and activity. Thus, in the populous centres first, and afterwards in the towns and villages of the interior of Egypt, the Orthodox Greeks, owing to their assiduous and strenuous lives, whilst introducing civilisation, marked out new roads for importation into a country still savage. They founded great, rich, and powerful communities there, with well organised philanthropic establishments and schools, almost all due to the individual initiative of Orthodox Greeks, who, by their admirable patriotism and piety, helped the Church of Alexandria to recover its ancient prestige. Thus developed, having obtained a good spiritual pastor, Greek Orthodoxy in Egypt is making rapid strides in spiritual and national progress, with the glory of the past as its ideal guide. A good chief, worthy of the contemporary movement in Egypt, has been found by the Orthodox Greek flock in the person of the present Patriarch Photius.

A zealous votary of the ancient glory of the Church, a hierarch of wide attainments and of penetrating mind, Photius in the earlier years of his patriarchate was concerned to raise up the Patriarchate of Alexandria as far as circumstances and means allowed. Having by his individual virtues attracted the pious sympathy of his flock in Egypt, he exhorted and induced the more well-to-do among the Greeks to carry out works of charity. He caused the entire reconstruction of the Church of St. George, belonging to the monastery of the same name in old Cairo, in accordance with a style of architecture in harmony with Greek church ideals and on a plan of imposing magnificence. With the assistance of pious Christians he increased the number of Greek churches in Egypt to forty. He demolished the old building of the patriarchate in Alexandria. There is no doubt that after an obscurity lasting so many centuries the Orthodox Greeks will have the interesting old ruin replaced by an edifice more beautiful and worthier of the Orthodox Greek culture, and the position the Church is rapidly attaining in Egypt. In his efforts for the amelioration of the finances of the Church of Alexandria, the Patriarch Photius contracted several loans, and, on the grounds of the patriarchate, had buildings erected which will gradually multiply, and the revenues of which will contribute towards covering the manifold needs of the patriarchate. He is concerned in no less degree with improving the condition of the clergy; he appoints and recommends well-educated pastors for the different posts as far as his means allow. He has been able to constitute a Synod, long inexistent, consisting of skilful bishops possessing no ordinary ecclesiastical and theological attainments. This Synod is made up of the following bishops: Theophanus, Metropolitan of Tripoli, Director of the Patriarchal Office of Alexandria and Patriarchal Churchwarden; Nectarius, Metropolitan of Chalepion, for a long time attached to the service of the Throne of Alexandria and Patriarchal Churchwarden in Cairo; the Metropolitan of Ptolemais in Egypt, residing at Minieh; the Metropolitan of Axoum, appointed spiritual pastor to the Orthodox established in Abyssinia and the surrounding regions; and the Metropolitan of Leontopolis recently ordained (1908) for the district of Sharkia, having Zagazig as the seat of his metropolis.

Being a man of literary accomplishments, and an ardent advocate of education, Photius recently established a complete printing office in the patriarchate, and proceeded to publish two ecclesiastical and theological journals, namely, the *Beacon of the Church* and *Pantainos*. The former is a monthly Church review, octavo, containing six to seven printed sheets, in which are published various theological and educational treatises by the most eminent and most distinguished Greek authors, together with criticisms, bibliography, and reviews of the universal press. The second is a weekly supplement to the former, containing sixteen pages, of more practical substance, suited above all to the Orthodox public. In the latter are published the annals of the Church of Alexandria, recording ecclesiastical and religious events. These two journals, which appear for the first time in the Alexandrian Church, are due to the initiative of the Patriarch Photius; their editorship is in the hands of Gregory Papamichael, Professor of Theology. They unquestionably constitute a great event as regards the Church of Alexandria in particular, and in general as regards Greek ecclesiastical literature. For this reason they have everywhere met with a warm welcome by the Greeks, especially in scientific circles in Europe and Russia. Indefatigable in his solicitude for his flock, shrinking from no fatigue, undertaking long and difficult voyages, the Patriarch Photius when need arises traverses the whole length of Egypt down to Khartoum. In the general interest of the Church he submits to enormous sacrifices in order to act personally, and to contribute to the advancement of the Church as justice and propriety require. Furthermore, gifted with an extraordinary oratorical talent, a master of the Greek language, and manipulating it with a skill beyond any other contemporary Greek hierarch, the Patriarch Photius is justly renowned as being the finest orator among his ecclesiastical contemporaries, and the best author, successfully using a classical and elegant style. He is the only one who preaches regularly and explains the Gospel in the Church, thus reviving the sermon which the closed lips of a long series of Patriarchs had left unspoken and forgotten. Under such a chief, possessed of the rarest accomplishments, the widest intelligence, the most ardent patriotism and extraordinary activity, Greek Orthodoxy may accomplish much for the Church of Alexandria.

COPTIC CHURCH.

CHRISTIANITY was established in Alexandria by St. Mark, the Apostle; and up to the fifth century the Church of Alexandria occupied a position second only to that of Rome, and played a memorable part. It held sway far southwards, converted Abyssinia, and extended Christianity almost to the Equator. At one time no less than a hundred bishops were included in the Alexandrine hierarchy; and the mention of such famous names as Origen, Athanasius, and Cyril in this connection is sufficient to show the importance of this division of Christendom in the first centuries of the Christian era. After the first persecutions, the Emperor Theodosius having issued his decree for the official recognition of Christianity, there was peace in the Eastern Church until the era of the councils. Then arose fierce dissensions over various doctrinal matters, which caused divisions in the body composite. The Eutychian theory regarding the dual nature of Christ was the rock upon which the great split occurred. The theory was approved by the Council of Ephesus, but was subsequently condemned by that of Chalcedon, held A.D. 451. The Copts, the Egyptian Christians who were the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of the land (the Copts are called "Gypts" in Arabia) refused to assent to the latter decision. They adhered to their belief in the divine nature (only) of Christ and not His humanity. They were consequently branded as heretics by the Byzantine Church. Thus the Coptic Church began its separate existence, which it has maintained, under its own patriarchate, in unbroken sequence to this day.

After the revolt of the Copts, a new bishop was appointed by the Byzantine Emperor to take charge of the Church at Alexandria; and this led to the formation of two ecclesiastical factions there, namely, the Melchites (who were Greek supporters of the Emperor's nominee) and the Monophysites, consisting of the Copts, natives of Egypt (who resisted the doctrine accepted by the Byzantine Church). This division in the Egyptian Church lasted for nearly two centuries. Each of the two factions maintained its own line of patriarchs at Alexandria, and during this long period strife, accompanied by persecution, was incessant between them. The fall of the Byzantine Empire at last freed the Coptic Church from Greek interference, and the Melchites were swept away from Alexandria.

Since the severance from the Byzantine Church in the fifth century, the Coptic Church, which was at that time the national Church of Egypt, has preserved intact its faith and privileges, and maintained its line of patriarchs. Under the high-sounding original title of "Most Holy Pope and Patriarch of the great City of Alexandria and all the land of Egypt, of Jerusalem and the Holy City, of Nubia, Abyssinia, and Pentapolis, and all the preaching of St. Mark," one head of the Church has succeeded another, from St. Mark himself, who was the first patriarch, down to the present holder of the title, Kyrillos V., who is the 112th. About 110 years ago the seat of the patriarchate was transferred from the Haret-el-Roum, Alexandria, to the Ezbekieh district of Cairo, where it is now located. The patriarch is chosen by an assembly of bishops and elders, and the candidate is brought in chains from one of the desert monasteries, wherein he must have served for a certain period. The other holy orders in the Coptic Church are metropolitan, bishop, chief priest, priest, archdeacon, deacon, monk. There are three metropolitans and twelve bishops in Egypt, one metropolitan and two bishops in Abyssinia, and one bishop at Khartoum, in the Soudan. Nunneries as well as monasteries are maintained. The Church still retains its hold over Abyssinia, no king of which country may be crowned save by the Coptic metropolitans there, at the direction of the patriarch. The archbishops and bishops in that region are chosen from the Coptic community in Egypt.



COPTIC BISHOPS.

Central Figure: HIS BEATITUDE MGR. MACAIRE (Coptic Patriarch).
Right Figure: MGR. MAXIMOS SEDFAOUI. Left Figure: MGR. IGNACE BERZI.

In the days of its full vitality, the Coptic Church maintained a very large number of monasteries and churches in Egypt, together with a correspondingly numerous priesthood. Rufinus relates that he found no fewer than ten thousand monks in the Arsinöe region; and the Persians are said, during their invasion, to have destroyed as many as six hundred monasteries near Alexandria. A writer of the twelfth century gives a very long list of the Christian churches in Egypt in his day. In the earliest times the places of worship were caverns hewn in the rocks. The most famous of the Coptic churches were the Cathedral of St. Mark at Alexandria, which survived the Arab conquest, and the Red and White monasteries in Upper Egypt, which still remain. Some interesting Coptic fanes of great ages may be found in Old Cairo, hidden away as if still seeking concealment from the Arab conquerors and despoilers—a shrinking attitude characteristic of this Church throughout its separate existence; also in the Wadi Natroun district. In the architecture of these buildings, some of which are splendid basilicas, the influence of Byzantine art is

plainly apparent; but the Coptic style also possessed unmistakable native features.

The Copts held tenaciously to their belief, and defection from their Church was unknown until about a century ago. At that time the Roman Catholic Church began to obtain converts; while the Protestant Churches have also proselytised successfully during the past thirty or forty years. The Holy Place of the Copts is Jerusalem, to which sacred city pilgrimages are undertaken much in the same way as the Mahomedans make pilgrimage to Mecca. Easter is the great festival of the Church, and it is also the season of pilgrimage. The Coptic form of worship does not differ materially from that of other Christian churches. Prayers are said in Coptic, and the gospels are read in the same language, while mass is celebrated both in Coptic and Arabic. Each church has three altars in three contiguous chapels at the east end of the building, the central being the high altar. With the exception of the pyx, which is tabooed, the same altar vessels are used as in the Western Church. But graven images being prohibited the crucifix has no place in the Coptic places of worship. Sacred pictures, however, and frescoes abound. The bread and wine received in the Eucharist, which is administered with a spoon from the chalice, as in the Greek Church, must be taken fasting. Incense is burnt universally and frequently during the services, and the music consists of cymbals and triangles, used as accompaniments to the chanting. Seven sacraments are recognised, namely, baptism, confirmation, the eucharist, penance, holy orders, matrimony, and extreme unction. But the practice of confession is said to be falling into disuse. Marriage is compulsory for priests; but celibacy is imposed upon the monks, also upon high dignitaries. The Calendar observed by the Church is that of Diocletian, which is otherwise known as the Martyr's Calendar, and which differs from the Gregorian computation of time by a trifle of 284 years. The Patriarch resides within the precincts of his headquarters at Cairo, but makes tours of inspection from time to time. The present pontiff recently went to Khartoum to consecrate the new church founded there largely through his personal exertions.

The Coptic Church is maintained by contributions from its adherents.

From time to time, lands and property have been left to the Church by devout people, and these are administered by the Patriarch and Coptic notables.

In every district where there is an archbishop or bishop, there is a council which sees to the administration of the churches and schools. Including several large cathedrals, there are between four hundred and six hundred Coptic churches in Egypt, and the Coptic influence on Arabic art is often in evidence in the ecclesiastical edifices. It is estimated by leading Copts in Cairo, that upwards of eight hundred thousand persons, or about a fourteenth of the population of Egypt are communicants of their Church; and the number of ecclesiastics is about seven hundred. The Church owns some fifty schools, the principal of which is the Coptic College, situated in the precincts of the patriarchate, in Cairo. This institution, founded about fifty years ago, is under the management of a special committee, appointed by the National Council of the Church under the presidency of His Holiness the Patriarch.

Here, upwards of eight hundred and fifty pupils, ranging in age from seven years to twenty, receive instruction, the subjects taught including Coptic, Arabic, English, French, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, drawing, caligraphy, (Arabic and Roman), geography, history, physics, and chemistry. The college is divided into two sides, primary and secondary, and in every branch of the secondary section Arabic is taught. There is also a preparatory school for the younger boys. Pupils are prepared for the Government's primary and secondary certificates. The Catechism is also taught in order to bring up the children in the Orthodox faith; but it is stated that the young Copts of the present day are not so devout as their fathers.

In early times, the Church was persecuted by both Jews and Arabs; and at the time of the Fatimide Caliphs, many were compelled to profess the Mahomedan faith. Copts were crucified, also burned at the stake, and generally subjected to the vilest cruelties. Their churches and monasteries were burned and destroyed, or converted into mosques. But there ever remained a leaven of the faithful, who kept alive the history, traditions, and tenets of their faith and formed the nucleus of the Church as it exists in Egypt to-day. Since the seventh century, this form of faith has remained in a state of isolation, so little affected by outside influences, so little changed by the course of time, that its ritual to-day presents, in many respects, an exact picture of the rites and ceremonies of primitive Christendom, of which it is one of the most ancient relics.

But the inexorable law of progress is now beginning to effect even this seclusive community. Among the younger generation of Copts, many of whom have been educated according to Western notions and have become imbued with Western ideas, has arisen a feeling of dissatisfaction with the condition of stagnation and obsoleteness, begotten of many centuries of subjection to Mahomedan rule, to which their Church has been reduced, with the result that a strong reform party has been formed which hopes to revitalise that institution and generally improve the state of things in the Coptic community. The outcome, so far, is a struggle, still proceeding, between the reformers and the stolid, archaic, conservative hierarchy, headed by the patriarch. The dispute centres upon the question of the endowments of the Church, which at present are in the absolute control of the latter. The reformers desire to use some of the revenue for the furtherance of progressive and useful schemes, chiefly educational, which are not, however, the specific objects for which the endowments were made. To this the patriarch is determinedly opposed. There the matter stands at time of writing, and it is probable that for due settlement of the dispute recourse will have to be had to the law of the land. It is certain that if the Coptic Church is to be revitalised and restored to anything like the position it might hold as the direct descendant of the great Church of Alexandria, vigorous measures, such as those proposed by the reformers, which it is hopeless to expect its present executive to undertake, are necessary. In relation to this position of affairs, Lord Cromer, in his book, says: "Time is on the side of the reformers; they must eventually gain the day, in spite of Patriarchal opposition. . . . This latter-day movement of the young Copts affords ground for hope. If it be continued, the Coptic community may in time develop attributes which will generate and foster self-respect." Sir John Bowring, another high authority on the subject, said: "The Copts will probably occupy no small part of the field in the future history of Egypt." But the first step towards asserting themselves must be the casting off of the dead weight of their leaden heritage of ignorance and servility.

As evidence of the competence of the educated Copt to take a prominent part in the service of his country, it is to be noted that the present Prime Minister of Egypt and Minister of Foreign Affairs, H.E. Boutros Ghali Pasha, K.C.M.G., is a Copt of the Orthodox Church. He is the first Egyptian of this faith to hold the position of Premier. But it is equally remarkable that no Copt has ever been appointed as Mudir (Governor) or Sub-Governor in any of the towns or villages. And there is no Copt holding the position of headmaster in any of the Government schools. Several of the judges, however, profess the Coptic faith; and members of this Church hold good positions in various walks of life in their native land.

It may be mentioned that during 1908 the Government of Egypt devoted the sum of £E1,500 to consolidating the famous White Coptic Monastery, near Sohag, in Upper Egypt, besides £E600 to other Coptic monuments.

THE PRESS.

By Bernie Mansfield, Editor of the *Egyptian Morning News*.

He would be a bold man indeed who, having held a responsible position connected with the early Egypto-European Press, essayed to write a full, true, and absolutely honest history of its early days, and only such a one might do so, for there are few or no written or printed records to guide the present-day historian.

The discreditable conditions—not to use a stronger epithet—under which the earliest newspapers had to be conducted produced their inevitable consequences. The unscrupulous use of the Press made by those having power and authority gave the example, and paved the way for the equally unscrupulous use made of it by those who, when cast aside like worn-out tools, as being of no further utility, turned against their quondam wielders.

I offer no apologies for the undoubted newspaper crimes then committed upon the public. The first were officially aided and abetted; the subsequent ones were perpetrated—some out of spite or in revenge, and some maybe in the hopes of again receiving hush-money for the suppression of one class of news and consideration money for the transmission and publication of another.

So notorious was the established and accepted system, especially during the last few years of the reign of the much maligned magnificent Ismael and from thence onwards until the early years of the British occupation which followed so closely upon his deposition, that adventurers had no difficulty whatever in obtaining large sums of money for the transmission of laudatory telegrams and letters which they pretended they could have published in influential papers in England and on the Continent, and similar, if not larger, sums as the buying-in price of others just the reverse, and which they again pretended they were being commissioned to write by people operating on the European Stock Exchanges. The legends of those golden days have yet to be written, but their publication may take place only when the last of the actors in the Egyptian financial drama has made his exit.

Maybe in this we find an explanation and good reason for the Egyptian Government still paying subsidies to at least one telegraphic news agency, and giving it a virtual monopoly for early official news to ensure the transmission and receipt of veracious news. All remember the outcry made when the English Press were told that they would have to apply to this agency for any news concerning the Soudan expedition of 1898, but the circumstances were exceptional, and it is no secret now that absolute necessity existed for keeping not the British public but our present ally, France, in ignorance of the real progress being made and the probable date of the final rush to secure the head waters of the Nile and the open waterway to the Equator.

It is no matter for wonder that even as yet but scant courtesy is exhibited towards the Press by the official classes, for is it not decreed that the sins of the fathers shall be visited upon the children until the third and fourth generation? Some little time must therefore elapse before the present Egypto-European Press may be declared clear of the taint still wrongly attaching to it, for while we are the undoubted heritors of the early Press we are not its lineal descendants. If there are any of the old hands still in Egypt, they are either forgotten or unknown.

I do not presume so far as to say that the governing bodies in Egypt have not excellent reason, as they had years ago, for protesting, and vehemently too, against the most improper use to which certain papers are put by the dissemination of fictitious news and information, attacks upon groups and individuals, incitement to agitation and disorders, and other heinous offences against the code of honour and *lex non-scripta* of journalism.

But here, again, those apparently responsible for the contents of the paper are not in all cases entirely to blame. I am referring now to the vernacular Press. There are many people in Egypt, who, holding positions of power and influence, and having an axe to grind, are able to dictate when dollars do not talk, and they do not scruple to do so. The worst delinquents maybe are those not holding salaried official positions.

It would be in vain to hope that even granted a deliberative assembly somewhat analogous to our own Parliament, where all matters of public interest might be freely discussed, where Ministers and Secretaries of State might be heckled to your heart's content and to the delight of the occupants of the reporters' gallery, that the evil I have just mentioned would disappear and an all-round free and untrammelled Press arise. It would not be advisable or politic to begin detailing my reasons for the foregoing expression of opinion, but I cannot refrain from relating one incident to bear me out *et ab uno disce omnes*.

When Egypt's first Parliament met (the Legislative Council and General Assembly), the members, all of whom were drawn from the highest and most influential classes, it was explained to them that those in favour of the Government and its policy should seat themselves on one side of the hall and those against on the opposite side. The leading exponent of Mahomedan (Religious) Law, a government nominee, seated himself on the Government benches, and all the members followed suit. They would follow the same lead in a supposed free parliament, yet still grind their axes outside surreptitiously in the good old way by means of the vernacular Press.

You cannot, in a quarter of a century, imbue with the fearlessness, confidence, and sense of security of the free-born Briton when he cries aloud his wrongs, real or imaginary, a people who, from the dawn of history, as is recorded on the monuments scattered over the country, had been nothing more nor less than an oppressed and uncomplaining race of slaves, accepting their lot as being only in the natural order of things. Here they would fear the consequence of any exercise of free speech in criticising or opposing the Government and its policy, not that they would have anything to fear from the Government itself, but from powerful, interested and independent individuals, as I shall attempt later to show. This is one of those little points I should like particularly to impress upon any of my *confrères* who might be called upon to enlighten his readers upon some modern Egyptian question where there would appear to be a great divergence of views between the powers that be and the powers that would be.

It is one of the joys of this country that there is no common language used by all for general intercourse. The written and spoken Arabic are entirely distinct one from the other, a European possessing a good command of colloquial Arabic, being as much at sea with the written language as the majority of the natives.

The official languages of the Government are Arabic and French, with Italian added in

the Law Courts. The first two are more or less ungrammatically spoken by the Government officials, who, by the way, claim Arabic, English, French, Italian, German, Greek, Russian, Turkish, or Armenian as their mother tongue, and each one of the nationalities mentioned, with one exception, have their own local newspaper to watch over their individual interests inside and outside the Government. These interests, as can be well understood, are numerous, and all pull against each other. Added to these are the conflicting interests of the native born—Mahomedans and Copts—as their respective papers published in the vernacular afford ample evidence.

It will have been seen at once from the foregoing that the path of the journalist in Egypt is not encumbered with rose leaves, for the collection of news requires some little tact and strategy. Figuratively speaking, you must waylay the scouts sent out from a dozen friendly-hostile camps on a similar mission to your own, for while the greatest *camaraderie* exists between us, it cannot be expected to extend to the giving away of some spicy or exclusive bit of news before your own paper has published it, nor can you well expect your personal friends and acquaintances of other nationalities to show you any preference over their own local national paper, connected with which the most favoured nation clause *re* news begins and ends. Our comings and goings, especially between Government departments, embassies, and consulates are of prime interest to each one of us, and though our sanctums might be miles apart, we meet daily, and not once only.

It is when the daily polyglot exchanges come in that the cup of enjoyment of the editor is filled or spilled, according as to whether you or some one else has brought off a "scoop." The babel of languages being spoken becomes confusion worse confounded, which is added to when the heads of the composing room rush in for "copy," taking their instructions, as in our own case, in English, French, Arabic, Italian, and Greek, as the case may be.

Incredible as it may appear, it is none the less a fact that a no inconsiderable portion of each newspaper, above all things in the world of printing, is, in Egypt, set up by compositors who do not know a sentence of the language with which they are dealing. The composing room staffs are necessarily polyglot, but you cannot expect each member to be conversant with each one of the languages mentioned, and with the typography of those not using the Romanic characters.

When dealing with extra confidential work in the general printing department, for example, Government reports, lawyers' conclusions in some *cause célèbre* and such like, compositors are especially selected for their ignorance of the language in which they are written, in order to ensure secrecy; and such work as I have indicated is being gradually entrusted to the safe keeping of the Press itself until the appointed time comes for its publication to the world. This "safe deposit" system has long been appreciated at home, but has only lately dawned upon people here.

From some of the preceding remarks, it will have been guessed that the life of the Cairene "reader" is not a very happy one; what he has to endure uncomplainingly would lead to brawls in the composing rooms elsewhere. A local "free-lance," now "gone to press," once apologised to his subscribers and advertisers for the innumerable mistakes which he knew they would come across in his weekly, by explaining that he was going out of town for two days, leaving the paper to be set up "by a blind Armenian from the dictation of his deaf son, who knew not one word of English." To those who know the printing world of Egypt, there is not so much Munchausenism in this as would appear to strangers to the country.

Not so many years ago, the editors and chief reporters of reputable journals were welcome callers at the sanctum of any highly placed official whom he might wish to see upon some abstruse point connected with internal or external politics, a government project, a law affecting European privileges, &c., some point with which that official's department might be



REPRESENTATIVES OF THE EGYPTIAN PRESS, PAST AND PRESENT.

1. N. Caravia, Editor, *Kairon*. 2. A. S. Vavacoukis, Proprietor, *Kairon*.
3. Leo Weixthal, Editor and Managing Director, *The African World and Cape-Cairo Express*. 4. Sheikh Abdul Aziz Shawish, Editor, *El Lewa*.
5. The late H.E. Mustapha Kamil Pasha, founder of the *El Lewa*. 6. Sheikh Ahmed Alazhary Bey. 7. Bernie Mansfield, English Editor, *Egyptian Morning News*.
8. El Sayed Sheikh Aly Bey Youssouf, Editor, *El Moyad*. 9. Dr. Y. Sarruf, Editor, *El Mokattam*.
10. Ath. C. Garofallo, Manager, *L'Egypte* and *The Egyptian Morning News*. 11. Saleh Hamdi Hammad Bey. 12. Dr. F. Nimr, Editor, *El Muktataf*.
13. Rowland Snelling, Editor and Manager, *Egyptian Gazette*, Alexandria. 14. E. F. Fothergill, Editor, *The Sphinx*.
15. The late Boustros el Bustany, a well-known author in the Arabic World. 16. A. Cunningham, Editor, *Egyptian Daily Post*.

primarily concerned, for it was not known at what moment their aid might be required in leading a strayed public opinion back into the right path, or preparing it for some important changes to be made. And have I not already shown that Egypt boasts of many publics, each one of whom, by virtue of the Capitulations, is a State unto itself, under its own national flag and enjoying many privileges?

In the days I am writing of, Egypt was a seething cauldron of international, political, commercial, and financial intrigue, in which every one dabbled. Government officials of European nationality were not always uniformly successful in keeping away from their compatriots attached to the respective legations information which ought not to have been divulged, and no compunction was shown in dubbing as a traitor to his country any one who succeeded too well in doing so. In a word, there was a considerable leakage of government secrets and abstraction of copies of confidential documents concerning questions under deliberation. At one time, the purloined information would be confided to one of the local papers, and at another it would appear in some inspired newspaper elsewhere, whichever course was best calculated most to embarrass the Government—especially the British Government.

As each nation and each individual was fighting for his own hand, all this engendered a universal tendency to look upon every one else with suspicion, whether inside or outside official circles, and some so far debased themselves as to indulge in a little private detective work, or should I call it by its proper name—a little sneaking and spying, for not even the small talk of the social board or the confidences of club-land were sacred to them. Cock-and-bull stories were invented and related in a sort of stage whisper in the hearing of any one suspected of being in relation with any of the newspapers, and the columns would be searched for days to see if the bait had taken. Positively, it was running a risk then to be seen talking to a pressman on the grand stand of a racecourse.

The official, semi-official, unofficial, and amateur attempts to roll the Sisyphean boulder of authority over the crest of the hill and send it crashing into the Press on the other side, ended in the institution of a Press Bureau, and to it the Press representatives of all nationalities were referred for all or any official information they might require. To save them the trouble of mounting the staircases leading to the ministers' and secretaries' rooms, and also the general offices, the bureau was installed on the ground floor in what was previously an Eastern equivalent for our porter's room, so that there was no need for them to enter the building proper! Yet with all this precaution, and in spite of notices posted in all the offices warning the officials against communicating in any way with the Press, official information reached it without going through the formality of filtering through the Press Bureau.

One amusing episode of the time should be recorded. A strip of white wood was nailed on the floor across the doorway leading to the combined writing room and secretary's office of one of the principal Anglo-Egyptian officials, and pressmen were warned of the awful consequences which would ensue if that Rubicon was crossed. They took the hint and stayed away, but awful consequences ensued nevertheless, and they ought to have been anticipated. The "we hear" and "it is rumoured" paragraphs were the exciting cause.

That strip of wood was very soon discreetly and unostentatiously removed, and the lately proscribed were enticed to walk into the parlour by the alluring bait of a two-pedestaled drawered desk placed there for their convenience while awaiting an interview, and the desk was kept constantly replenished with all the stationery and desk accessories so dear to the journalistic heart and pocket. Is it necessary for me to say that the arrangement worked to perfection, and the value of the Press to the Government, when taken into its confidence, was amply demonstrated?

I ought to mention that the estimable old nobleman and ex-diplomat who was the first director of the Press Bureau was a chronic invalid, whose attendance at the office was regulated by the state of his health from day to day, so that the Press soon tired of kicking its heels while awaiting his problematical appearance, and soon shunned the place, to worry as beforehand at the doors of ministers and secretaries.

The Press Bureau is now ruled by the head of Egypt's Scotland Yard, whose factotum makes a daily matutinal round of the Government offices, collects such official information as is intended for publication, and towards midday dictates this to the representatives of the Press, who have a room put at their disposition. Yet, still the Press comes into legitimate possession of undictated news. I mention two cases to illustrate this point, and also to emphasise my remarks anent axe grinding, and to show also that the Press may be victimised to the extent of being regarded with suspicion over the publication of news which the editor has received and accepted in all good faith as being semi-officially communicated for the express purpose of publication.

Certain propositions of the Egyptian Government requiring the approbation of the Powers of Europe after being officially approved of by the Cabinet were to have been communicated to the Ministers Plenipotentiary in Cairo for transmission, with their covering despatches, to their respective Governments. The propositions had been kept a profound secret, and it was not until some six or seven hours before the Cabinet was to meet that anything was committed to writing. The draft of the formal letter to be handed to the Ministers Plenipotentiary was drawn up in camera by three of the highest officials, one of whom pencilled out the clauses as their definite phrasing was agreed upon. These notes were handed by a "senior" to a "junior confidential" to type out and pull a dozen copies by the gelatine process. A special paper was used, and each sheet bore some cryptic mark. The pencil notes and original type copy were burned in the room, and the gelatine negatives obliterated with boiling water. At about 2 p.m., on a certain afternoon, five officials, practically sworn to secrecy, made their sortie, satisfied that for once a secret had been kept until the last moment. At two o'clock the next day they heard by telegraph that the precious document was being printed *in extenso* by a newspaper published in Alexandria, and the interested five anxiously awaited the arrival of the evening train by which copies of the paper were being sent to dissipate their incredulity. The editor of the paper was telegraphed for, and came; but absolutely refused to disclose the secret of his arcana. The "junior confidential," one of whose privileges was to commit the indiscretion of communicating with the Press when told to do so, was pounced upon, but when he naïvely suggested that each one of the select and exclusive dozen officials who had received a copy should be asked to produce it, the one from which the newspaper was set up discovering itself by thumb and other marks inseparable from the composing room, the incident closed there and then.

The second instance I select is connected with the premature disclosure of some proposed changes in the Customs tariff, a disclosure which cost the Government dear. As an opportunity did not present itself for many months after the event to trace the leakage to its origin, no one troubled to look up old files to see which newspaper first gave the news, and when. However, in the month of October or November of a certain year, the Director-General of Customs came into possession of a copy of the proposed changes typewritten upon the official paper of the Government. There were but two departments of the Government where the information could have been obtained, and where orders might have been given for the copy to be made; but no one in either department had the slightest recollection of the question, and a strict search through records drew blank so far as discovering any memorandum or minute. Therefore, the document must have been dictated to some one, but by whom, and to whom? None knew.

An official having some little experience of typewriters was shown the document, and asked whether there were any peculiarities in the printing which might lead to the detection of the machine upon which it was written. A few were pointed out, a copy taken, and he was entrusted with the discovering of the machine, but failing to find the incriminating machine in Cairo, he was ordered to Alexandria to examine those in the Custom House itself, for during the summer months a certain number of the Cairo officials had been installed there, and the document was printed in the month of August.

Sitting down to type a few notes before his departure, what was his amazement to discover that his own was the machine he had been looking for. He at once announced this, at the same time stoutly protesting his innocence. His immediate chief now entered upon the scene, and then became possessed of a vague idea of having dictated the document. A search through the note books of the now self-incriminated official also drew blank. Asking to be allowed to see the document again, he noted for the first time the year, and in a few minutes' time was able to prove that for two months before, and nearly two months after, the merchants and newspapers became in wrongful possession of the information, he was three thousand miles away—and the curtain was rung down on this unfinished comedy-tragedy!

In both instances the actual culprit must have been some one walking in the higher ranks of the Civil Service.

I believe I have now gone some little way towards showing how the normally ultra-delicate position of the Egypto-European editor may be made even more so by giving publicity to information which he has accepted in all good faith, only to be told later that some unknown official must have stepped aside from the path of strict official rectitude. Then only he discerns that his informant had some personal object to gain, the Government interests possibly clashing with his private interests outside, or maybe it was an intense patriotic feeling which had led him astray in the means adopted to bolster up his native country's political or commercial interests.

One has constantly to bear in mind here that acts which would at home be resented as being nothing more than breaches of privilege,

confidence, or friendship are simply considered here as the quintessence of Eastern diplomacy, and as such ought to merit the admiration of all, more especially that of their victims, and I am not speaking from the experiences of the editorial chair only.

To come to contemporary history, I may state that there exist in Cairo no less than twenty-four newspapers published in Arabic, and thirteen in the European languages, almost all of comparatively recent foundation, the leading Arabic paper being only in its twenty-first year. In Alexandria there are eight newspapers printed in Arabic, and eight in European.

The *Phare d'Alexandrie* may claim to be the doyen of the European Press, its first issue being in 1873. It was followed closely by the *Egyptian Gazette*, which came into existence as the first responsible British journal in the country in 1880. The *Kairon*, a Greek paper, was instituted about the same time as the *Phare*, and has a good circulation to-day amongst the very large Greek community in the country. I mention these as being the oldest established newspapers in the country. During their fairly long existence a number of newspapers have appeared and disappeared, including the Arabic edition of the *Egyptian Gazette*, which was supported by funds from the secret service, and expired when it had served its purpose.

With one exception, all the newspapers in Egypt go to press early in the afternoon, between twelve and three, when all banks and commercial houses are closed. The local news is collected the night before and is supplemented by the morning telegrams from Europe.

One of the things remarked by occasional visitors to the country is the large proportion of the twenty-four hours of the day passed by the residents of Cairo at the cafés. These resorts are not the gorgeous gin-palaces which people have been led to believe, but are soberly conducted establishments, with their rows of marble-topped tables on the pavements of the principal streets or boulevards, where professional, commercial, social, and newspaper men foregather and discuss in various languages the day's news, politics, and business, while they scan their chosen newspaper. At each table pens and pencils may be seen busily at work, for the cafés, it must be admitted, are the hub of the commercial and journalistic world. Each café has, at certain hours, a particular clientèle. At one, architects, engineers, and contractors meet; at another, financial, land and general brokers; at another, the legal fraternity have their rendezvous; in a word, the cafés are the international clubs of Cairo, where the greater part of all business is transacted, and to each one the up-to-date and zealous journalist must wend his way to obtain copy or verify some late information. Any one calling at a newspaper office in Fleet Street, wishing to see the editor or general manager of a London newspaper at ten o'clock in the morning, would be a little staggered to be referred to such and such a table at such and such a licensed house; but this obtains in Egypt, because, as I have pointed out at some length in the early part of these notes, this is the most practical way of obtaining news, the official Press Bureau having practically no *raison d'être*.

This condition of affairs has the great disadvantage in that the anonymity of the Press, as understood in England, is quite impossible here, an editor never knowing at what moment he may be button-holed and roundly abused over some article or paragraph which has not met with the approval of one of his subscribers; while, at another time, one of his friends or acquaintances will not understand why the papers should not devote two or three columns towards the ventilation of some grievance which is not of the slightest interest to the general public. In short, the editor of a newspaper in Egypt requires to have an iron constitution and a very complacent nature.

It was not always so. In the good-bad old unregenerate days, journalists of a sort succeeded in making things lively for any who earned their resentment, but a change came with what Nubar Pasha termed the "Administrative Occupation" of Egypt by Great Britain, when Government officials had to be as callous to the attacks then made upon them as we present-day journalists have to be to the scant courtesy shown us now that the tables are turned.

The effect of the working of the Press Laws recently exhumed from the enactments of 1881, is a matter of conjecture. They are at the moment of writing being most bitterly opposed, not so much by the



THE "EGYPTIAN GAZETTE."

European Press, as by the vernacular organs, who regard the measure as an arbitrary and retrograde policy.

This law empowers the Government to close and confiscate printing offices that have not obtained a licence from the Ministry of the Interior, and to fine the writers and publishers of pamphlets or newspapers, and to stop the publication of newspapers for conduct which may be considered contrary to morality or religion, or calculated to disturb public order.

As I have already mentioned, all the newspapers in Egypt publish early in the afternoon, with the exception of the Anglo-French journal entitled *L'Egypte—The Egyptian Morning News*. The latter paper was first published seven years ago, and, appealing as it did to two communities, at once sprang into prominence. It claims the largest circulation of any European newspaper in the country, but *El Moyaad* and *El Mokattam*, the leading Arabic papers, have a larger circulation amongst the native community, a new journal, *El Minbar* being also widely read.

Of recent years, there has been formed in Cairo, a club, to which are admitted only the acknowledged editors and sub-editors of responsible European journals. It has proved invaluable in protecting the interests of journalists in the country, and mainly by its influence journalism in Egypt, despite the disadvantages to which I have drawn attention, is on a much higher literary plane, so much so, that the leading Continental and British newspapers regularly quote from the local press as being a true and reliable index of educated public opinion in the country.

EGYPTIAN GAZETTE.

The *Egyptian Gazette* was established at Alexandria in January, 1880, as a weekly paper. It subsequently made its appearance three times a week, and was eventually issued daily. Its founders were Mr. C. F. Moberly Bell, the present manager of the London *Times*; the late Mr. Laurence D. Kirby, barrister-at-law; Mr. Charles Royle, at present one of the judges of the Egyptian Court of Appeal in Cairo; and the late Mr. Andrew Victor Philip, then manager of the Alexandria Stationers' Company, Ltd. The journal was at one period published in English and French, and for a while also in Arabic; but it now appears in English only. In March, 1882, when the troubles arising out of the Arabi revolt began to assume a serious aspect, Sir Edward Malet, then British Consul-General in Egypt, accepted as binding upon British subjects the Press Law of November 26, 1881, and, in consequence, Mr. Moberly Bell announced that, as all independent journalism was practically suppressed, he should cease to have any further connection with the *Egyptian Gazette*. His example was followed by Mr. Royle, and, as Mr. Kirby had died in the meantime, the paper became the sole possession of Mr. Philip. Just before the bombardment of Alexandria in 1882 and for some little time after that event, the *Gazette* was printed on board a ship in the harbour, and rendered considerable service to the civil and military authorities engaged in suppressing the revolt. Mr. Philip died in 1899, and the newspaper was purchased by Messrs. Back & Manson, of Egypt House, New Broad Street, London, who had considerable interest in the country. They entrusted the editorship and managership to Mr. Rowland Snelling, under whose guidance the *Gazette* has remained ever since.

During its thirty years' existence the *Gazette* has encountered much opposition, but it has succeeded in retaining its hold upon the public. It is one of the most cosmopolitan papers in the world, finding readers among all classes and all nationalities. It is recognised as the semi-official organ of the Government, and, as such, its utterances are continually quoted in the vernacular Arab press. The latest financial and commercial intelligence is supplied daily, and, as a consequence, the circulation of the paper extends through the trading communities in the Soudan, along both sides of the Red Sea in Syria, and in Cyprus. It has many readers, also, in Manchester and Liverpool owing to the immense cotton interests between Egypt and Lancashire, while in London it is to be found in the offices and banks which have dealings with this country.

The *Gazette* office also issues a weekly financial and commercial supplement, published in French, and containing a complete summary of the progress of the local cotton market and stock exchange, besides elaborate statistical tables. It is issued every Saturday in time to catch the Austrian-Lloyd Mail;

and many leading local firms, recognising its impartiality, send copies to their correspondents abroad.

ROWLAND SNELLING, who has been editor and manager of the *Egyptian Gazette* for the past ten years, wandered into journalism from the Bar. He was educated at Dulwich School and at New College, Oxford, where he was a Classical Exhibitioner and took his degree with classical honours. He entered the Inner Temple, and was subsequently called to the Bar. Coming to Egypt with the idea of starting a practice, he was offered an appointment on the *Egyptian Gazette*, and since 1899 has directed the fortunes of that newspaper as editor and manager with considerable ability.

CLENNELL ANSTRUTHER WILKINSON, the sub-editor of the *Egyptian Gazette*, graduated in honours at Cambridge, where he was Historical Exhibitioner at Sidney Sussex College. After obtaining his degree, he embraced a dramatic career, but subsequently entered the service of the Egyptian Government and was employed in the Ministry of Public Instruction. He resigned his position last year in order to accept the post of sub-editor of the *Gazette*.

L'EGYPTE—EGYPTIAN MORNING NEWS.

Journalistic enterprise in Egypt broke new ground when, in 1902, the *Egyptian Morning News* made its appearance in collaboration with the then recently-founded French journal *L'Egypte*. At that time, Cairo, the capital of Egypt and seat of the Anglo-Egyptian Government, had no English daily newspaper, the only one then published in the country reaching its Cairo subscribers through the post at night time. The new venture at once appealed to the public, and within a few months the paper was claiming "The largest circulation" honours.



"L'EGYPTE AND THE EGYPTIAN MORNING NEWS."

The dual editors boldly struck out into what to Egypt was a new line in journalism, and fearlessly published verbatim or full note reports of interesting legal cases, of which the newspapers had formerly fought shy, fearing reprisals, legal and otherwise. No hesitation was shown in sharply criticising matters of public moment, whether they had their origin in Government offices or public institutions.



OFFICES OF "L'EGYPTE."

A special telegraphic service was established with London and Paris to supplement the news arriving through the established telegraphic news agencies. Prominence was given to all matters of interest to the Army of Occupation, such as race meetings, shooting, football, cricket and polo matches, concerts and entertainments, with the result that its reports became valuable as records. The paper is published each morning at six o'clock.

The proprietor is H.E. Idris Bey Ragheb, regarding whom a brief sketch appears elsewhere. It was to the initiative of this well-known gentleman and to the efforts of the manager, Mr. Ath. Garofallo, that the paper owes its present position. Mr. Bernie Mansfield, a well-known writer in the London and Paris Press, is entrusted with the editorship of the English section, and M. Alban Derroja, the celebrated French journalist, edits the French edition.

EGYPTIAN DAILY POST.

The *Egyptian Daily Post* is an eight-paged British newspaper, owned by a registered London syndicate, and published every afternoon in Cairo, in which city its head offices are situated. It has a branch office and resident representatives in Alexandria, and agents in Port Said, Suez, Cyprus, Tantah, Zagazig, Mansourah, Menufieh, Luxor, Khartoum, and Beyrout. Its registered London office is at 10, Bolt Court, Fleet Street, E.C.

The *Egyptian Daily Post* commenced its career in April, 1908, thus coming immediately after the financial crisis which worked such havoc in Egypt. But, although started at such a depressing period, the paper fought its way successfully through the dead season, and is now firmly established. The success which has been achieved must be attributed in large measure to the maintenance of a good tone, to the avoidance of personalities and of sensational and questionable reporting, and to freedom from subventions.

The paper has the advantage of being edited and staffed by English journalists

who have received their training in England and have had considerable experience in the British Colonies. The effect of this is seen in the "make up" of the paper, and in the general technique.

The *Egyptian Daily Post* claims to be the only newspaper in Egypt that has published daily since its inception a special and exclusive service of telegrams, whilst it has made special features of up-country correspondence, and leading and special articles. It publishes letters from its special correspondents in London, Constantinople, Cyprus, Syria, &c.

In policy, the journal is imperialistic, and, whilst strenuously supporting British political and commercial interests in Egypt and the Soudan, its local aim is to bring the British and Egyptians into closer sympathy and union. This is recognised by the leading Egyptian journals, which frequently reproduce its leading articles, and have styled it "the independent and moderate English paper." Forty per cent. of the subscribers are Egyptians, and they represent all classes, from H.H. the Khedive downwards. Many of the paper's correspondents also are Egyptians. Mr. Shaheen, an Egyptian journalist, is responsible for native news, &c.

ALFRED CUNNINGHAM, whose journalistic work covers a period of twenty-five years, is the editor of the *Egyptian Daily Post*. The son of a London journalist, he was articled in London under his father in 1885, and after seven years' general work in England, was selected by Mr. Arnot Reid for the staff of the *Straits Times* in 1892. He was elected a member of the Institute of Journalists in 1894. In 1895, he secured the post of assistant editor of the *Shanghai Mercury*, and during his connection with that journal he acted as special correspondent for the *Central News* in the China-Japanese War, and was present during the siege and fall of Weihaiwei. He was also called to the front by the *New York Journal* and *Central News* in the Spanish-American War, and witnessed all the actions following the first naval battle to the fall of Manila. Being attached to the Spanish Naval Brigade he ran considerable personal risk as his connection with the famous American newspaper was unknown. After the war he proceeded to Siberia and wrote a series of articles on that country, returning ultimately to Shanghai. He was later offered a position on the *Hongkong Daily Press*, which paper he edited and subsequently managed, relinquishing it after four years' work in order to found and to edit, in conjunction with Mr. Douglas Story, the eminent correspondent, the *South China Morning Post*, a twelve-page daily paper. During the Russo-Japanese War Mr. Cunningham left as "special," and did such excellent work that he was subsequently decorated by the Emperor of Japan with the Order of the Rising Sun. Mr. Cunningham is generally acknowledged to be an authority on Far Eastern affairs. He founded and edited the *Review of the Far East*, which was contributed to by the prominent sinologues and authorities in the East. Having travelled extensively in French Indo-China, he produced a book, entitled "The French in Tonkin and South China," which was translated by the French, and for which the author received a gold medal from Tonkin. He also published "The Chinese Soldier and other Sketches," "History of the Szechuen Riots," and "Scrutator's Letters on the Sanitation of Hongkong." He was secretary and organiser of the Public Committee in Hongkong during a serious outbreak of plague, which led to the revolution of sanitation in reference to plague in that colony. At the suggestion of the Viceregal Government in Canton he also successfully acted as mediator in the big coal claim dispute between that Government and the British Foreign and Colonial Offices and was thanked by Sir Matthew Nathan, Governor of Hongkong, and mentioned in his despatches. Mr. Cunningham came to reside in Egypt in February, 1908, for climatic reasons and to undertake the launching and editorship of the *Egyptian Daily Post*, of which journal he was also managing director. The business management is in the capable hands of Mr. G. W. C. Burnett, who has had a long experience of the business control of a newspaper office.



AN EARLY ISSUE OF THE "KAIRON."



THE PRESENT-DAY ISSUE OF THE "KAIRON."

KAIRON.

The *Kairon*, a Greek newspaper, is the oldest European journal in Egypt. When it first appeared, some thirty-seven years ago, all the notifications of the newly established Mixed Tribunals were published in its columns. It was also the representative of the pan-European movement, and not infrequently published articles in French and Italian in furtherance of the objects of that movement. The founders, both of whom are now dead, were Mr. M. Nomikos, from the Ægean Islands, and H.E. N. Haicalis Pasha, who afterwards withdrew in order to found the *Phare d'Alexandrie*, a French newspaper published in Alexandria. Mr. Nomikos acquired considerable property, which he bequeathed to the municipality of Alexandria. Originally a weekly paper, the *Kairon* made its appearance as a daily fifteen years ago. In 1902 it was purchased by Mr. Al. S. Vavacoukis, and under his management, and under the editorship of Mr. N. Caravia, it received fresh impetus. At the present day it is regarded as the official organ of the Greeks in Egypt, and enjoys a wide circulation, thanks to the accuracy of its information, its fearless expression of uninfluenced opinions, and its sturdy championship of Hellenic interests. Judged by the post-office statistics, its circulation bears favourable comparison with any other European paper published in Egypt. Recognising this, many leading firms in the United Kingdom and on the Continent have recourse to it as an advertising medium, and thereby are enabled to keep in touch with merchants and consumers not only in Lower and Upper Egypt, but in the Soudan, Kordofan, Abyssinia, Erythrea, and the European possessions in West and South Africa. Besides having an efficient local news service, the *Kairon* is well supplied with special contributions from correspondents in all the principal European centres, the Constantinople correspondent being an exceptionally brilliant writer; and whereas formerly each paper confined itself almost entirely to catering for the nationality by which it was chiefly supported, the *Kairon*, in thus bringing itself into contact with other European communities and with the Egyptians, took the initiative in what may be termed cosmopolitan journalism. The paper is published in Cairo, the editorial offices being situated in the Chareh Cherif.

A. S. VAVACOUKIS, the proprietor-manager, is a native of Epirus, and the son of the late Speridion Vavacoukis. Educated in Athens and Corfu, he took the diploma of the Royal College of Corfu. After the war between Greece and Turkey, he came to Egypt in 1899, and spent two years travelling about the country. He purchased the *Kairon* in 1902, and has since devoted himself to its management. He speaks Greek, French, Italian, English, and Arabic, and has travelled extensively. He is a member of all the leading Hellenic societies in Egypt.

N. CARAVIA, the editor of the *Kairon*, was born at Ithaca (Ionian Islands) in 1877, and was educated at the Royal College of Patras. He has held his present position since 1898, and is now first vice-president of the Society of European Journalists in Cairo. Combined with his encyclopedical knowledge and his literary attainments he has a thorough knowledge of the Greek, French, English, Italian, Arabic, and Roumanian languages. His wife, Mrs. Ih. Flora-Caravia, whom he married in 1897 at Constantinople, is a native of Macedonia. She studied painting in Munich and Paris, and has attained to a considerable degree of skill as a portrait artist. She was awarded a gold medal at the International Exposition at Athens in 1901; she gained honorary distinction at the Paris Salon in 1901; and she was awarded a silver medal at the International Exhibition at Bordeaux in 1908.

LA BOURSE EGYPTIENNE, CAIRO.

This journal, established eleven years ago by Mr. Henry Boutigny, the present proprietor, is edited by Mr. Jean Emmanuel, a native of Cairo. Educated in Cairo and Alexandria, Mr. Emmanuel went on the Egyptian Bourse in 1880. He was administrator of *Le Caire* from 1899 to 1905, and in March of the latter year assumed his present appointment.

LA REFORME, ALEXANDRIA.

La Reforme, one of the most important of the French papers published in Egypt, was founded in 1893 by Mr. Dervichian as a weekly organ. A year later, however, Mr. Raoul G. Cauivet acquired the property, and the paper has since been issued daily. *La Reforme* played a prominent part in the campaign against the Water Company some years ago, and has always opened its columns to the ventilation of questions of public importance. It has a good news service, its contributors including a strong local staff of reporters and correspondents in the principal centres of Egypt, as well as in Paris, Rome, Vienna, Constantinople, Athens, and other cities on the Continent. Special attention is paid to the financial columns and those dealing with cotton and other markets, while sport, amusements, and the vagaries of local fashion also receive their share of attention. *La Reforme* is printed for the proprietor by the Société de Publications Egyptiennes and is still issued at the original price of one piastre tariff.

The editor, Mr. Cauivet, who was for some years in Paris prior to his arrival in Egypt, is assisted by Mr. Louis Fleri and Mr. E. V. Pepe, who are also journalists of considerable ability.

EL MAHAKEM.

This journal, published weekly in Cairo, deals entirely with legal matters, and has a wide circulation amongst people connected with the local Courts. The Government take 120 copies of each issue to distribute amongst the judges of the various tribunals. The *Mahakem* was founded about twenty years ago, at the time of the reform of the native tribunals by Joseph Assaf Bey, and acquired considerable influence by reason of its fearless criticisms; and many principles enunciated in its columns have since been adopted. The paper was a strong advocate of the granting of constitutional government to Turkey.

EL MUKTATAF.

El Muktataf, a monthly scientific and literary review, first saw the light in the year 1876 in Beyrout, Syria, where for some years its then young editors, Dr. Y. Sarruf and Dr. F. Nimr, had been teaching science and literature at the famous Syrian Protestant College of that town. For thirty-three years *El Muktataf* has been the exponent of scientific and philosophical researches in the East, and has rightly won the reputation of being the forerunner and leader of Arabic reviews and magazines.

The awakening of the East in the latter half of the nineteenth century, consequent upon the establishment of schools and colleges throughout Syria, called for a link to bring the educated youth of Syria—especially those not versed in European languages—in touch with the marvellous trend of science in Europe and America, and to place before the reading public in the East scientific questions and discoveries in every sphere of knowledge in a more or less popular form. The object was not to write for the initiated few only, but to help intelligent readers who thirsted after knowledge.

Arabic literature has always had a prominent position in the review. One of the most interesting discussions in this connection—to cite one instance of a hundred—was a scholarly comparison between English and Arabic poets, containing striking points of similarity in their poetry, notably between Milton and Abul 'Ela, both blind men and great poets.

The style of *El Muktataf*, which, by the way, is of the purest Arabic, has been copied and adopted by the majority of educated Arabic writers on account of its simplicity and lucidity, coupled with that scientific precision which is the sure index of a trained mind.

The first numbers of *El Muktataf* were in twenty-four pages. It is now published in 104 pages of closely printed matter. Many of the articles are fully illustrated, and the volumes are carefully indexed.

El Muktataf is now read by the Arabic-speaking races all over the world. Apart from Egypt and the Ottoman Empire, where it enjoys the widest circulation, it finds its way into North and South America, Australasia, the Philippines, Japan, China, India, the Straits Settlements, Persia, and all the countries of Europe, as well as North and South Africa and the Soudan.

In 1885 the offices of *El Muktataf* were removed to Cairo, where the paper has been published ever since. In 1889 the University of New York conferred upon the editors, Dr. Sarruf and Dr. Nimr, the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in recognition of their signal services to the cause of science and education, they being the first persons in the East to receive this distinguished academic honour.

EL MOKATTAM.

In 1889 the editors of *El Muktataf* issued, with the co-operation of their partner, Shahin Makarius Bey, their daily newspaper, *El Mokattam*. By intelligent management and the adoption of a rational policy, this organ has ever since its birth been in the front row of Arabic political newspapers. In that which concerns Egypt its attitude has been the encouragement of every worker for the good of Egypt, whether native or foreign. Racial distinctions, of which demagogues in Egypt have made so much stock of late, never found any sympathy with *El Mokattam*. For twenty years it waged war courageously and unflinchingly upon the Hamidian régime in Turkey, losing sight of all the material and moral sacrifices which such a war entailed upon its proprietors, who are Ottoman subjects. For twenty years the proprietors were forbidden the sight of their native country, and a copy of *El Mokattam* found on the person or in the home of anybody in the Ottoman dominions meant five years' imprisonment to that person. When the recent pacific revolution in that Empire threw down despotism and established constitutional government, a great demand for *El Mokattam* arose in Syria and other Arabic-speaking countries of Turkey, and congratulations poured upon its proprietors, who, with few others, had disdained the threats and alluring promises of Yildiz, and were neither cowed by the former nor enticed by the latter—the champions of political freedom and constitutional institutions. The barrier was broken down, and *El Mokattam* is now publicly read where it used to be surreptitiously smuggled in one way or another. Perhaps the best reception it enjoyed on this occasion came from the Turkish papers of Constantinople, which referred to it as the *Times of Egypt*. A staunch supporter of reform, it has been the privilege of *El Mokattam* to be the first to applaud and often to defend many of the various beneficial projects and schemes initiated and launched by those responsible for the administration and welfare of Egypt, when they met with such opposition as was engendered by mistrust, intrigues, or innocent ignorance.

Like *El Muktataf*, it enjoys a very wide circulation in all the Arabic-speaking world, and is read wherever the Arabic language is spoken, thus finding its way into the remotest parts of the globe.

First published in four pages, and printed from type on flat machines, *El Mokattam* is now published in eight pages, and printed on a rotary machine from stereotyped plates, especially made for it by the Northern Press and Engineering Company, Ltd., South Shields, England.

A weekly edition of *El Mokattam* is now also published for the benefit of those residing in distant and out-of-the-way places in the Ottoman Empire, where means of communication are still necessarily slow and rather irregular.

EL LEWA.

The *Lewa* newspaper is the most frankly outspoken of all the Nationalist organs. It makes no attempt to veil its opinion that the time has arrived when the control of Egyptian



"EL LEWA."

affairs should be left entirely in the hands of the Egyptian authorities without foreign interference, and goes so far as to advocate the withdrawal of the British Army of Occupation. Its policy may be summed up in the phrase, "Egypt for the Egyptians." The *Lewa* was established in Cairo early in 1900 by the late Mustapha Kamil Pasha, and later passed into the hands of a private company, of which Ali Fehmy Kamil Bey is now managing director. The circulation, at the commencement, 1,500 copies, has increased to 18,000 copies daily, and to cope with the demand modern rotary machines have been installed. The size of the issue has been enlarged from four to eight pages. Besides the chief editor, Sheikh Abdul Aziz Shawish, and the literary staff, a staff of 162 compositors and printers is employed.

SHEIKH ABDUL AZIZ SHAWISH, who in May, 1907, was appointed editor and administrator of the *El Lewa* newspaper, is a native of Alexandria, where he was born in 1874. He received his earlier education at a mosque in Alexandria, and then attended the Al Azhar University in Cairo, and the Dar-el-Eloom Training College, remaining four years in each. His first appointment, which he filled for one year, was that of teacher of the Arabic language in the Government School; he was then for three years Inspector of Kuttabs and Professor of Arabic and School Management in the Nasrieh Training College; he next proceeded to Oxford as an Assistant Professor of Arabic; and finally, before entering upon his present duties, he was for several months an Inspector of Government Schools in Egypt.



STAFF OF "EL LEWA," "ETANDARD EGYPTIEN," AND "EGYPTIAN STANDARD."

SUDAN TIMES.

In addition to the *Muktataf* and the *Mokattam*, Messrs. Sarruf, Nimr & Makarius own the *Sudan Times*, a semi-weekly English and Arabic paper published at their extensive printing works in Khartoum, the capital of the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan. The first issue of the *Sudan Times* (in Arabic, *El Sudan*) appeared in September, 1903, and was in Arabic only. In 1905, the English section was begun. This is the only newspaper published south of Cairo and in the Soudan, where it enjoys a wide circulation among natives and European residents. It is run on the same lines as its parent, *El Mokattam*. The *Sudan Times* was started, and for five years was edited, by Khalil D. Tabit Bey, the present manager of *El Muktataf* and *El Mokattam*. Khalil D. Tabit Bey was the first to introduce the art of printing among the Soudanese, about sixty of whom are now employed at the *Sudan Times* printing press, where they received their training.

EL GARRIDAH.

The journal *El Garridah* was founded in 1907 by a society of about one hundred Egyptian notables; amongst them a great number of members of the Legislative Council and of the General Assembly. The president of the society is H.E. Mahmoud Soliman Pasha, Vice-President of the Legislative Council. The society was formed more particularly to further the interests of a party known to-day as the Parti du Peuple, which numbers about eight hundred members. According to the associates it was a necessary and useful institution, for before the formation of the society the native Press was in the hands of private individuals who made of politics their sole pecuniary resource, and were, in consequence, obliged to follow the dictates of the governing authorities, that is to say, to submit to the influences of Abdin or Kasr-el-Doubara. The associates have always in view the necessity for safeguarding the interests of the Egyptian people, and strongly advocate through the *El Garridah* the granting of self-government.



"EL AHRAR."

AHMED BEY LOUTFI-EL-SAYED, to whom the direction of the journal has been entrusted, was born in 1871, at Barkein, in the Province of Dakhalieh. Educated in Cairo, he took his licentiate's degree at the Khedivial School of Law in 1893. He held the appointment of Substitute of Parquet in several towns, and then became chief of Parquet in the Fayoum and afterwards in the Province of Minieh. He then established himse'f in practice as an advocate in Cairo, and finally he assumed his present duties in connection with the *El Garridah*.

ARABIC REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

The *Arabic Review of Reviews*, published monthly in Cairo, is an illustrated scientific,

historical, and political magazine, which seeks to promote the interests of all Orientals, and to unite them more closely together without distinction of country, race, or creed. The interests of Mahomedans, however, are its special care. The proprietor and editor-in-chief is Mahmoud Bey Hassib, who is assisted by many well-known writers. The *Review* is in its eighth year of publication.

THE "AFRICAN WORLD" IN EGYPT.

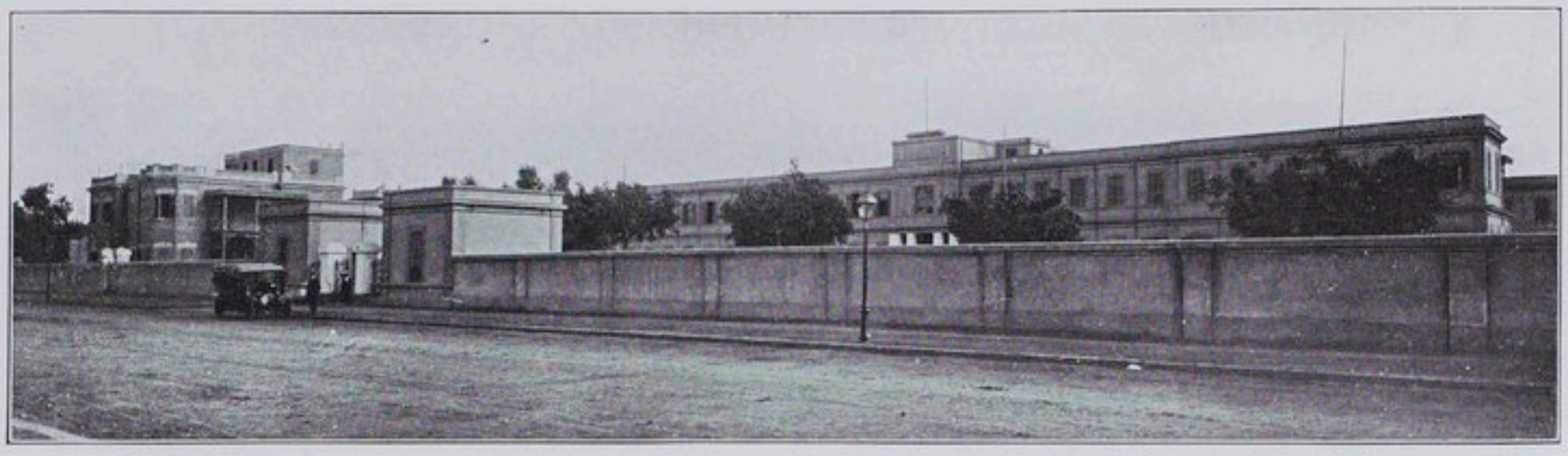
No review of the Press in Egypt would be complete without a mention of the *African World and Cape-Cairo Express*, with its kindred special publications. The *African World*, a journal whose scope covers the latest developments over the whole of the Dark Continent, since its inception in 1902 has dealt regularly in its columns with Egyptian affairs, to which it has especially during the past years devoted considerable attention. Early in 1907, however, when Egyptian matters bulked more largely in the public eye, Mr. Leo Weinthal, F.R.G.S., the editor and managing director of the *African World* Company, decided, on his return from a visit to Egypt, to give still more prominence to that country, and for this purpose established the *Anglo-Egyptian Mail and Financier Egyptien*. This journal, which has since been published weekly in the winter months, and monthly in the summer, has devoted itself exclusively to a propaganda in Europe on behalf of the best Egyptian financial interests, with results which would have been even more successful had not the disastrous crisis of the latter part of 1907 and the early months of 1908 intervened and rendered abortive any efforts to revive an already comatose market. The *African World*, however, has not confined itself to the financial side of Egypt. The journal has another and more important side in the continuous work it does to foster the tourist traffic to the wonderful Nile Land. In advertising the attractions and merits of Egypt as a health resort, the *African World* has rendered yeoman service to the country, and it deservedly receives substantial business support from the leading institutions concerned therein. Its annual publications, *Egypt*, and *Fascinating Egypt*, combined with a wall map giving all kinds of useful information to tourists, are now eagerly looked forward to, standing alone in their style of production. The *Egypt* annual is a beautiful illustrated production, filled with interesting articles on Egyptian topics of a general character, while *Fascinating Egypt* is a clever and concisely written guide book to Pharaohland in two languages (English and French), containing interesting illustrations and information. The special feature of this guide book is that it is freely distributed in Europe, America, and along the whole Nile Valley from the Delta to Uganda, its first edition numbering no less than fifty thousand copies. The *African World* are also the official publishers of the "Sudan Handbook," a work issued under the auspices of the Soudan Development and Exploration Company, and practically the official guide for tourists to that country, and the journal works in the closest touch both with the Egyptian and Soudan Government Railways.

Other publications issued by the same enterprising firm are the *African World Annual*, a bulky and splendidly equipped publication of over three hundred pages, dealing with the year's developments and progress in the Dark Continent, especially from the mining point of view; "Round Africa by the D.O.A. Line," issued under the auspices of the D.O.A. Line; and the "Egyptian Company Manual," a handbook to Egyptian companies. His Highness the Khedive recently recognised the services rendered by the *African World* to Egypt by conferring the Order of the Osmanieh on the chief editor.

EL SAYED SHEIKH ALY BEY YOUSSOUF was one of the founders of the *El Moyad* newspaper, one of the first National or Mahomedan-owned papers published in Egypt. Since its establishment in 1889, the *El Moyad* has done much useful work in furthering national and Islamic interests, and in spite of considerable opposition in the earlier stages of its existence, it now occupies a high place among Arabic journals. It is the recognised organ of the Constitutional Reform League, an organisation which, though desiring the cessation of the British occupation, considers the hurried methods of the Nationalist Party injudicious. A native of Balasfora, in the province of Girgeh, he was educated in Beni Adi, Assiout, and afterwards at the Al Azhar University, where he started a scientific and critical review entitled the *El Addab*, which ran for two years. He has made several visits to England and the Continent, and numbers among his friends Mr. John Henniker Heaton, M.P., and Mr. J. M. Robertson, M.P. The Bey, who is in his forty-fifth year, is married to a daughter of El-Sayed el-Saddat, a descendant of one of the oldest families in Egypt, and is a brother-in-law of Sayed Tewfik el Bakry.

SHEIKH AHMED ALAZHARY BEY, a native of Cairo, is in charge of the Idara, or Administrative Department of the Wakfs Administration. He was educated at the Al Azhar University, and at the Dar el-Eloom College (now the Nasrieh Training College), and on leaving school in 1892 he was engaged by Sir William Willcocks as an arabic clerk in the Ministry of Public Works, Reservoirs Department. During 1895, he joined the Land Tax Department of the Ministry of Finance, but eighteen months later, when the work was completed, he returned to the Ministry of Public Works, where he remained until 1900. In 1901, when the Daira Sanieh was made into a limited company by Sir Ernest Cassel, Sir William Willcocks, who was appointed Director-General, engaged the services of the Sheikh, and in April, 1906, the Sheikh was appointed to his present position by H. E. Adli Pasha Yeghen. A son of Sheikh Ahmad El-Dessouki el-Azhary, who retired on pension some years ago from the office of Cadi of the native religious courts in Egypt, Ahmed Bey is devoted to the study of literature, and at one time collaborated with Sir William Willcocks in the editorship of a monthly publication entitled the *Al-Azhar Review*, which contained notes on agricultural, literary, and scientific topics. It ran for a year only; and subsequently he joined other of his friends in issuing a monthly review called *El-Montaked*, or *The Criticiser*, which, however, ceased publication after three months. Ahmed Bey visited London in 1899 and again in 1904.

SALEH HAMDI HAMMAD BEY, l'auteur de plusieurs ouvrages et traductions en Arabe, est fils de feu Hammad Abd-el Ati Pacha, autrefois juge à la Cour Mixte d'Appel. Il est né au Caire en 1865. Eduqué à l'école primaire de Saida Zénab et à l'école de Nasrieh, il continua ensuite ses études à l'école des Frères au Caire, au Collège Vallot à Alexandrie et au Bureau de Traduction au Ministère de l'Instruction Publique, le quittant il entra dans le département de la Traduction à la Cour Mixte d'Appel d'Alexandrie puis il fut employé au bureau du Secrétaire des Tribunaux. A la fin cependant il fut obligé de quitter son emploi, souffrant des yeux; pour cette même raison il abandonna le profit d'aller en Europe pour y visiter les pays et fréquenter les Universités. Saleh Bey pendant quelque temps se voua aux œuvres littéraires; il publia plusieurs articles politiques sociaux et littéraires dans la presse arabe. Son père mourut en 1904, lui laissa de modestes revenus lui permettant de continuer ses études. En 1906 il publia une petite brochure, "La Crue du Nil," puis un autre livre suivit, "Nous et la Civilisation," "Au Chemin de la Vie," "La Morale de l'Islam," et "Notre Vie Morale." Il traduisit de John Stuart Blackie's "L'Education de Soi-même"; "Les Quatre Ages de l'Homme," du Comte de Ségur (pris dans la Morale et Politique); "L'Education des Filles," de Fénélon; Cicéron "Devoirs" (livre premier); et de Volney "La loi Naturelle." Il publia aussi plusieurs petits romans dans plusieurs journaux. A présent il s'occupe d'un grand ouvrage appelé "La Vie de Mahomet." Saleh Bey est un membre du Parti Constitutionnel Egyptien, membre aussi de la Société de Protection des Enfants de l'Egypte.



NASRIEH SCHOOL, CAIRO.

EDUCATION.

By R. ALDRED-BROWN, Director of the European Office, Ministry of Education.

HISTORICAL.

MODERN education in Egypt owes its initiation mainly to the military necessities of Mehemet Ali Pasha, the founder of the reigning Khedivial dynasty.

Education of an Oriental character, *i.e.* concerned chiefly with theology and subjects ancillary thereto, has existed in the country for over a thousand years. Each of the mosques built by the various Mahomedan rulers contained, as an essential element, an elementary school or "kuttab." In addition, some of the mosques from an early period became seats of learning on a higher plane. The Mahomedan university in the mosque of Al Azhar dates back to a period before the Norman Conquest of England, and during the rule of the Fatimide Caliphs (969–1171 A.D.) vied with Bagdad as the most important centre of Mahomedan erudition, attracting to its courts the most learned theologians and Arabic scholars of the whole of the Mahomedan world. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries it was attended by twenty thousand students. About the fifteenth century, the decadence which was manifesting itself throughout the Mahomedan dominions reached the famous university, which, from being a seat of active, creative, progressive, independent thought, degenerated into a school for the acquisition of the crystallised and immutable knowledge of the past as expressed in voluminous standard treatises. A twentieth century impression gives evidence of little change. The number of students is now about ten thousand, including some seven hundred Mahomedans from other countries.

Mehemet Ali was appointed Pasha of Egypt in 1805. After ridding himself of the unruly Mameluke beys by assassination in 1811, he determined to consolidate and strengthen his power by creating an army and a navy modelled after European fashion. To officer and administer these services he required men trained in other than mosque schools. Accordingly, in 1816, he commenced to send to Leghorn, Milan, Florence, Rome, and later to Great Britain and France, at first young Mamelukes and Turks, and subsequently Egyptians, to study soldiering, civil and military engineering, naval construction and navigation, administrative organisation, medicine, &c. A few years later, within the space of about a decade (1824–1834), he established, in addition to some ten Primary Schools, a School of Medicine, a School of Infantry, a School of Cavalry, a School of Artillery, a Naval School, a Veterinary School, an Engineering School, &c. In 1836, the Pasha created a Council of Education, and transferred the direction of education from the Ministry of War to a Minister of Education. In the following year, this Council raised the number of Primary Schools to fifty, and created a Secondary School, a School of Agriculture, a School of Administration and Accounts, a School of Translation, and a Technical School. The rate of progress, however, was too ambitious for the stage of development of the country. Many of the schools were closed within a year. Comparatively few survived beyond 1841. In spite of the fact that the pupils were lodged, fed, clothed, and subsidised, the schools could be recruited only by arbitrary force. As Yacoub Artin Pasha states in his work "L'Instruction publique en Egypte":—

"L'antipathie que le paysan égyptien éprouvait contre la conscription militaire s'étendit à la conscription scolaire, et, malgré tous les avantages qu'on offrait aux parents, dont l'Etat se chargeait d'entretenir, d'élever et d'instruire les enfants, ils se montraient unanimement rebelles à profiter de ces avantages. On eut alors recours à la coercition, à une véritable conscription ou presse scolaire, et on remplit presque toutes les écoles primaires, secondaires, spéciales ou supérieures, d'enfants enlevés de force à leurs parents, et que l'on distribuait dans les écoles d'après leur âge, leur constitution, leur taille, quitte, après, à les renvoyer, à les changer d'écoles ou à les y conserver, selon leurs aptitudes intellectuelles spéciales."

The reduction of the army on the cessation of the Pasha's military adventures, the suppression of the Government monopolies, and the closure of the State factories, led eventually to the output of pupils being far in excess of the opportunities for their employment. Numbers of State-created servants were thus left on the hands of the Government without prospect of utilisation. Abbas I., on his accession in 1849, in consequence, suppressed all the surviving schools with the exception of the Military School.

Ismael Pasha, on his accession in 1863, re-established the schools on a more ambitious scale than before, only to reduce them later when he found that the expenditure yielded no immediate result. Financial embarrassment led subsequently to further retrenchment. At the time of Ismael Pasha's deposition, State expenditure on education had become attenuated to £E29,000 a year. Under the Dual Control, the grant was raised to £E70,000 a year. During the early days of the British occupation, whilst the issue of the "race against bankruptcy" was still doubtful, the utmost economy had to be practised, and the grant was reduced. Even when the race was won, fiscal relief and the pressing needs of other departments claimed precedence. It was not until the year 1890 that the Finance Department found itself in a position to increase the sum of money spent by the State on education to £E81,000. Since then, and more especially since the Anglo-French Convention gave to the Egyptian Government the free use of its own resources, the grant for education has steadily increased.

Public expenditure on education, apart from grants for capital outlay on buildings, &c., has increased during the last twenty-three years as follows* :—

	£E.
1887	62,971
1892	125,034
1897	157,877
1902	185,455
1907	474,000
1908	450,450
1909 (estimate) ...	483,669

* The foregoing sums include not merely the expenditure of the Ministry of Education as shown in the State Budget, but expenditure met by school fees, grants from the Wakfs Administration, and other resources, portions of which expenditure at various periods were not included in the State Budget, but until 1907 were dealt with in separate accounts, the balance of which remained at the disposal of the Department from year to year.

I. EGYPTIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

The Egyptian educational system, apart from the indigenous element referred to later, is based upon the French model. It consists of a four years' primary course, leading up to the Primary Education Certificate Examination; followed by a four years' secondary course, terminating in the Secondary Education Certificate Examination; giving access finally to professional courses in law, medicine, engineering, and teaching. Collateral with the Secondary Schools may be considered the School of Agriculture, the Boulac Technical School, the Veterinary School, the Police School, and the Military School, the three last of which are not under the direction of the Ministry of Education.

That the Egyptian system should have been framed on the French model may be accounted for by the fact that the Council of Education instituted by Mehemet Ali Pasha consisted entirely of Frenchmen or of Egyptians who had been educated in France, whilst the proclivities of Ismael Pasha, under whom the educational system was re-established, were essentially French. In point of organisation, the system leaves nothing to be desired. From a British point of view, its essential defect appears to be that it allows too little scope for diversity of type and aim, tending to cast all the pupils in the same official mould.

British influence in the Ministry of Education dates back only to the appointment of Mr. Douglas Dunlop as Inspector in 1889. It may be said to have been exerted uniformly in improving things as they existed rather than in effecting changes of a radical character. Lord Cromer in his last report on Egypt paid a well-merited tribute to the services rendered by Mr. Dunlop in "promoting the true interests and welfare of the Egyptian population," as well as to the enlightened co-operation of Yacoub Artin Pasha, who from 1884 to 1906, save for a brief interval, officiated as Under-Secretary of State for Education. Since 1906 Mr. Dunlop has acted as Educational Adviser.

II. THE EUROPEANISED SYSTEM.

At the bottom rung of the educational ladder the Ministry of Education has under its control thirty-two Higher Primary Schools for boys, eleven of them being in Cairo and twenty-one in the principal provincial towns; also two Higher Primary Schools for girls, both in Cairo. The attendance in these schools has increased as follows:—

	1890	1895	1900	1905	1908
Boys ...	5,640	7,089	6,269	6,815	8,164
Girls ...	121	244	220	390	421

The primary course comprises, besides religious teaching, instruction in the Arabic language, English language, translation, arithmetic, and geometry, history, geography and drawing. Arabic is the linguistic basis of instruction in all subjects except the English language itself, which is taught conversationally as a living medium of expression.

The whole of the staff of the Boys' Higher Primary Schools is Egyptian. In the case of the two Girls' Schools, owing to the dearth of Egyptian women teachers, a limited number of English mistresses are employed.

Until 1903 English and French were taught in the Higher Primary Schools as alternative languages, at the choice of the parents of pupils. In 1889, 76 per cent. of the pupils were learning French, as compared with 24 per cent. learning English. The proportion learning French diminished gradually until the Anglo-Egyptian conquest of the Soudan in 1898, when the recruitment of the French classes, on the impulse of the parents, abruptly ceased. In 1903, the French classes finally disappeared.

NASRIEH PRIMARY SCHOOL.

A school which may be regarded as the best type of an Egyptian Higher Primary School is the Nasrieh School in Cairo, under the direction of Amin Sami Pasha. The school is attended by 313 day-boarders and 132 boarders, most of them being sons of families of the better class. The school fee for day-pupils is £E15 per annum (including the midday meal), and for boarders £E40 per annum. The buildings, which are comparatively new, consist of three extensive two-storied blocks, standing in the midst of a sanded recreation ground six acres in extent. The class-rooms are roomy and lofty, and are equipped with school furniture of the best type. On the walls are suspended a useful array of maps and diagrams, conspicuous among them being two new and striking series of political and physical wall maps in Arabic, bold in design, lettering, and colouring, which the Ministry of Education is bringing out through the Survey Department. The refectory is a huge hall in which the pupils sit in groups of six at long tables. The midday meal of five courses is laid out for each group in tiers of dishes, the senior boy in each group being responsible for serving out the food to his companions. The boarding accommodation is on a corresponding scale. There is a special study for work in the evening, a recreation room, a sanatorium, and excellent dormitory accommodation. The school has for three years won the Football Cup Competition for Cairo Primary Schools, and generally stands well in the Annual Drill Competition for the Primary Schools Drill Trophy.

The fees in the other Higher Primary Schools are in general lower. For the most part the schools are accommodated in old buildings, not adapted to school requirements. Efforts are being made to replace them by modern school-buildings as fast as funds become available. New Higher Primary Schools on something approaching the Nasrieh scale have already in recent years been constructed at Fayoum, Port Said, Shibin el Kom, Benha, and Zagazig. Only four of the Higher Primary Schools for boys have, however, a boarding department. Both of the Girls' Schools have boarding accommodation.

PRIMARY EDUCATION CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION.

The Primary Education Certificate Examination is a public examination, open to candidates educated in private schools or who have studied privately, as well as to pupils from Government schools. The certificate, besides qualifying for admission to a secondary school and to certain special schools (Agriculture, Technical, Telegraphy, Veterinary, Coastguards, Police, and Military) admits to subordinate posts in the Civil Service. In 1908 the number of candidates was 4,140, as compared with 568 in 1892 (when the examination was instituted), 1,317 in 1897, and 2,345 in 1902; 1,730 of the 4,140 candidates were educated in Government schools, 1,756 in private schools, and 654 privately. All but 50 of the 4,140 candidates opted for English as the foreign language; 1,738 candidates, or 42 per cent. of those who entered, were successful; 620 of the successful candidates entered Government Secondary Schools, 156 Government Special Schools, 266 private Secondary Schools, 6 proceeded abroad, whilst 166 obtained employment in State administrations, and 63 in private concerns.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The Secondary Schools now number four, the last having been established only in 1906. The attendance in these schools has increased from 569 in 1900, and 1,345 in 1905 to 2,113 in 1908.

The Secondary Course extends over four years, branching out at the end of the second year into two alternative divisions—a literary side and a scientific side. The Secondary Education Certificate Examination is completed in two stages: Part I., based upon the syllabus of the first two years of the Secondary Course, being taken at the end of the pupils' 2nd year, and Part II., literary and scientific, on the completion of the course. The Secondary Course has been framed not only to supply a basis of general culture, but to prepare the pupils for the special requirements of the Professional Colleges—pupils with a scientific bent specialising in mathematics and science with a view to entry to the Schools of Medicine and Engineering, and pupils with literary tastes specialising in languages and history with a view to admission to the School of Law. Of the 686 pupils in the upper section of the four Government Secondary Schools, 375 are studying on the literary side and 311 on the scientific side. The syllabus of study for the first two years of the course comprises the Arabic language, English or French, translation, history, geography, arithmetic, geometry, algebra, and elementary physics. In the 3rd and 4th years, whilst the further courses in Arabic language, English or French, and Translation are common to both the literary and scientific sides, pupils on the literary side learn French or English as a second foreign language and follow an extended course in History and Geography, whilst pupils on the scientific side do not take up a second foreign language, but specialise in mathematics, science, and drawing.

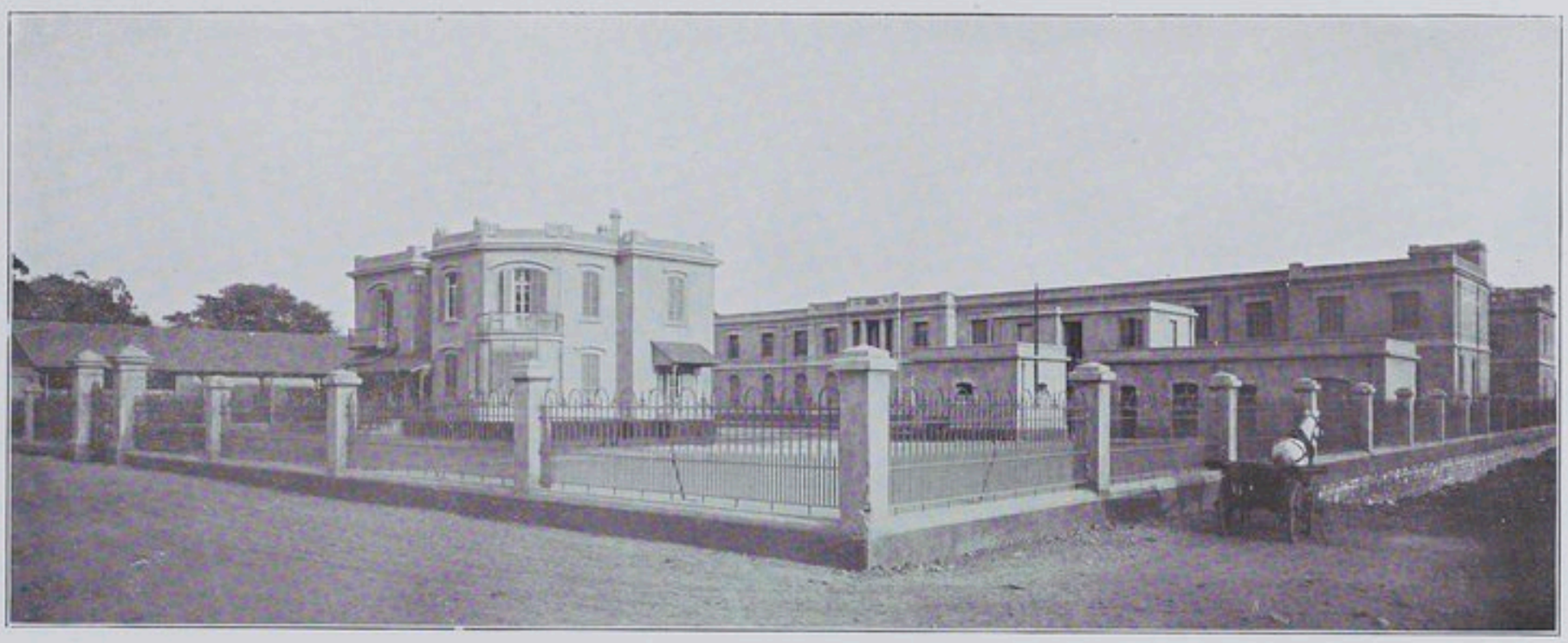
All of the Secondary Schools have a boarding department to meet the needs of provincial pupils. Three of the headmasters are Englishmen. The second master in each school is an Egyptian, and the teaching staff, numbering about forty, consists of Egyptians, Frenchmen, and Englishmen, the English assistants at present forming about half of the staff. The English staff consists of Public School and University men of marked distinction, both as regards scholarship and professional competence, and would compare favourably with the staff of any English Secondary or Public School.

Each of the Secondary Schools until recently contained a French section and an English section following collaterally the same course of study, the former mainly on a French linguistic basis and the latter on an English linguistic basis. It is obvious that the desertion of the French classes in the primary course, precipitated by the events in the Soudan in 1898, inevitably involved the shrinkage and ultimate disappearance of the French sections in the Secondary Schools. In 1889, 74 per cent. of the pupils in Secondary Schools were studying French

as compared with 26 per cent. studying English. At the present time only seventeen of the 2,113 pupils in Secondary Schools are studying French, the French sections having disappeared from two of the Secondary Schools and being moribund in the other two. The study of French is, however, encouraged as a subsidiary language in the English sections on the literary side of the secondary course.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION.

The question of the linguistic basis of instruction has during the last few years excited considerable criticism. In the Tewfikieh Secondary School, or Lycée Tewfik, which from its foundation in 1885 remained for fourteen years under the direction of M. Peltier Bey, a very capable French educationist. French from the first formed the linguistic basis of instruction in all subjects except the Arabic language. In 1889, the plan of utilising the foreign language—whether English or French—as the medium of instruction was extended by Ali Mubarak Pasha, the then Minister of Education, to history, geography, and science in the other two Secondary Schools then in existence. Since that date, owing to the dearth of qualified native teachers, it became possible to meet the demands for the extension of Secondary Schools only by the temporary transfer of the mathematical teaching to the European staff. Thus, as a result in the first place of a definite Europeanising policy—traditionally associated in British minds with the name of Lord Macaulay, but in the present case due initially to French influence—and subsequently of the enforced extension of the system in order to provide qualified mathematical teachers in a period of expansion, it came about that all the teaching in the Secondary Schools, except the Arabic language, was given by Englishmen or Frenchmen in English or French. Few who are familiar with Macaulay's powerful advocacy of the system as applied to India will deny the immense advantage in respect of the unbounded opportunities for culture which the system places within the reach of those educated under it. But the practice ultimately, by its very success, becomes wounding to national sentiment, and therefore inadmissible. Especially is this the case with a people whose mother tongue, although possessing no modern literature, is, like Arabic, the language of a rich and noble past, and in which are enshrined all their religious traditions. Fortunately, the increase in the educational budget in recent years has enabled the Ministry of Education to improve the prospects for Egyptian teachers, and thus to attract an adequate supply of recruits for the teaching profession. By the extension of the Egyptian Educational Mission in England, and the establishment of a training college for secondary teachers, two measures due mainly to the energetic initiative of Saad Zagloul Pasha, the present Minister of Education, it is hoped within a few years without too great a sacrifice of efficiency, to transfer the greater part of the teaching in the Secondary Schools to Egyptian hands and establish Arabic as the basis of instruction. A considerable step has already been taken in this direction as regards the mathematical teaching, and Arabic translations of European mathematical text books are in process of publication.



SAIDIEH SCHOOL, CAIRO.

SAIDIEH SECONDARY SCHOOL.

The newest of the Secondary Schools is the Saidieh School in the new suburb of Cairo, at Gizeh. It consists of one spacious three-storied and two two-storied blocks in the midst of about 14 acres of ground. The school possesses well-fitted physical and chemical laboratories, an assembly room for lantern and other lectures, a library, a reading room, an anthropometric room, a dark room for the pupils' photographic society, and all the other adjuncts of an up-to-date school community. It provides accommodation for about two hundred boarders and four hundred day boarders. A new Secondary School on the same generous plans is in course of construction at Alexandria.

SECONDARY EDUCATION CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION.

The Secondary Education Certificate Examination, like the primary, is a public examination. The secondary education certificate, besides qualifying for matriculation to the higher or professional colleges, is the passport to the higher branches of the Civil Service. Officials holding only the Primary Education Certificate are ineligible for advancement beyond a salary of £E11 per month. The scope of the examination has been previously explained. At both Part I. and Part II. of the examination candidates are allowed to answer the questions in all except the language tests in whichever of the three languages—Arabic, English, or French—has formed the medium of instruction in the subject. This arrangement leaves the private schools a free hand as regards the linguistic basis of instruction. In 1908 there were 445 candidates, as compared with 272 in 1900, and 199 in 1890; 290 of the candidates were on the literary side, and 155 on the scientific side; 334 of the candidates professed English and 111 French. Over half of the candidates came from private schools or had been educated privately; 233 candidates, or 52 per cent., were successful; 148 of the successful candidates entered professional colleges in Egypt, 33 proceeded abroad for study, 38 obtained employment in State administrations and 3 in private concerns.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

Reference has already been made to the improved prospects as regards the supply of trained teachers. The Ministry of Education maintains for the needs of its Europeanised system of schools:—(1) The Khedivial Training College, for effendis; (2) the Nasrieh Training College, for sheikhs; (3) the Sanieh Training College, for women teachers; (4) the Egyptian Educational Mission in England.

The Khedivial Training College, which was re-organised on an extended basis in 1908, is under the direction of an Egyptian principal and vice-principal. It consists of a Lower Training College, based upon the Primary Education Certificate, and a Higher Training College, based upon the Secondary Education Certificate. The course in each of the departments extends over three years. The certificate of the Lower College qualifies for employment as teacher in a Primary School, and of the Higher College for employment in schools of all grades. The course of the Higher College is divided into two collateral sides—a literary side and scientific side—corresponding with the previous specialisation

in the secondary course. Attendance is free, and the students of the Higher College receive a maintenance allowance of £E2 per mensem. The number of students in the Lower College is 120, and in the Higher College 46.

The Nasrieh Training College, which also is under an Egyptian principal and vice-principal, performs the special duty of training sheikhs, most of whom have previously passed through the course of Al Azhar, for service as teachers of Arabic, Arabic penmanship, the Koran, Mahomedan history, and cognate subjects. There are no fees, and the students receive a maintenance allowance of £E1 per mensem. The college has at present 303 students, as compared with 76 in 1890, 68 in 1895, 60 in 1900, and 210 in 1905.

The Sanieh Training College for Women Teachers is a boarding establishment attached to the Sanieh Girls' Higher Primary School.

The standard of admission is the Primary Education Certificate, and the course extends over three years. Attendance is free, and the students receive a monthly scholarship of £E2. There are at present sixteen students, as compared with four in 1900, when the College was first established. In view of the special difficulties affecting the development of female education arising from the seclusion of women, no phase of the Department's work is of greater importance than this attempt to provide qualified native women teachers for the Girls' Schools.

The Egyptian Educational Mission in England is a revival of the expedient adopted by Mehemet Ali Pasha in his first efforts to establish a Europeanised system of education in Egypt. During the last fifteen years the practice had fallen somewhat into abeyance, the efforts of the Ministry being directed more especially to implanting European culture in an Egyptian environment by raising the level of the Egyptian Government Schools to the same standard as those of Europe, rather than to sending isolated Egyptians to Europe to study. There are at present forty-one Egyptian students in England who are being trained for service as teachers at the expense of the Ministry of Education. Three of the students are medical men, two are qualified engineers, four are technical students, nine are sheikhs who have completed the course in the Nasrieh Training College, twenty are effendis who are being trained as secondary teachers, and three are Egyptian women teachers. The Director of the Mission is Mr. Eustace K. Corbet, C.M.G., late Procureur Général to the Egyptian Government.



SCHOOL OF MEDICINE, CAIRO.



SCHOOL OF LAW, CAIRO.

SCHOOL FOR CADIS.

The Training College for Cadis is another reform due to the initiative of the present Minister of Education. The arrangements for training judges for the Mahomedan Courts had long been in an unsatisfactory condition, and some time ago the Legislative Council drew attention to the desirability of dealing with the subject. Saad Zagloul Pasha took up the question and produced a scheme acceptable to the chief Ulema, which was carried into effect in 1907. The school consists of two sections, there being at present 261 students in the lower section and 23 in the upper section. The lower section is for training clerks for the Mahomedan Courts and to serve as a recruiting ground for the upper section. The upper section has for its object the training of cadis, muftis, members of the Mahomedan Mehkemehs, advocates to plead before the Courts, and teachers. The students are educated free, and besides receiving their midday meal, are paid a small maintenance allowance. The course of study comprises all subjects that are now taught in Al Azhar, together with correlated legal studies, literature, and a course of mathematics and physical science. The school remains in close touch with Al Azhar University, the teachers of religious subjects being recruited, as far as possible, from the Ulema, and the Sheikh of Al Azhar being president of the committee of management.

SCHOOL OF LAW.

Of the Higher or Professional Colleges, the most popular is the School of Law, founded in 1868. It is accommodated in a comparatively new building, abutting on Abdin Square. The course extends over four years, and includes Mahomedan Law, Civil Law, Commercial Law, Civil and Commercial Procedure, Criminal Law, Private International Law, and general notions of Public International Law, Organisation of Public Authorities, Administrative Law, Roman Law and Political Economy, and Economic History. The school contains a French section and an English section, the former at present numbering 240 students, and the latter 133. The principal of the school is an Englishman, and the vice-principal an Egyptian. A large proportion of

the students who leave the school on obtaining their diploma find employment in the Parquet and other Government departments; others practise privately in the Native Courts. The school possesses an extensive legal library containing over 13,000 volumes.

SCHOOL OF MEDICINE.

The School of Medicine is the senior of the Higher Colleges, having been founded in 1827 by Dr. Clot Bey, the medical adviser of Mehemet Ali Pasha. Under Mr. Keatinge, the present director, the school has reached a high level of efficiency. Attached to the school, and under the same direction, is the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital, with 450 beds, and an average daily attendance of 200 out-patients. The students number 190, as compared with 46 in 1895, 62 in 1900, and 116 in 1905. The medical course extends over four years and three months. The examinations are attended by a delegate of the Conjoint Examining Board of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons and Physicians in England, which accepts the course as exempting from four of the five years of medical study required for a medical diploma in England, and also recognises the first two examinations. The school is also recognised by the University of London as a place from which the University may receive certificates for the purpose of the M.D. Examination (Branch VI.) in Tropical Medicine.

The staff of the school, some of whom may claim a European reputation, have distinguished themselves in a wide field of successful research, the results of which are embodied in the "Records of the Egyptian Government School of Medicine," of which three volumes have so far been issued. In particular may be mentioned Dr. Elliot Smith's discoveries in connection with the anatomy of the brain, Dr. Looss's work on Anchylostoma, Dr. Ferguson's study of the tissue changes in Bilharziosis and Anchylostomiasis, and Dr. Schmidt's researches in connection with tests for distinguishing between the blood-stains and between the muscular tissue of different animals.

AGRICULTURAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

A new departure has recently been made in the promotion of technical education.

Owing to the rapid growth in industrial and commercial enterprise, and to the rise in the standard of material comfort due to the widespread advance in prosperity, it had for some time been felt that special measures were needed to lift native workmanship, both in its quality and to some extent in its scope, more nearly to the European level. It was doubtless felt, too, that it was desirable to counteract in some practical way the besetting tendency to follow after education of a too exclusively literary character. Lord Cromer, alike in his tours in the provinces and in his annual reports, did much to awaken interest in the question.

TRADES SCHOOLS.

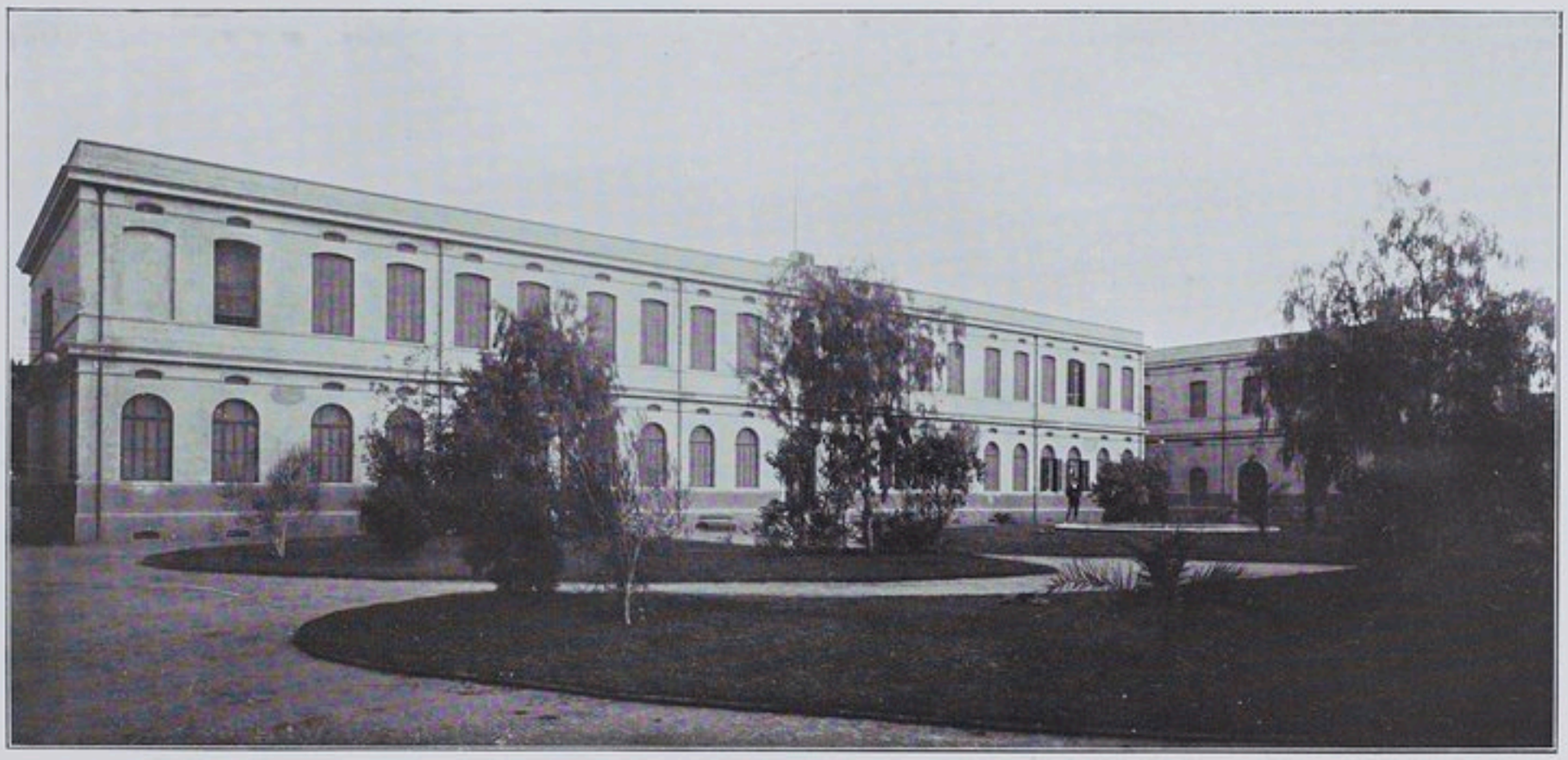
In 1901 an effort was inaugurated to establish industrial schools for children of the artisan class by an appeal to local enterprise and private benevolence. The project was explained by Sir Eldon Gorst, the Financial Adviser, in his Note on the Budget for 1902 as follows:—

"A further problem has lately attracted the serious consideration of the Government, viz., the question of providing technical instruction of a practical character for the artisan class. At present the more difficult and delicate descriptions of work in the various trades are largely in the hands of Europeans. There seems no reason to suppose that the Egyptian, if properly trained, could not attain to as high a level. What is required is not so much a school, which has a natural tendency to drift into book-work and theory to the detriment of practical application, as a model workshop in which Egyptian boys of the artisan class would be trained in good methods in the same way as they are now trained in inferior methods. It is proposed to start an institution of this character in Cairo. It is very desirable that in process of time similar institutions should be created in all the larger towns. The Government cannot, however, do more than lead the way by founding an establishment which may serve as model to others of a like character. The rest must be left to private enterprise and benevolence."

Government fulfilled its promise by inaugurating "Model Workshops" at Boulac in 1903 and at Assiout in 1906. In 1904, in response to Government's appeal, a native notable, Mahmoud Suleiman Pasha, constructed at his own cost at Abu Tig, and liberally endowed a trades school in which are taught the industries of the locality (weaving, carpentry, smiths' work, &c.). The school has an attendance of 85 pupils. About the same time the Mahomedan benevolent society "El-Orwa el-Woska" invoked subscriptions for the establishment of a trades school at Alexandria. In 1905, the Coptic Tewfik Society founded in Faggala, Cairo, a small trades school for engineering and woodwork. In 1906 the provinces of Fayoum, Beni Souef, and Beheireh took up the challenge and set about with commendable energy and public spirit to establish for themselves trades schools.

In view of the extension of this voluntary movement, with all its fruitful possibilities, and confronted by the rapidly growing needs for skilled labour, in 1906 the Egyptian Government invited Mr. Sidney H. Wells, Principal of the Battersea Polytechnic, to examine into the whole question of technical education in Egypt and to advise as to the lines on which future development should proceed. In the following year a special "Department of Agriculture and Technical Education" was created under the Ministry of Education for the promotion of agricultural and technical education, and Mr. Wells was appointed its Director-General.

During the short period that Mr. Wells has held the reins, in spite of the severe economic crisis which has prevailed, remarkable progress has been accomplished. The Mehemet Ali Trades School at Alexandria, belonging to the El-Orwa el-Woska Society,



POLYTECHNICAL SCHOOL, CAIRO.

has been constructed and equipped at a cost of over £E27,000, partly met by a Government grant-in-aid, and was opened by the Khedive in 1908. The school has accommodation for 500 pupils, and provides instruction in engineering and metal work, smiths' and foundry work, carpentry and woodwork, printing, boot-making, saddlery, basket-making, cabinet-making, and upholstery. The trades school at Fayoum has been built and equipped at a cost of £E10,000, which was voluntarily subscribed within the province. It is designed for 120 pupils, with an adjacent preparatory school for 60 pupils, and provides workshops for engineering and smiths' and foundry work, carpentry and woodwork, leather-work, and painters' and decorators' work. The Coptic Trades School in Faggala, Cairo, has been re-equipped and re-organised. It provides accommodation for 40 pupils. With the aid of a Government grant of £E6,000 a large Coptic Trades School has been erected at Boulac. This will include a school of practical housewifery for women and older girls, as well as a section in tailoring, boot-making, wood-working, and engineering for boys.

In Beheireh Province, stimulated by the liberality of Prince Hussein Kamel Pasha, over £E20,000 has been subscribed, and at Damanhour, the chief town, buildings for a trades school, with accommodation for 200 pupils, are now approaching completion. The trades to be taught are engineering, carpentry and woodwork, painters' work, leather-work, builders' work, and weaving. In Beni Souef Province £E10,000 has been subscribed, and buildings for a trades school are nearly completed, with accommodation for 80 boys in a preparatory school, 100 boys in trade workshops, and 40 girls in a school in which practical work will predominate. In Kaliubieh Province £E23,000 has been subscribed, and a horticultural and trades school is in process of construction at Tukh. In Menufieh Province a similar movement has been organised, and a sum of about £E30,000 subscribed, of which a considerable part is to be devoted to a trades school. At Luxor and Naga Hammadi, in Keneh Province, small trades schools, on simple and inexpensive lines, with accommodation for about 60 pupils, are being established.

These private trades schools receive assistance from the department, not only in the form of grants-in-aid for building equipment and maintenance, but also in expert guidance. Attendance at the schools also receives State encouragement in the form of exemption of the pupils from the obligation to military service.

The Government Model Workshops at Boulac and Assiout, previously referred to, each provide accommodation for about 300 pupils. The training extends over four years. No fees are charged, and a small wage is given after the first half year. The trades taught are engineering, smiths' work, foundry work, metal-plate work, carpentry and woodwork, leather work, and painters' and decorators' work. The instruction is mainly practical, but a certain amount of class instruction in drawing and elementary technical subjects is also provided.

The Mansourah Trades School, also a Government institution, was established in 1889. It provides a three years' course in carpentry and joinery or in engineering. Class instruction is given in arithmetic, geometry, and drawing. There are 79 pupils, of whom 56 are boarders. Unlike the model workshops, the pupils all pay fees, amounting to £E5 per annum in the case of day boarders, and £E12 per annum in the case of boarders.

BOULAC TECHNICAL SCHOOL.

On a higher level is the Boulac Technical School. This institution dates back, with some intervals, to 1839. The course extends over five years, the standard of admission being the primary education certificate. Practical training is given in four principal workshops, viz., the fitting and metal-work shop, the carpentry and pattern-making shop, the smiths' shop, and the iron and brass foundry. Each student passes successively through the four workshops. Theoretical instruction and training in design are also provided. Boarders pay a fee of £E16 and day pupils £E8 per annum, but a considerable number of free scholarships are awarded. The re-construction and re-organisation of the school are under consideration.

SCHOOL OF ENGINEERING.

The School of Engineering is a higher college, providing the most advanced technical instruction, mainly in preparation for service in the irrigation and towns and buildings services of the Public Works Department. Through numerous vicissitudes and interruptions the school dates back to 1834. The course extends over four years, branching off after the second year into special courses in hydraulic engineering and architecture. The school occupies an extensive new building at Gizeh, replete with the latest equipment. During the summer vacation the students are attached to the Public Works Department for further practical training, whilst the students of the third and fourth years also go on tour for about one month each year, visiting important public works and making surveys and hand sketches. There are now 111 students at the school as compared with 44 in 1890, 17 in 1895, 50 in 1900, and 57 in 1905.

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE.

The School of Agriculture was founded in 1890. The standard of admission is the primary education certificate, and the course extends over four years. About 100 acres of cultivated land is attached to the school, all the students taking part in its practical working and in the management of the model dairy. The fee for day students is £E15 per annum and for boarders £E40. The number of students is 131, as compared with 44 in 1890, 43 in 1895, 54 in 1900, and 70 in 1905.

STATISTICS OF ATTENDANCE.

The growth in the attendance at the Ministry's Europeanised system of schools heretofore described is shown in the following summary :—

	1890	1895	1900	1905	1906	1907	1908
HIGHER PRIMARY SCHOOLS :—							
Boys	5,640	7,089	6,269	6,815	7,584	8,143	8,164
Girls	121	244	220	360	334	401	421
TECHNICAL AND TRADES SCHOOLS :—							
Agriculture	44	43	54	70	65	147	131
Boulac Technical	297	311	291	359	269	166	152
Mansourah Trades School	52	39	32	68	66	70	79
Boulac Model Workshops	—	—	—	178	292	328	258
Assiout Model Workshops	—	—	—	—	77	148	199
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	734	684	569	1,345	1,380	1,910	2,113
PROFESSIONAL COLLEGES :—							
Medicine	140	46	62	116	148	159	190
Law	70	95	102	273	358	390	373
Engineering	44	17	50	57	89	106	111
Training Colleges :—							
Nasrieh	76	68	60	210	254	261	303
Khedivieh and Tewfik eh ...	52	23	10	—	—	—	—
Khedivial, Darb-el-Gamamiz :—							
Higher College	—	—	—	—	33	38	46
Lower College	—	—	—	—	—	73	120
Training Centre	—	—	—	69	65	71	68
Sanieh	—	—	4	18	15	15	16
School for Cadis	—	—	—	—	—	191	284
EGYPTIAN EDUCATIONAL MISSION ...	28	12	4	2	3	22	40

REVENUE FROM SCHOOL FEES.

The progress that has been effected, however, is represented only partially by these figures. Not only has there been a steady growth in the numbers attending the schools of each class, but this has been secured in spite of the gradual elimination of free attendance and gratuities, and has been accompanied by a marked improvement in the status of the schools. Free education has at length been formally abolished in all the Europeanised schools under the Ministry of Education, with the exception of the Technical and Trades Schools, the Abbas Primary School (boys' and girls' departments) and the institutions for the training of teachers and of cadis. A system of scholarships tenable at Government Secondary Schools and reserved for poor pupils was, however, inaugurated in 1907, 60 scholars being admitted in that year (28 as free boarders and 32 as free day boarders), whilst in 1908, 112 additional secondary scholarships were awarded. This scheme, whilst avoiding the abuses previously associated with free education in Egypt, will, as it reaches its full development, provide extensive facilities to poor children of approved ability to continue their education in a Secondary School. Wide provision for free education already exists as regards primary instruction in the numerous private benevolent schools scattered throughout the country ;* as regards technical training in trades and crafts, in the Boulac Technical School, the model workshops, and the private trades schools ; and, as regards higher education, in

* Of the 52,000 pupils in Egyptian non-Government Schools, 27,000 are receiving their education free.

the training colleges for teachers and the school for cadis.

The revenue from school fees in 1908 amounted to £E136,902 as compared with £E125,383 in 1907, £E110,344 in 1906, £E90,055 in 1905, £E40,443 in 1900, £E28,010 in 1895, £E17,263 in 1890, and £E2,323 in 1881.

POPULAR EDUCATION.

Until 1898 the whole of the State expenditure on education was devoted exclusively to supplying a European education to a small privileged class of some 8,000 pupils drawn mainly from the wealthiest sections of a population numbering nine millions. The aim of the Ministry of Education in eliminating free education and raising the fees in the Europeanised system of schools has been to make these schools in some measure self-supporting, so as to set free the funds now spent by the State on schools of this class for the promotion of education of a more national character. It was only by the development of its own resources in this way that the Ministry of Education was able to take in hand, under the restricted financial conditions then and for some years subsequently prevailing, the reform of the indigenous elementary schools.

III. THE INDIGENOUS SYSTEM.

Previous to 1898 the activities of the Ministry of Education outside the Europeanised system of schools were limited to some 55 "Wakf" or endowed "kuttabs," which it managed on behalf of the Wakfs Administration.

THE PRIMITIVE KUTTABS.

Scattered over the country there existed some 10,000 kuttabs, attended by 200,000 children, but their condition was so deplorably bad that they were of little educational value. As a rule they were private adventure institutions, under no control or guidance, carried on by poor men who earned a livelihood mainly as hired reciters of the Koran. The schools were generally housed in ill-lighted and insanitary premises; ophthalmia was almost universal, and other diseases abounded. The instruction was carried on without any school equipment other than a few writing-tablets, reed-pens, and ink-holders. The teaching was purely by rote, and was in most cases limited to copying and memorising the text of the Koran. The teachers were almost illiterate, and were generally ignorant of the meaning of the text which they attempted to teach; many of them were totally blind; half of the time they were absent at other occupations; during such absence the greatest evils prevailed. Intellectually, physically and morally, the schools, in a large measure, formed centres of juvenile depravity rather than of nurture. Yet they were crowded with children who were sent there by their parents mainly with a view to securing exemption from military service as "fikis" or reciters of the Koran.

In 1869 and 1890 attempts were made to bring these schools compulsorily under departmental control with a view to reforming them, but both attempts had to be abandoned.

GRANT-IN-AID SCHEME.

In 1898 the Ministry of Education initiated the experiment of trying to bring the schools voluntarily under official supervision by means of a simple system of grants-in-aid. The award of aid was made dependent upon instruction being given daily in reading, writing, and the four rules of arithmetic, and upon the school being favourably reported upon by a departmental inspector.

The situation was, however, a delicate one. Teachers and parents were alike suspicious, if not openly hostile. Both were alarmed lest the introduction of secular teaching denoted a hidden intention to crush out the teaching of the Koran. The teachers saw in the movement the imposition of impossible tests which threatened their early extinction. The parents regarded it as covertly designed to incorporate their children in the army, for service in the Soudan. At best the new policy could but appear to them as the first step towards an educational *corvée* which would ultimately deprive them of their children's labour by making regular attendance at school compulsory; and as the omdehs and large landowners amidst whom they dwelt, and for whom they laboured, were for the most part illiterate, it is not surprising that the claims of education failed to appeal to them with much force.

It was only by the exercise of infinite patience and tact that these prejudices and forebodings were gradually dispelled. The fears of the teachers were allayed by the institution of bi-weekly classes for their instruction in the subjects which they were incompetent to teach. The alarm of the parents gradually subsided as their apprehensions proved groundless, and as the improvement that was being effected through the intervention of the Department became more and more manifest. By quiet and unostentatious effort during the last eleven years along these lines, the foundations of a national system of elementary education have, it is believed, been well and truly laid.

The extent to which the grant-in-aid scheme has developed is shown in the following table:—

GRANT-IN-AID STATISTICS.

Year.	Number of private kuttabs under inspection.	Number of kuttabs awarded a grant-in-aid.			Total amount of grant-in-aid awarded. £E.
		1st class.	2nd class.	Total.	
1898	301	24	86	110	495
1899	403	31	147	178	719
1900	483	37	209	246	1,000
1901	925	58	449	507	2,138
1902	1,346	85	615	700	3,145
1903	2,623	200	1,312	1,512	6,752
1904	3,698	288	1,656	1,944	9,504
1905	4,859	517	2,148	2,665	13,164
1906	4,432	614	2,154	2,768	15,136
1907	4,181	759	2,002	2,761	17,402
1908	3,679	957	1,992	2,949	19,992

The diminution in the number of kuttabs under inspection during the last three years must not be taken as denoting any retrogression. It results, on the contrary, from the progress that is being made in consolidating the kuttabs by incorporating small and inefficient schools in larger ones which already existed or have recently been established in the same neighbourhood. The number of pupils under instruction, and in a larger ratio the number of pupils in kuttabs awarded a grant-in-aid of the 1st class, show a continuous advance, as will be seen from the following table:—

Year.	Number of Pupils under Instruction.								
	In kuttabs awarded a grant-in-aid of the 1st class.			In kuttabs awarded a grant-in-aid of the 2nd class.			In all kuttabs under inspection for grants-in-aid.		
	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1898 ...	1,113	127	1,240	2,518	192	2,710	6,938	598	7,536
1899 ...	1,518	130	1,648	4,091	226	4,317	9,839	568	10,407
1900 ...	1,820	231	2,051	5,825	376	6,201	11,318	997	12,315
1901 ...	3,244	702	3,946	12,828	793	13,621	24,691	2,140	26,831
1902 ...	4,496	791	5,287	18,633	1,450	20,083	36,142	2,993	39,135
1903 ...	10,994	2,001	12,995	47,855	3,227	51,082	70,702	5,526	76,228
1904 ...	17,693	2,531	20,224	65,628	4,961	70,589	115,871	8,615	124,486
1905 ...	30,298	3,775	34,073	82,154	5,182	87,336	136,083	9,611	145,694
1906 ...	36,824	4,467	41,291	86,649	5,636	92,285	145,838	10,704	156,542
1907 ...	50,098	5,470	55,568	87,705	5,705	93,410	152,761	11,745	164,506
1908 ...	64,260	7,107	71,367	87,531	6,353	93,884	160,789	13,753	174,542

Fifty-eight thousand one hundred and eighty-two of the pupils in the kuttabs, or 33 per cent., were reported to be receiving their education free. One thousand two hundred and ninety-one of the boys and 428 of the girls in attendance at the kuttabs were totally blind. The highest grant-in-aid awarded to any kuttab in 1908 was £E46. The average grant-in-aid to kuttabs of the 1st class was £E11, and to kuttabs of the 2nd class under £E5. The teaching staff consists of 6,569 men and 44 women.

The improvement that has been effected is, however, not merely quantitative.

For example, as regards the material conditions under which the schools are carried on, 1,615 of the kuttabs under inspection in 1908 were reported to be located in suitable premises. In 2,587 kuttabs the pupils now sit at desks or on forms instead of on the floor; 3,027 kuttabs possess blackboards; 3,130 of the kuttabs are supplied with reading books, exercise books, and writing materials; and 1,120 are considered to be in all respects satisfactorily equipped. In 1,093 kuttabs the pupils were reported to be clean and tidy.

On the educational side, substantial progress is also being made; 1,007 of the head teachers are now considered to be fairly qualified for their duties; 413 of them have passed the Departmental Examination as head teachers ("fiki"), and 359 as assistant teachers ("arif"). 983 of the head teachers and 1,372 of the assistant teachers are still attending the bi-weekly classes to improve their professional competence. In 3,121 of the kuttabs the teachers now attempt to teach in classes instead of individually. In 927 kuttabs the teaching was reported to be good; 1,066 of the kuttabs are considered by the Inspecting Officers to be well managed.

The fundamental elements of an orderly school are thus being gradually evolved.

GOVERNMENT KUTTABS.

In addition to the 3,679 independent kuttabs under inspection for grants-in-aid, the Ministry

of Education has under its direct management 144 kuttabs with a staff of 353 men teachers and 52 women teachers, and attended by 8,806 boys and 3,563 girls. These kuttabs mostly belong to derelict trusts, and have been placed under the management of the Ministry of Education by the Wakfs Administration, which continues to provide the funds for their maintenance; 99 of these Government kuttabs are in Cairo and 45 in the provinces.

Eleven of the Government kuttabs are now set apart for girls only, and are staffed by female teachers. Nine of these are in Cairo, one at Damietta, and one at Assiout. Two of them have an attendance of over 200 girls, whilst the average number in the eleven kuttabs reaches 145. The number of girls in attendance at the Government kuttabs has increased from 377 in 1898, and 1,226 in 1903, to 3,563 in 1908.

Work in the Government kuttabs is carried on regularly under qualified teachers, in conformity with a prescribed time table, with adequate school equipment, and under favourable conditions of discipline, and the pupils pass through the standards without any inordinate lingering in the various stages of the course.

LOCAL CO-OPERATION.

To the credit of the policy pursued by the Ministry of Education during the last eleven years must be accounted, however, not merely the improvement effected within the kuttabs, but the larger gain represented by the awakening of the adult population to a recognition of the fruitfulness of self-help and corporate effort.

Originating, under the stimulus of Lord Cromer, in the movement in favour of the kuttabs, this manifestation of private enterprise has broadened so as to embrace technical and agricultural education, and is feeling its way towards the promotion of the higher forms of culture through a national university.

As regards the kuttabs, the Ministry of Education has been able during the last few years in pursuance of this policy to secure through private munificence or local enterprise the construction or reconstruction of no less than 1,692 kuttabs. One thousand and twenty-six of these kuttabs have been built at the cost of private individuals, and 666 by societies promoted in the various provinces for the special purpose of improving the kuttabs. Further, over £E90,000 has been subscribed in cash throughout the country to meet the immediate needs of the kuttabs.

Nor is this all. Public spirit has been awakened to the need of providing permanent financial assistance for the maintenance of the kuttabs, with the result that within the last few years a total of 1,222 acres of agricultural land has been settled by private individuals throughout the country in "wakf" or trust for the perpetual endowment of kuttabs. The total value of the estate thus recently settled in trust for the benefit of kuttabs is estimated at £E160.000, and the annual revenue derivable therefrom at £E9,000.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

It is now felt that the time has arrived for the people to share, through duly elected representatives, the responsibility for the direction and extension of popular education in their various localities. If development is to proceed more rapidly, as is desired, the necessary funds can be found only by calling into co-operation local resources through the imposition of some form of school-rate. It would, however, clearly be inadvisable to force such a project uniformly over the country without regard to local feeling. In the amended law relating to Provincial Councils, which is at present under consideration by the Legislative Council, it is proposed to hand over to these elective bodies the local control of elementary vernacular education, with authority, subject to confirmation by the Council of Ministers, to levy a school-rate. The onus of fixing the pace of educational development will thus be brought down from Government to the people themselves.

TRAINING OF VERNACULAR TEACHERS.

All efforts at reforming the kuttabs must, however, have proved unavailing without some provision for improving the teaching staff. As far back as 1898 the Ministry of Education instituted an examination to test the competence of teachers in kuttabs, but in the absence of institutions at which the candidates could receive suitable training it was impossible for the results to be very productive. In 1902 the Ministry instituted classes on Thursday afternoons and Friday mornings, in Cairo and at a large number of centres in the provinces, at which teachers actually in employment in kuttabs could receive instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic in preparation for the professional examination. The numbers in attendance at these classes have grown from 548 in 1902, and 1,261 in 1905, to 2,355 in 1908. These classes represent a serious effort to help the men in possession of the kuttabs to rise to the new requirements.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

In 1903, with a view to facilitate the establishment of special kuttabs for girls, the Ministry opened at Boulac a Normal School for training young women as teachers in kuttabs. The course extends over three years, and includes domestic subjects. There are now 60 students, all free boarders, as compared with 25 in 1903. In 1904, 1905, 1906, and 1907, the Ministry inaugurated at Cairo, Fayoum, Kalioub, and Mansourah, Normal Schools for men teachers in kuttabs. The course in these is limited to two years. The training is free, and the men receive a small maintenance allowance. The number of students is 373. These institutions aim at creating a new supply of trained teachers.

STATISTICS OF ATTENDANCE.

The statistics relating to the Ministry's indigenous system of schools may be summarised as follows:—

	1890	1895	1900	1905	1906	1907	1908
GOVERNMENT KUTTABS:							
Boys	1,961	2,486	3,323	5,577	6,910	8,175	8,806
Girls	—	139	643	1,833	2,135	2,839	3,563
KUTTABS UNDER INSPECTION FOR GRANTS-IN-AID:							
Boys	—	—	11 318	136,083	145,838	152,761	160,789
Girls	—	—	907	9,611	10,704	11,745	13,753
INSTITUTIONS FOR TRAINING TEACHERS FOR SERVICE IN KUTTABS:							
Abd-el-Aziz Normal School ...	—	—	—	116	124	128	118
Fayoum Normal School ...	—	—	—	62	72	73	69
Kalioub Normal School ...	—	—	—	—	67	70	66
Mansourah Normal School ...	—	—	—	—	—	93	120
Boulac Normal School (women)	—	—	—	39	40	47	60
Bi-weekly Normal Classes ...	—	—	—	1,261	2,636	2,567	2,355

EXPENDITURE.

The expenditure of the Ministry of Education upon elementary vernacular education, apart from the construction of new buildings, has increased since 1898 as follows:—

Year.	Government Kuttabs.	Grants-in-Aid.	Training of Teachers.	Inspection and Administration.	Total.
	£E	£E	£E	£E	£E
1898	1,234	495	—	1,204	2,933
1899	1,679	719	—	858	3,256
1900	1,710	1,000	—	757	3,467
1901	2,843	2,138	—	1,413	6,394
1902	3,060	3,145	155	3,327	9,687
1903	3,657	6,752	939	6,085	17,433
1904	5,937	9,504	3,084	9,020	27,545
1905	7,105	13,164	3,970	12,129	36,368
1906	8,931	15,136	6,306	14,152	44,525
1907	12,105	17,402	7,046	15,248	51,801
1908	14,424	20,062	9,999	16,040	60,525
1909*	17,892	21,500	11,261	18,347	69,000

* Estimate.

DEPARTMENTAL SPHERE OF INFLUENCE.

The sphere of influence of the Ministry of Education has in recent years been enormously extended. In 1908, the Ministry had under its direct management or under inspection 207,000 pupils, as compared with 195,000 pupils in 1907, 185,000 pupils in 1906, 167,000 pupils in 1905, 141,000 pupils in 1904, 92,000 pupils in 1903, 54,000 pupils in 1902, 42,000 pupils in 1901, 27,000 pupils in 1900, 9,000 pupils in 1890, and 5,000 pupils in 1880.

OTHER DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.

A few schools of a special character are attached to other Government departments, viz., the Military School, under the Ministry of War; the Police School, with sections for policemen and cadets, under the Ministry of the Interior; the Veterinary School, and the School for Nurses and Midwives, under the Department of Public Health; the School of Telegraphy, under the Railways Administration; and the Coastguards' School, under the Coastguards' Administration.

IV. PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

Reference has already been made in connection with the Primary and Secondary Examinations to the existence of a number of non-departmental schools. The vast majority of these may be classed roughly as Higher Primary Schools, working more or less on the lines of the Government Primary Syllabus, and aiming at presenting candidates for the Primary Education Certificate Examination. There are, however, a few private Secondary Schools, and schools of a higher grade.

Of Egyptian institutions above the "kuttab" grade, the Wakfs Administration controls 21 schools (including Al Azhar and the other Mosque schools), attended by nearly 17,000 pupils. In connection with private Mahomedan wakfs there are 10 schools, with 2,276 pupils. The "Mahomedan Benevolent Society" has 10 schools, with 1,562 pupils; the "Orwa El-Woska Society," 18 schools, with 2,211 pupils; and the "Masai El-Mashkura Society," 7 schools, with 1,010 pupils; whilst there are about 80 Mahomedan private schools with a total of over 11,000 pupils. Connected with the Coptic community and its various societies are some 60 schools, attended by about 10,000 pupils, in addition to some 40 Coptic private schools, with 4,500 pupils. Of the 52,000 pupils in private schools of Egyptian nationality, 37,000 are Mahomedans, 12,000 Copts, and 1,300 Jews. About 1,300 Copts are in attendance at Mahomedan schools, and 3,100 Mahomedans in attendance at Coptic schools.

The majority of the schools under foreign control are associated with Christian missionary enterprise. Some of these mission schools date back to the middle of the nineteenth century. The most widespread organisation is that of the American Presbyterian Mission, which conducts over 150 schools, giving education to 12,000 pupils (9,000 boys and 3,000 girls), of whom all but 300 are Egyptians. Nine thousand of the pupils are Copts, 2,000 Mahomedans, and 200 Jews.

Of British institutions, the "Egypt General Mission" has 8 schools, with 400 pupils; the "Church Missionary Society," 6 schools, with 400 pupils; the "Jerusalem and the East Mission," 2 schools, with 150 pupils; the "Church of Scotland Mission," 2 schools, with 450 pupils; and the "North of Africa Mission," 2 schools, with 200 pupils. Six hundred and fifty of the pupils in these schools are Mahomedans, 400 Copts, and 270 Jews.

Under French protection, the "Frères des Ecoles Chrétiennes" carry on about 50 schools, with over 5,000 pupils; the "Compagnie de Jésus," 24 schools, with 2,600 pupils; the "Mission Africaine de Lyon," 10 schools, with 1,100 pupils; the "Filles de la Charité," 11 schools, with 2,800 pupils; the "Congrégation de la Mère de Dieu," 4 schools, with 500 pupils"; and the "Congrégation du Bon Pasteur," 8 schools, with 1,500 pupils. The French institutions more largely than the American cater for European pupils, only 9,000 of the 17,000 pupils in the French schools being of Egyptian nationality; 1,500 of them are Mahomedans, 3,500 Copts, and 3,100 Jews.

Under Italian protection the "Missionnaires Franciscaines" conduct 22 schools, with 2,500 pupils, of whom about half are Egyptians.

The number of pupils attending schools, both Governmental and private, above the "kuttab" grade is given in the returns of the Statistical Department for 1907–8, as follows:—

Nationality.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Egyptians.	Foreigners.
Egyptian Institutions	66,049	59,382	6,667	64,778	1,271
British ,, ...	2,287	1,523	764	1,736	551
American ,, ...	12,640	9,105	3,535	12,356	284
Austrian ,, ...	1,647	977	670	998	649
Dutch ,, ...	159	125	34	157	2
French ,, ...	17,805	10,485	7,320	9,692	8,113
German ,, ...	822	254	568	136	686
Greek ,, ...	5,774	3,338	2,436	168	5,606
Italian ,, ...	5,776	2,676	3,090	1,636	4,130
Other ,, ...	481	431	50	187	294
TOTAL	113,430	88,296	25,134	91,844	21,586

Religion.	Population.	Literates.					
		Males.		Females.		Total.	
		Number	per cent.	Number	per cent.	Number	per cent.
Mahomedans	10,269,445	402,090	8	10,579	1	412,669	4
Copts	706,322	67,256	19	5,765	2	73,021	10
Jews	38,365	11,024	56	5,910	31	16,934	44
Others	175,576	68,299	72	38,399	48	106,698	61
TOTAL	11,189,978	548,669	10	60,653	1	609,322	5½

Of the 91,844 Egyptians enumerated in the foregoing table, 76,123 are males and 15,721 females; 54,000 are Mahomedans and 29,000 are Copts; 69,000 are in Primary Schools above the kuttab grade, 3,900 in Secondary or Commercial Schools, and 1,500 in Technical Schools; whilst over 15,000 are classified as receiving Higher Education, including that provided in Al Azhar and other mosque schools.

The number of literates in the population of Egypt, according to the Census Returns of 1907, is shown in the accompanying table.

Taking the population of Egyptian nationality only, 85 per 1,000 males and 3 per 1,000 females are able to read and write, as compared with 80 per 1,000 males and 2 per 1,000 females in 1897.

DR. DOUGLAS DUNLOP, M.A., LL.D., is Adviser to the Ministry of Education. A Note by Dr. Dunlop with reference to the Linguistic Basis of Instruction in the Egyptian Government Schools is included in Lord Cromer's final report on Egypt and the Soudan in 1906. In that report Lord Cromer writes:—"Few British officials in Egypt have been more severely criticised than Mr. Dunlop. I do not, however, doubt, that the time will eventually come when the public in general will recognise, as I now recognise, that few servants of the Egyptian Government have rendered greater services than Mr. Dunlop to promoting the true interests and welfare of the Egyptian population."

THE EGYPTIAN UNIVERSITY.

BY AHMED ZEKI BEY, Secretary to the Egyptian University.

WHEN, leaving the Quarter of Ismailia, the traveller enters upon the road leading to Old Cairo, he perceives almost immediately on his left a vast edifice in Moorish style, situate in extensive gardens. Within are large halls, richly and sumptuously decorated and fitted, each of which is able to contain and actually receives several hundreds of auditors. This is the palace in which, since November last, the young Egyptian University has been preparing the intellectual and moral renaissance of Egypt.

The Egyptian University? Hitherto this name had only meant the ancient University of Al Azhar, where twelve thousand students, from all parts of the Mahomedan world, came to learn and comment on the Koran, and to imbibe deeply of that common source of the Mahomedan law and religion, as likewise of Arabic literature. Nevertheless the instruction, which was too exclusively confined to the Koran, at Al Azhar did not make sufficient provision for the scientific aspirations of modern thought. For a new world, in full process of evolution, a new organism was necessary. It is out of this need that the young Egyptian University sprang.

For a long time past young people educated abroad, forming part of the Egyptian missions created and maintained in Europe by Mehemet Ali and his successors, had brought to the knowledge of the public the important part played in national education by universities in the great countries of Europe. More recently, when a breath of independence began to stir the country, when the strong

desire to have their own government, with parliament and ministers responsible to the people, awoke in the heart of the Egyptians, this desire was associated with the idea that the path which tended towards this end was the development of education in all classes and grades. With remarkable lucidity, the nation realised that if it was important to extend primary education among the masses of the people, it was perhaps no less important to create an organ capable of giving to the upper classes that general culture which constitutes the superiority of old nations and which is at present wanting in Egypt, where the entirely practical education, devoid of ideals, has been hitherto too much limited to the sole object of enabling each person to earn his livelihood as soon as possible.

All these ideas had for some time been taking root in Egypt, but it was only towards the end of 1905 that the Press began to be interested in them and to discuss the questions of the development of higher education, the utility of general culture, and, for its attainment, the creation of an organism similar to those in operation in Europe, *i.e.* a University. This idea was received by the public with effective sympathy and the resolve to carry it into practice, and almost immediately a notable of the town of Beni Souef, Moustapha Kamel el Ghamradin, announced his willingness to contribute £500 towards the foundation of the University; he at the same time recommended the formation of a Committee which should group the scattered forces having this aim. This example was followed almost immediately, and promises of contributions were forthcoming from all quarters, when one of the subscribers, Mohamed Bey Baghat, making a further step in advance, deposited £50 in the National Bank, exhorting the promoters of the idea of a University to follow his example, as money and not promises would be needed by the University.

A few days later, on October 12, 1906, some persons assembled at the house of Saad Bey Zagloul, then Councillor in the Native Court of Appeal of Cairo (now Saad Pasha Zagloul, Minister of Public Instruction), with the object of taking note of the promised subscriptions, and preparing and publishing a programme of the founders of the University.

In this declaration the promoters put on record that there was a lacuna in the system of education in Egypt, that it is in truth not sufficient that the majority of the population should be able to read and write; that it is not even sufficient that the *élite* should have the possibility of acquiring the professional knowledge needed by doctors, advocates, or engineers, but that it was further necessary to give the men who feel the need within them the means of rising to the superior knowledge and culture possessed by the great men of science and writers in Europe and America. In order to carry out this work they appealed to private initiative. The University was to be essentially scientific. Open to all, without distinction of origin or religion, it would hold aloof from political affairs. Pending the development of its resources and organisation to enable it to gather into its fold all grades of education —primary, secondary, and higher—it should at the outset confine itself to creating higher education, and for that purpose the founding of Chairs of Arabic and European literature, sciences, philosophy, and history, where the lectures would be given by professors carefully chosen in Europe or Egypt. The University would deliver to those who attended its courses, diplomas, the value of which would be gradually established by the qualities of the students possessing them.

This programme and manifesto concluded by an appeal to the goodwill of the subscribers. The publication of this manifesto was followed at a few days' interval by the appointment of Saad Bey Zagloul as Minister of Public Instruction, and this entry into power of one of the warmest advocates of the University scheme was greeted by all as the presage of an early success.

On November 30, 1906, a fresh meeting of the promoters appointed Kassim Bey Amin as their Vice-president. In the month of January, 1907, the consent of H.H. the Khedive gave a great impulse to the scheme. Gifts began to be received in large numbers. All classes of the population desired to participate in the national work, and many were, among others, the gifts made by young girls in the primary, secondary, or higher schools. Among these gifts the most magnificent was that of Hassan Pasha Zaid, who offered the University 50 feddans of land, the valuation of which, at the rate of £200 per feddan, represents a capital of £10,000.

On December 22, 1907, His Highness the Khedive appointed as President His Highness Prince Ahmed Pasha Fouad, who in January, 1908, signified his acceptance, and from that date the Egyptian University may be said to have existed. The president's first care was to secure for his assistance the appointment of a technical committee of eight members, with whose co-operation he outlined the programme to be followed. It was decided that the University should pursue a two-fold object :—

(*a*) The organisation in Egypt of courses of higher education, enabling an intellectual *élite* to continue their education beyond the school level and to reach a higher standard of culture.

(*b*) The formation of a body of masters capable of giving these higher education courses in the Arabic tongue.

It was likewise decided that not an instant should be lost, and, without even waiting for the University body to be constituted, to take in hand, without more ado, the most urgent matter : the organisation of the lectures to be held in Egypt before the end of the year, and also the organisation, for departure in September, of those students whom it was intended to make the future professors of the University, and who, in order to prepare themselves for this task, were to attend the great European universities and gain the highest qualifications they confer.

The committee's task was a far-reaching and complex one. It was necessary in the first place to continue obtaining the subscriptions which would enable the work to be founded and carried on, and simultaneously to form the University staff and body, to frame its articles, to seek out among the Egyptian youths those students who were most capable of becoming future professors, to enable them to pass the various examinations which would acquaint the committee with their capacities, to make the necessary arrangements with them, and to determine the conditions of their life in Europe; it was also necessary to fix upon the courses of lectures to be given in Egypt and settle the programme, select the professors, find a building for the University adapted for the object in view, &c. All this, moreover, had to be done without any staff or accommodation, without any information which might, at this early stage, guide the first efforts of the University.

His Highness Prince Fouad Pasha, together with whom it is only fair to mention his principal collaborators, Messrs. Maspero, Yakoub Pasha Artin, and Ahmed Zeki Bey, fully rose to the situation. Owing to their activity, to their indefatigable devotion, to their daily meetings during the extreme heat of summer, the University Council was enabled to assemble for the first time on May 24, 1908, in order to approve its articles.

The examinations were organised in the month of May. One hundred and fifty students took part, and eleven were selected to form the mission which, at the time fixed, the month of September, set out for London, Paris, and Lyons. To each of these students the University was able to guarantee for the entire duration of his studies a scholarship of £144, the amount of which was increased to £190 for students in England (owing to the higher cost of living there than in France), the University furthermore undertaking to defray the university fees for matriculation, examination, and diplomas. Furthermore, a monthly allowance of £E4 is entered to the credit of each member of the commission during the whole continuance of their studies in Europe. The total of this provident fund will be paid out to them on their return to Egypt, to serve for their domestic and personal equipment. When, after the perfectly comprehensible uncertainties of the outset, these students had made themselves at home in their new surroundings and settled down to their work in Europe, the University received the most encouraging reports about them, and it is now preparing a second mission to be sent in the month of September next.

The end of the summer was passed by His Highness the President, Monsieur Maspero, and His Excellency Artin Pasha, in traversing Europe and creating a current of genuine and beneficial sympathy around their work, recruiting the professors and preparing the foundation of the Library, which is every day enriched by new gifts, but which already numbers ten thousand volumes, many of them valuable, and none of them purchased.

During this time the Secretary, in addition to the multifarious work involved in the creation of a University which was beginning to take form, had assumed the difficult task of finding a building in which the University might be accommodated, and after a long search, he discovered a palace which seemed as though it had been built intentionally for the purpose.

The University was acknowledged as being of public utility by the Egyptian Government on June 15, 1908. It was solemnly inaugurated on December 21 by His Highness the Khedive, who was pleased to deliver an appropriate speech on that occasion. On that very day its Lectures began. They were :—

Lectures on the history of old Oriental civilisations, by Ahmed Bey Kamal.

Lectures on the history of Mahomedan civilisations, by Ahmed Zeki Bey, Secretary of the University.

Lectures on the Mahomedan world in its relations with the West, by Mr. T. Guidi.

Lectures on English literature, by Mr. H. Miller.

Lectures on French literature, by Mr. A. Pauphilet, and more than five hundred students are assiduously attending these courses, which, as may be seen, have been selected without taking any account of the immediate necessities of practical life, but rather with a view of giving them that general culture for which they feel the wish and the need.



NATIVE LOOMS AT THE AGRICULTURAL SHOW, CAIRO.

NATIVE ARTS AND HANDICRAFTS.

ONE can become familiar with the work of Egyptian artistic crafts without realising that there is very much which deserves to be conserved, and in methods of workmanship and accuracy of finish ample scope for improvement. Equally is there need for a revival of the powers of the ancient craftsman, particularly in such things as internal decoration and colour work. The old mosques and palaces abound with examples of beautifully executed decorations, admirable alike in form, colour, and design. This appears to be as lost an art as that of a knowledge of the pigments employed, the colours of which are so wonderfully preserved. It is feared, too, that many old designs in metal work and weaving are being replaced by the gaudier and less artistic patterns of the cheap Manchester and Birmingham goods. As to there being a market for good reproductions of ancient designs and forms, and for the numerous artistic examples which appeal to the taste of the tourist and connoisseur as he strolls through the museums and mosques there can be no doubt, and the only question is how they can be again produced.

In this association much may be hoped for from the work of the newly formed Department of Agriculture and Technical Education of the Ministry of Education. In the trade schools maintained or inspected by the Department, a good deal of work is already being done in the nature of applied and artistic arts and crafts. Weaving, inlaying, art metal work, and internal decorative work find a place in the programme, and the object of the instructions is to preserve the best designs, to improve the workmanship and accuracy, and to instruct the workers in principles of form, colour, and design applicable to their trades or crafts. Weaving is especially a subject to which special attention is being given, the improvement aimed at being twofold, namely, artistic and mechanical. The Department's proposals for a new Intermediate Technical School now under consideration include the creation of a section of industrial arts and crafts, the special aim of which will be to train workers artistically and in handicraft in all the arts and crafts which now exist, and the revival of which is sufficiently full of promise. It is to such efforts as this that one looks most hopefully for improvement and development of all that is best and most worth preserving in the industrial arts and crafts of the country.

In most villages some more or less crude type of weaving is to be found. The loom is of the simplest construction; one end is attached to the root of a tree, or something equivalent, and the weaver stands in a hole dug to such a depth as to bring him level with his work. The yarn is made by the villagers whilst they are engaged in tending sheep or such-like occupations, the distaff being very similar in pattern to that used by our grandparents. Not infrequently, a weaving-hall is established by several families in association, each family contributing to it and being entitled to its use. Most of the cloth produced is used among the natives for clothing, or for tents, awnings, and hangings.

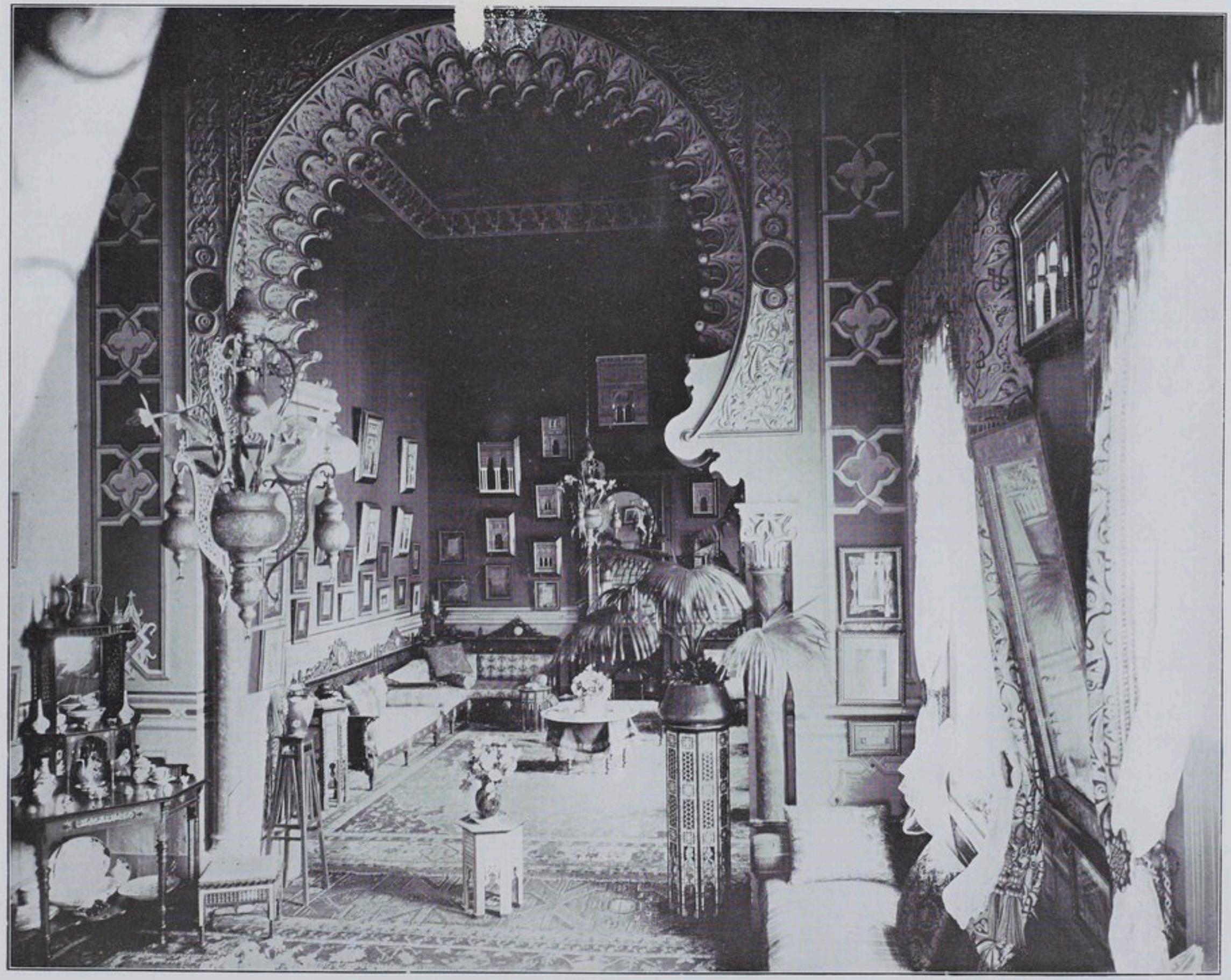
Silk-weaving has been brought to some degree of perfection, the chief centre being the town of Mahalet el-Koubrah, where almost the whole of the inhabitants are engaged, either directly or indirectly, in the industry. The raw silk is derived chiefly from Syria, local attempts to raise the silk-worm having failed. Silken fabrics are in great demand, for all natives who can afford them use them for wearing apparel, while silk hangings are commonly to be found in mosques. The silk, however, is expensive, for the output is still somewhat limited. For the most part, the looms are of crude construction, but here and there machines of European origin have been introduced.

Dyeing is an indigenous industry, but the old vegetable dyes, with their lovely, fast colours, have been almost entirely superseded by aniline dyes imported from Europe, the reasons being that the mineral dyes are cheaper and are obtainable in greater quantities. Practically the only vegetable dyes still in common use are the blacks obtained through the action of a certain chemical on the leaves of the sant (or birch) tree, and the blues derived from the Indian Nila, the blacks being largely used for dyeing the garments of the Egyptian women, and the blues for the galiobiehs of the men.

There is no district in which it may be ... that carpet-weaving exists at the present time. In days gone by there have been districts noted for this industry. Beni Souef, for instance, was famous for a rough and durable form of carpet made by the Bedouins, and such carpets are still made to some extent; but, generally speaking, carpet-making has largely died out, owing chiefly to the difficulty of obtaining the raw material. Attempts are being made to revive it; in three of the principal prisons of the country beautiful Turkish carpets are made, while in some of the Technical Schools the industry is shortly to be introduced.

In many of the villages reed mats are made, poorer people preferring them to carpets on account of their cheapness. The reeds are indigenous, large quantities of them coming from the province of Sharkia; and they are used either in their natural colour or dyed in brilliant reds, blues, and greens. The warp, of rough twine, is spread on frames a few inches from the ground, and the workers squat on the finished portion whilst working at the unfinished portion of the mat.

Reeds of various kinds are also used in basket-work. At Keneh thousands upon thousands of the shallow bowl-shaped baskets, ased for the carrying of earth, &c., in building construction, are made in the course of a year; while from Esneh and Edfu come the

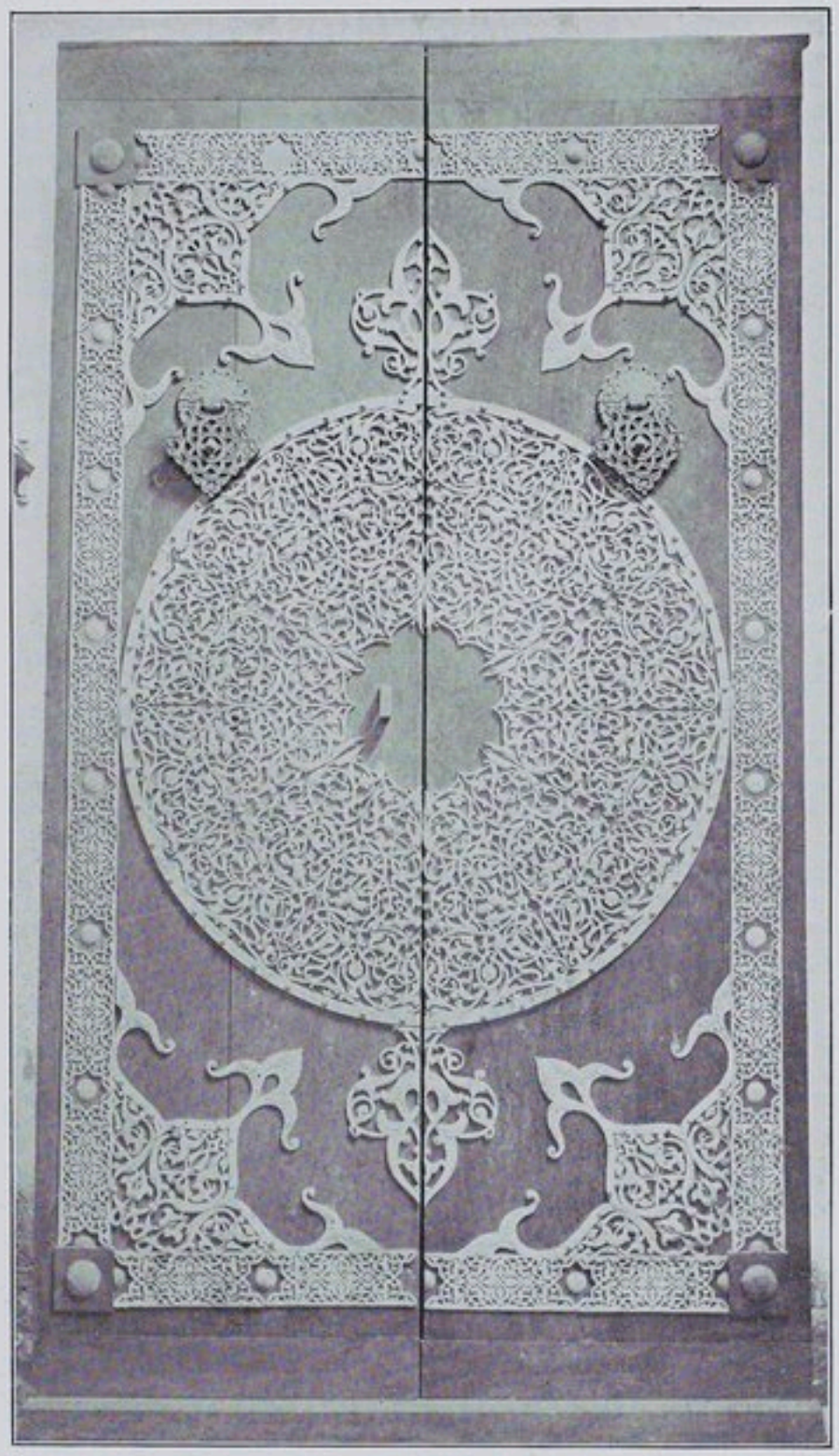


INTERIOR OF ARAB GENTLEMAN'S HOUSE SHOWING NATIVE ART.

curious baskets of coloured reeds, of which the popular form, known as the margoona, is commonly used amongst the natives for storing bread, clothing, or miscellaneous articles.

Nowhere else in the world is to be found anything quite similar to the Egyptian tent-work. As its name implies, it was originally intended for the ornamentation of tents, street awnings, and ornamental hangings. Upon white cloth, either of native or European manufacture, cut-out patterns of red, blue, yellow and green are sewn in such a way (the stitches being hidden) as to appear to be stuck on. The tourist demand for specimens of tent-work has brought about considerable elaboration of the designs employed, and to the character (Arabic lettering) and geometric patterns have been added hieroglyphic designs from old temples and tombs. Cairo is the chief seat of the industry.

The spangled shawls so much worn by the women of the country, and so popular as souvenirs of a visit to Egypt are made chiefly at Assiout. Mosquito netting of good quality is imported from England and the Continent, and from the same sources sheet-metal is obtained. The metal is made in various grades of white and yellow, the best grades keeping their colour indefinitely. It is cut into narrow, ribbon-like threads, and the ends of these threads are pushed through the netting, bent over, and cut off. No sewing of any kind is necessary, the metal being flexible, and the twist at the end sufficing to hold the spangles in place.



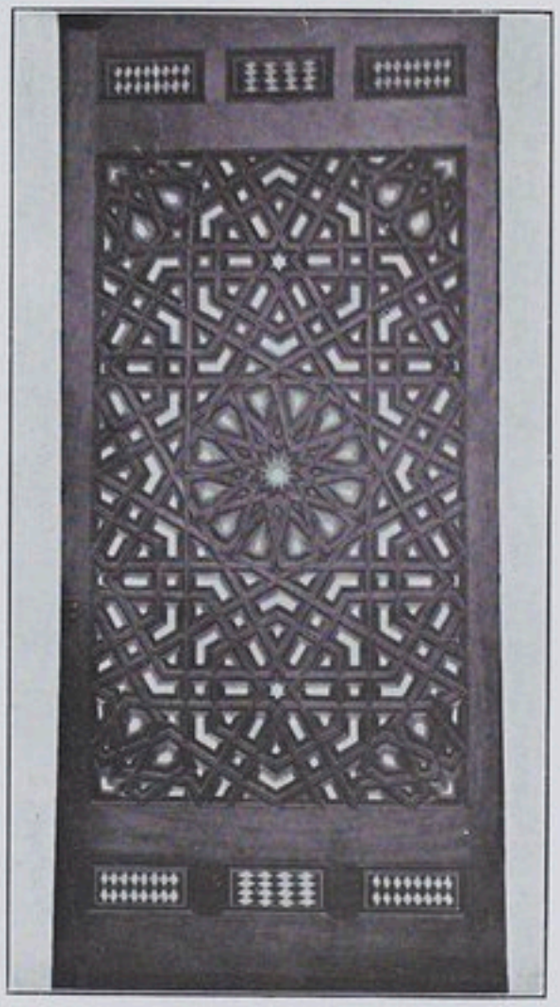
AN OLD DOOR IN FILIGREE BRONZE.

Mashrabieh work consists of turned pieces of wood built up into surfaces, the pieces in some of the finer examples being so small that hundreds of them would be required to cover a square inch. The woods used are chiefly lemon wood, incense wood (burned by the Arabs to perfume their houses), ebony (from the Soudan), rosewood, boxwood, tamarind, and ironwood (from India), walnut (from Turkey), and sycamore (from Australia). Ivory is also employed in some of the finer work. The patterns are usually geometric; sometimes they are traditional, or copied from old work, at others the workman follows his instinct or caprice. The use of mashrabieh has been greatly extended of late years, and besides the screens, windows, and window

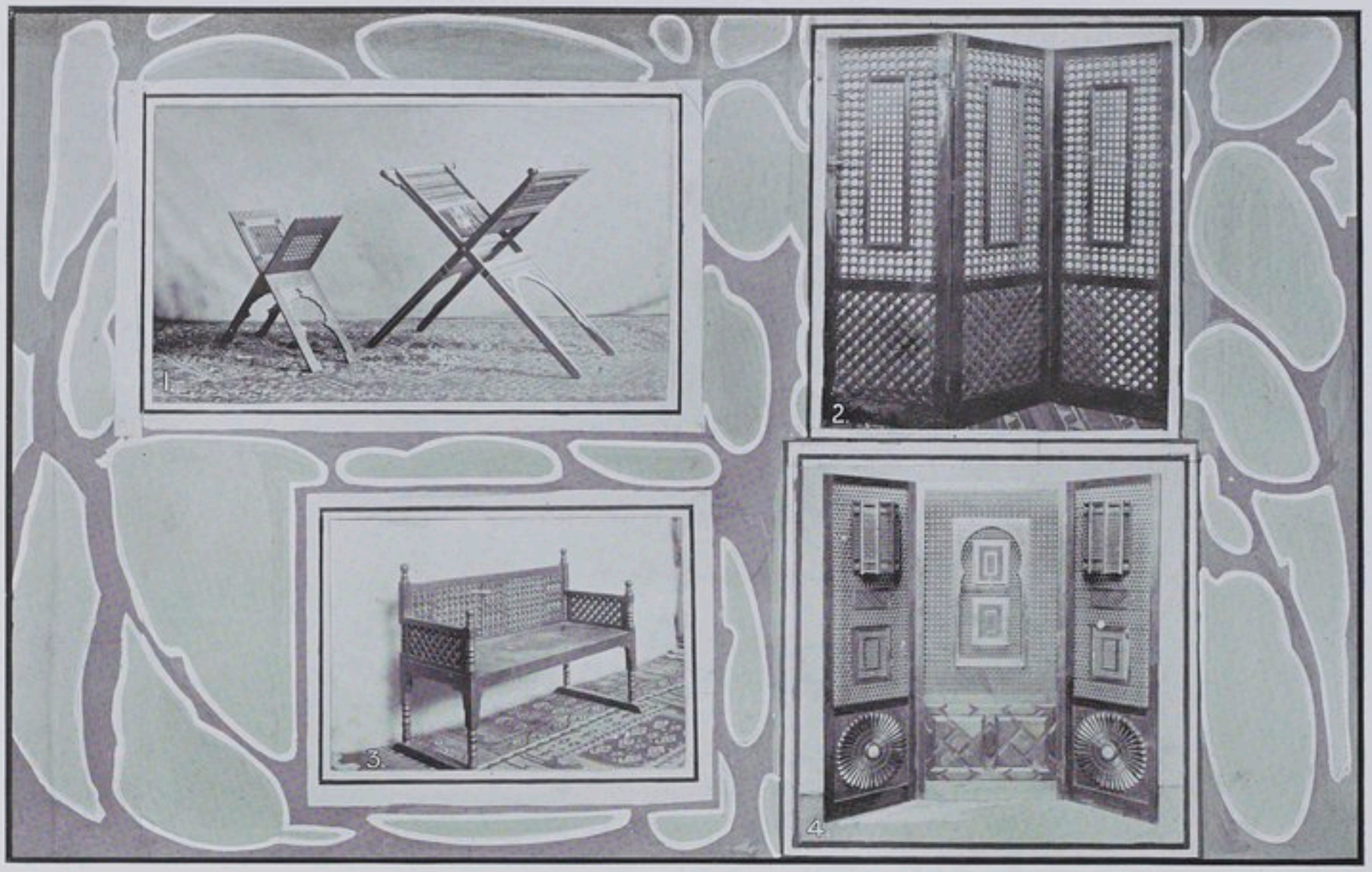


A PANELLED CABINET.

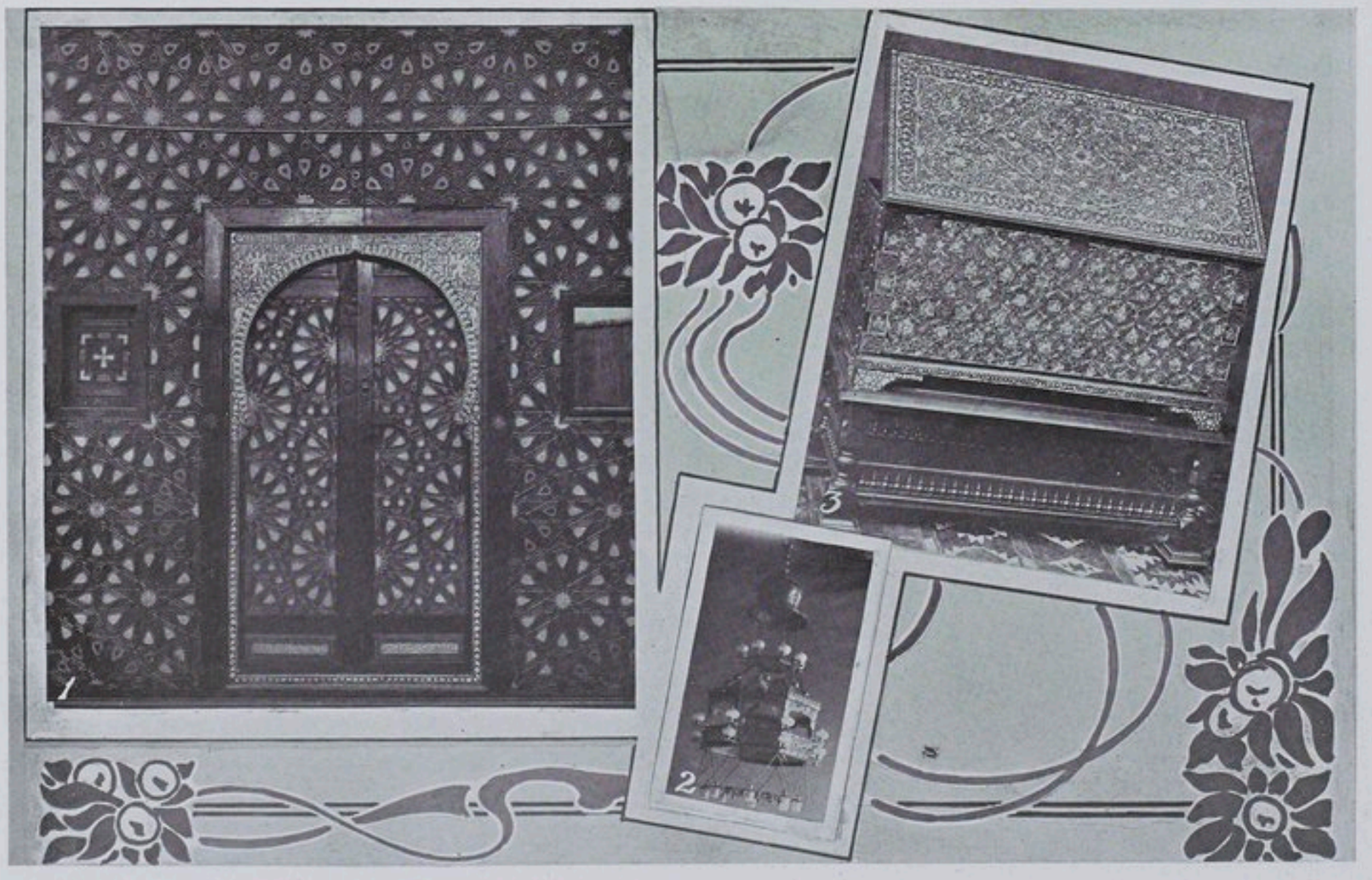
niches, balconies, &c., for which it was originally intended, it is now adapted to innumerable uses, such as picture-frames, brackets, bric-a-brac, furniture, and so forth. The methods of the workman are curious and interesting to watch. Squatting before his lathe, he turns the spindle, by means of a bow and cord, with his right hand, and with his left hand and left foot holds and guides the tool.



MOORISH PANELLING WORK.



1. KORAN STANDS IN MASHRABIEH AND INLAY WORK.
2. A SCREEN IN OLD MASHRABIEH WORK.
3. ARAB SOFA IN MASHRABIEH WORK.
4. A SCREEN IN MODERN MASHRABIEH WORK.



1. EXAMPLE OF INLAID WORK IN PINE WOOD AND CARVED BONE.
2. HANGING BRASS LAMP.
3. CHEST INLAID WITH MOTHER OF PEARL.

The genius of the Oriental lies in his infinite capacity for taking pains, and this almost animal patience is exhibited, in its highest degree, and in association with a like degree of skill, by the worker in inlay. The woods used are the same as those employed in mashrabieh work, while mother-of-pearl, derived from the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, and ivory are also used with great effect. The patterns are scarcely more diverse than in mashrabieh and other work—geometric, reflecting the craftsman's fancy.

Amongst Orientals jewellery has long been a medium for the investment of savings, money earned by the family being melted down into heavy bracelets, anklets, earrings, necklaces, and other ornaments, and in that form worn by the womenfolk. The art of the worker in precious metals is carried on by traditional methods handed down from father to son through generations. The stones noticeably plentiful in native jewellers' shops in Egypt are the turquoise, brought from Persia and the Zabargad, a pale green stone; but all kinds of gems are, of course, to be found.

Metal work, such as hammered, engraved, or inlaid brass work is carried on to a considerable extent, especially in Cairo. Large sheets of various metals are imported from Birmingham, and many of the articles—ash-trays, bowls, flower-pots, vases, lamps, coffee-pots, &c.—are shaped in one piece by hammering. They are covered by a profusion of designs, either of Arabesque or hieroglyphic character, or representative of the Sphinx or the Pyramids. Sometimes a story—as for example, that of Joseph—will be chosen for illustration, the workman, usually an illiterate man, expressing his idea of the story as heard by him. Inlaid brass work is a speciality of the Cairo workmen, the metals inlaid being silver, bronze, and, more rarely, gold.

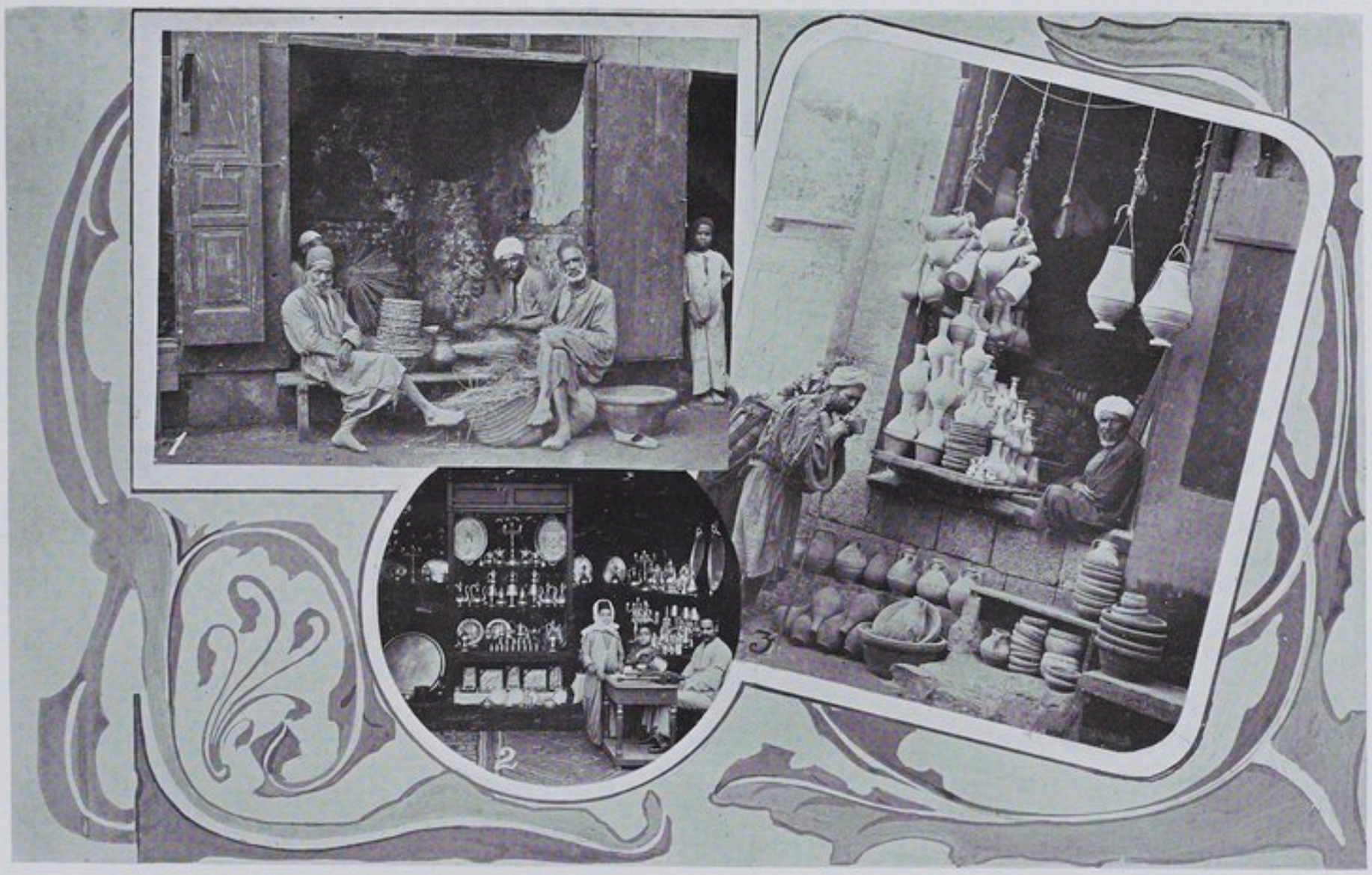
Among the natives wooden boxes covered with hammered tin are in common use as receptacles for all sorts of stores. They are often gaudily coloured with some imported preparation.

Bent and wrought ironwork is also common, and in every village may be found the blacksmith, his forge a hole in the ground, his blast derived from crude goatskin bellows, and his anvil and sledge of European pattern or origin. Every village also has its tinsmith, who makes drinking vessels, lamps, and cooking utensils. He uses no solder, but makes all joints tight by means of overlapping.

The usual articles are made, and much the same tools are employed, by the Egyptian carpenter as by his fellow craftsmen in other countries. Peculiar to him is a plane which is pulled towards the user (though the other type is also used); while his saw—a frame with the saw set at an angle—is not often seen in England, though it is common enough on the Continent. In some towns the making of agricultural carts and of sakkiehs, the most popular form of water-raising contrivances, is an industry of some importance.

Much of the leather used in Egypt nowadays is imported. There is little tanning done, it being more profitable to send the skins abroad to be prepared. The local tanner first puts the hides into lime to remove the hair; then into arwad, a preparation obtained from the leaves of the sant (beech) tree; and finally into radda, a decoction of wheat bran. The saddler is to be found in most of the larger villages, the oldest and most important branch of his industry being the making of richly decorated saddles and harness for donkeys; minor work being the making of embroidered belts, pouches, and purses. Shoemaking is everywhere carried on, most typical of the country being the manufacture of embroidered slippers, some of which have the insides of the soles richly inlaid.

No good clay for ordinary earthenware or bricks is to be found in Egypt. There is, however, a large pottery industry centred in Keneh, where exists a plot of something less than two feddans of a peculiar light clay. Vessels made from this clay are porous, and allow water to percolate through their sides, and, thanks to this property they are ideal cooling vessels. The chief products of the potteries are the ollah, a small drinking jar; the zier, a larger vessel, used as a filter or for storing water; and the ballasi, used in carrying water from the river to the house. Boats laden with thousands of these vessels are to be seen on the upper waters of the Nile. Assiout is noted for a curious kind of pottery made of red and black clay.



1. BASKET MAKERS.

2. A BRASS-WARE STALL AT THE AGRICULTURAL SHOW, CAIRO.

3. A POTTER'S STALL.



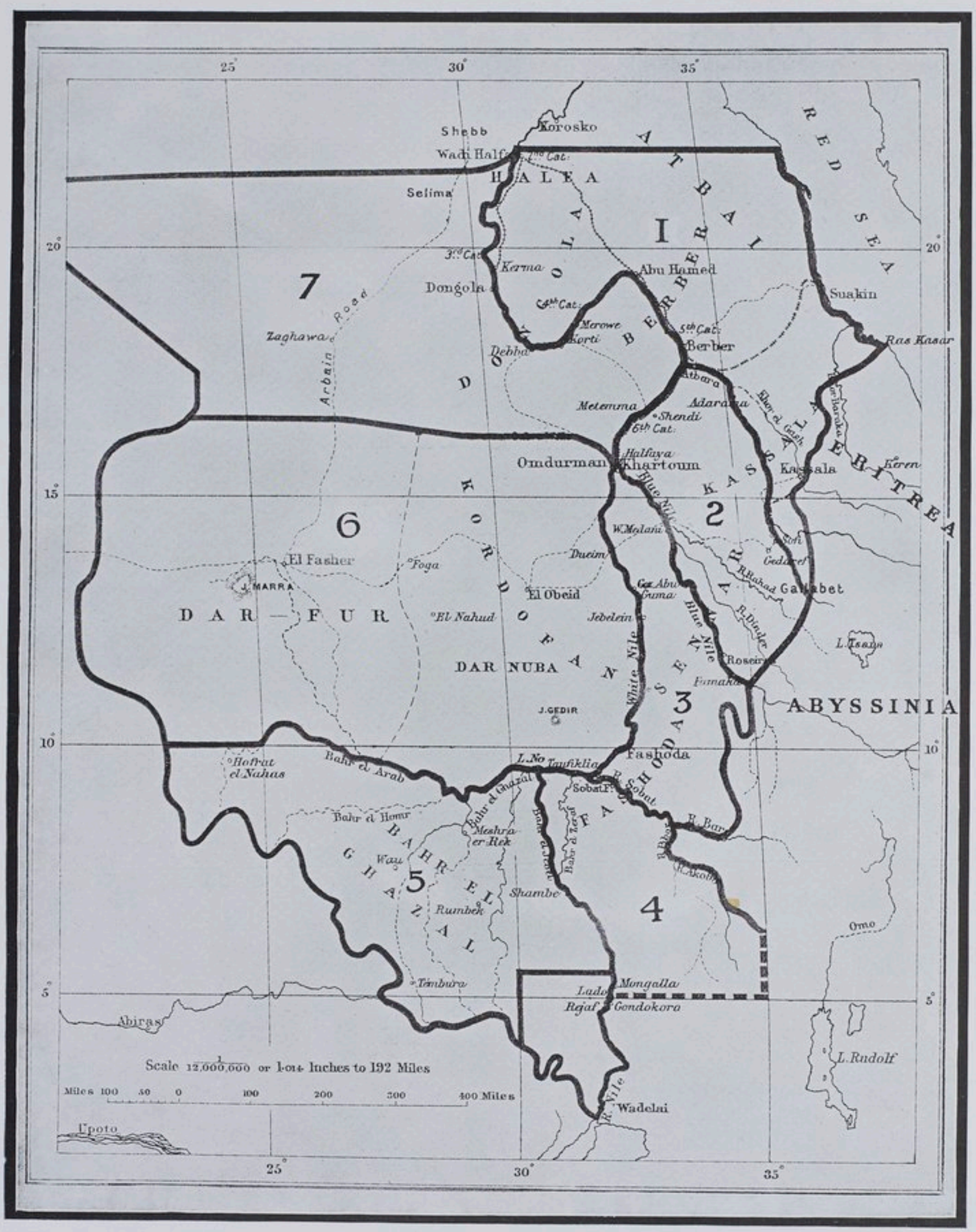
FIELD-MARSHAL VISCOUNT WOLSELEY. GENERAL CHARLES GORDON. GENERAL LORD KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM. LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR F. R. WINGATE, THE SIRDAR.

THE SOUDAN.

FROM a remote age Egypt and the Soudan have been joined in the bonds of an uneasy union. The tie has varied in strength with the changing conditions and interests of Egyptian government, but it has seldom been entirely absent in some form or another. The reason for this is not far to seek. Nature has marked the two territories out for association by endowing them in the case of the Nile with a common heritage. The basin of the river has a geographical unity which may be obscured by dynastic or political changes, but which can never be obliterated. Commerce flows unerringly with the stream from the regions of Central Africa. The life-giving waters which give fertility to the arid wastes of the Soudan are not less potent in making productive the rich alluvial deposit of the Delta. In old times the connection between the upper and lower lands was kept alive by an endless human chain, but slavery has vanished like a bad dream and the caravans no longer pass down the Valley of the Nile with their wretched freights. Instead, we have the bustling modern trader intent on exploiting the inhabitants of the Soudan as he does those of Egypt proper. Thus the interests of the two sections of territory are interwoven, and there can be no doubt that as years pass by the connection will become more intimate.

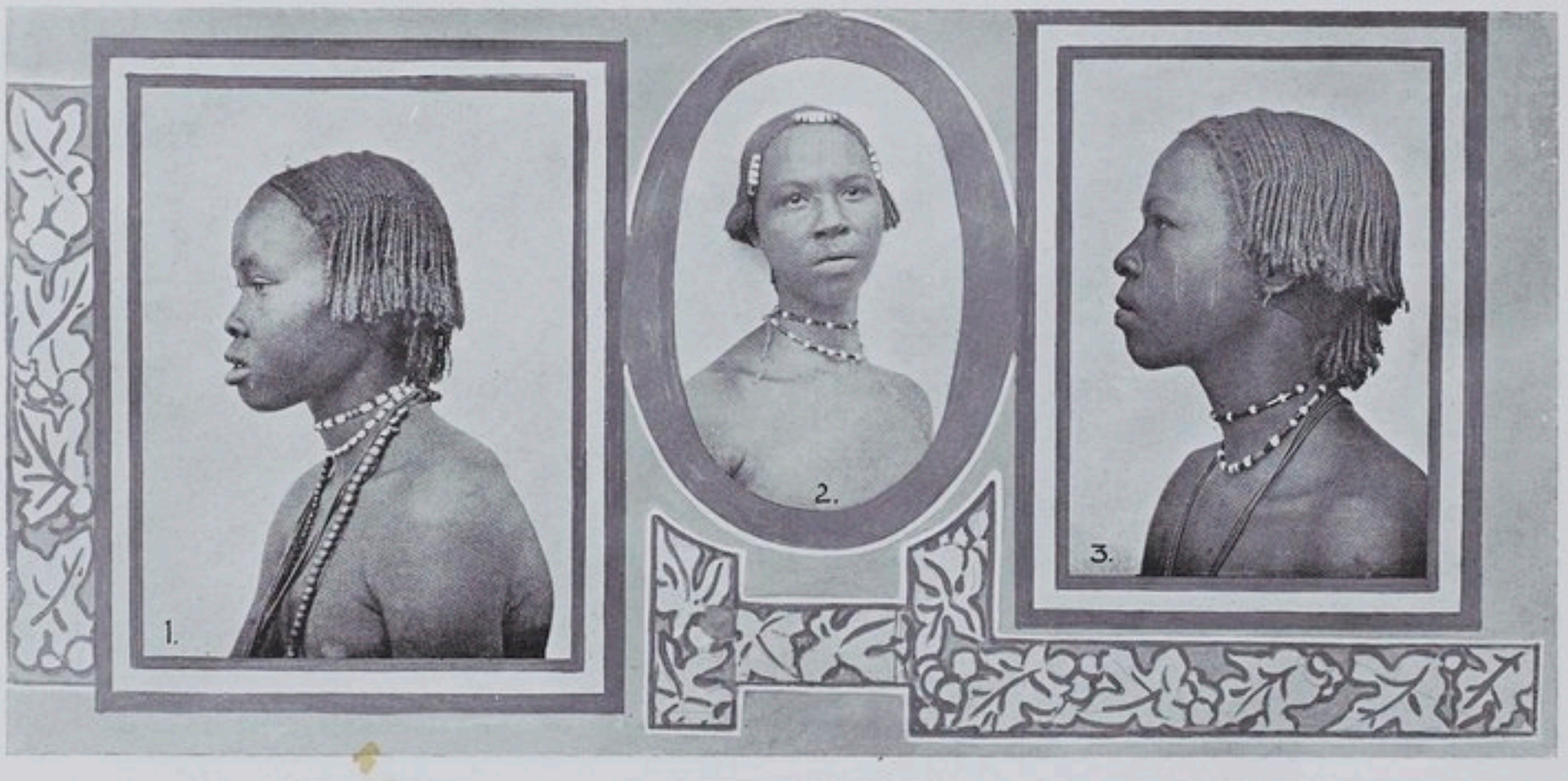
ANCIENT HISTORY.

Broadly speaking, the territory now included in the Egyptian Soudan is the region which figures in ancient Egyptian and Hebraic records as the land of Kesh, or Kush, and which in later periods was denominated Ethiopia. Its area then, as now, embraced practically the entire upper basin of the Nile —a vast area 1,000 miles long by 800 or 900 broad, having within its limits great tracts of desert interspersed with oases, expanses of fertile country, and far-spreading swamps. Its inhabitants in earliest times were a race with many affinities to the Egyptians, but darker in complexion, aud coarser in feature. Amongst one class of Egyptologists they are believed to have had in them a strong Semitic strain, if they did not actually originate in a colonisation of Semitic tribes proceeding from Arabia. Actual records of the Soudan are scanty until we reach a comparatively late period in ancient Egyptian history. One of the first references to the area is to be found in an inscription of the time of Snefru (IIIrd or IVth dynasty, B.C. 4000), which records that that monarch conquered the land of the Negroes, and took captive 7,200 men and women, and 200,000 cattle. When we get to the VIth dynasty (B.C. 3200) we find Soudanese levies being raised to fight in Eastern Egypt and Sinai. There are also direct allusions to trading expeditions, which brought back ivory, ebony, and other Soudanese productions. By the time of the Xth dynasty (B.C. 2530) Egyptian armies had advanced into the Eastern Soudan. Somewhat later we hear of regular communication between Egypt and a country which is designated Punt. Opinions differ widely as to the locality of this region, but the general assumption of Egyptologists is that it was a remote district of the Soudan. From the time of the XIth dynasty onwards the Soudan figures prominently in the annals of Ancient Egypt. The record is largely one of wars prosecuted by the civilised Egyptians against their troublesome barbarian neighbours. Now we read of Usertsen I. sending an armed force into Ethiopia, and of his having enlarged the borders of Egypt between the First and Third Cataracts; next, there is the story of an abortive attack made by Nubians on the quarries at Assouan in the reign of Usertsen II.; and, again, an account of a great expedition undertaken by Usertsen III., in which the "abominable Kash" were conquered, the military operations being followed by the adoption of measures including the building of forts at Semna and Kermua, 40 miles south of Halfa, to settle the country. Occasionally the somewhat monotonous account of battles and slaughter is varied by statements which show that the material interests of the land were not neglected, as, for example, in the announcement still to be deciphered by the learned on some rocks near Semna that Amenemhê't III. (B.C. 2300) fashioned a gauge at that point to mark the height of the Nile flood. But "the stream of tendency" in Soudan history soon asserts itself once more, and, again, the narrative is largely made up of accounts of wars conducted on both sides with ruthless severity. In one of the struggles Thothmes I. led an army into Nubia, and is represented in the inscriptions to have killed all the males with the exception of "one of the damned sons of the chief of Kesh," whom he used as a footstool. At the period of the reign of Amenhetep II., son of Thothmes III. (B.C. 1590), the Egyptian frontier had been advanced to the Fourth Cataract and possibly to the Atbara. Soon afterwards there is forthcoming evidence of the establishment of the famous priestly colony at Napata, close to Jebel Barkal (the present Merowe), at the foot of the Fourth Cataract. Napata became in course of time a great centre of Egyptian civilisation in the wild regions of the south, and its influence was felt over a wide extent of country. Attracted by its fame the descendants of Herhor of Thebes, in the time of the XXIInd dynasty (B.C. 966), migrated to the city and established their home there. In process of time they took upon themselves, in addition to their priestly office, kingly rank, and, while serving the temple of Amen-Ra, which had been erected at Napata by Amenhetep III., ruled the country with despotic thoroughness. Under their strong sway the land prospered and Napata became a famous city, with great temples and monuments, and a necropolis whose pyramids recalled in some measure the glories of Memphis. "The kingdom whereof it was the capital," says the official writer in that valuable and erudite compilation "The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan," "reached southward as far as the modern Khartoum and south-eastwards stretched up to the Abyssinian highlands, including the valleys of the Atbara and its tributaries with most of the tract between the Atbara and the Blue Nile. This was a region of reputed great natural wealth, containing many mines of gold, iron, copper, and salt, abundant woods of date palm, almond trees, and ilex, some excellent pasture ground, and much rich meadow land



MAP OF THE SOUDAN, SHOWING SUB-DIVISIONS.

suitable for the growth of durra and other sorts of grain. Fish of many kinds and excellent turtle abounded in the Atbara and the other streams, while the geographical position was favourable for commerce with the tribes of the interior, who were able to furnish an almost inexhaustible supply of ivory, skins, and ostrich feathers." The fame of the Napata kingdom was extended as the centuries rolled on, until about B.C. 734 Piankhi, King of Napata, taking advantage of the weakened position of the XXIIIrd dynasty, descended upon Egypt in force, assaulted and occupied Memphis, and established his sway over the whole of Egypt with the exception of a small portion of the Delta. The Ethiopian domination of Egypt was challenged by the Assyrians, and for many years a fierce contest raged with varying results, until a Prince of Napata, Mi-Ammon-Nut, succeeded in partly expelling the invaders. He died soon afterwards, however, and the work of dealing the final blow to Assyrian pretensions was left to Psammetichus I. of the XXVIth dynasty. Meanwhile it would appear that, after the death of Piankhi, the line of Napata kings was continued, though little is known of the individual occupants of the throne. Ichabod had, however, by this time been written over the gates of the city of Napata. Between the years B.C. 625 and 560 the capital was transferred to Merowe, and this henceforward became the principal city in the southern kingdom. The chief event in the history of this later dynasty established at Merowe is the abortive expedition launched against it by Cambyses, first king of the XXVIIth dynasty. According to Herodotus, the king got together a great army for this enterprise. On arrival of the force at Thebes, he detached fifty thousand men to operate against Siwa or more probably Khargeh Oasis, but these troops were all overwhelmed in a sandstorm, and none of them ever returned. The remainder of the army marching southwards into the desert endured incredible hardships, and ultimately all perished of hunger, thirst, or disease. From this time onwards, for several hundred years, little that is authentic is known of the affairs of Upper Egypt. Ptolemy is said to have added the country between Assouan and Napata to his dominions and divided it into thirteen districts, but how far the conquest was effective cannot be determined. Even if the Ptolemaic sway did extend so far south as Napata it does not appear to have prevented the rise of a dynasty of queens or queen mothers bearing the title of Candace. One of these feminine rulers during the period of the Roman domination attacked Assouan and put the legionaries there to the sword. Her rashness in attacking a Roman outpost drew down upon her swift vengeance. She was pursued by the Prefect Petronius as far as Napata, and her power was thoroughly broken. Roman garrisons were left at various points, the remotest as far south as near Dongola. But it does not appear that the occupation was more than a temporary measure, for when Strabo visited Egypt A.D. 200 we find that Assouan was again the frontier, the Romans having, as he observes, "confined the province of Egypt within its former limits." Strabo classified the Ethiopians above Assouan as Troglodytæ, Blemmyes, Nubæ, and Megabari. The Megabari and Blemmye inhabited the eastern desert west of Merowe towards the frontiers of Egypt, and were under the dominion of the Ethiopians. The Ichthyophagi lived on the shore of the Red Sea, the Troglodytæ from Berenice southwards between it and the Nile; and the Nubæ, and "African" nation, were on the left bank and independent of Ethiopia, which country he says did not extend north of Halfa. Prescopius states that in A.D. 268, in the reign of Diocletian, the Nubæ or Nobatæ were brought from the Oasis of El Khargeh and given the country above Assouan, conditional on their protecting Egypt from incursions of the Blemmye. The compact was ratified by an annual sacrifice, according to ancient Egyptian rites, on the Island of Philæ, in which the Roman garrison took part. The remains of the wall built by Diocletian across the valley near this point are still visible. Notwithstanding the efforts made to repel them, the Blemmyes forced their way northwards until in the later period of Roman power they succeeded in occupying the five towns of the Commilitium Romanum, making Talmis or Kalabsha their capital, and they even penetrated into the Thebaid, where Maximinus, the general of Marcian, was forced to make a treaty with them. Christianity, which had been introduced into Abyssinia about A.D. 330, in the fifth and sixth centuries became the religion of the Nubians. The faith was introduced by missioners from the Alexandrian Church, and once it got a thorough foothold it spread rapidly until it extended over the whole of Ethiopia and Nubia. Some remains of an early Christian church are still to be seen at Nagaa, and at Aleva or Soba on the Blue Nile traces of an ancient practise of the tenets of Christianity dating to as far back as the third century have been discovered. Probably as the exploration of the Soudan proceeds on modern scientific lines more light will be thrown on this profoundly interesting subject.



1. DARFUR GIRL. 2. SOUDANESE MAIDEN. 3. DINKA GIRL.

THE ADVENT OF THE ARABS.

With the advent of the Arabs a new direction was given to the course of Soudanese history. When Egypt had been conquered, Abdalla bin Said was sent by Amr, at the command of Omar, with twenty thousand men to conquer Nubia. The intruders met with such a fierce resistance from the tribesmen that it was deemed expedient to abandon the enterprise and withdraw beyond the frontier. Afterwards the Nubians, turning the tables, conducted a series of raids into Egyptian territory. The Arabs, enraged at these

provocations, renewed their efforts to conquer the Soudan, and Abdalla, having advanced as far as (old) Dongola, extracted a treaty from the native ruler—King Kalidurat—under the provisions of which the Mahomedans were permitted to build a mosque at Dongola. Meanwhile, the Mahomedan influence was being extended in other parts of the Soudan by Arabs of the tribe of Beni Ommia, most of whom had crossed the Red Sea in small numbers and settled in the districts about Sennaar on the Blue Nile. Gradually the power of these migratory bands was extended until they became masters of the entire country about Sennaar and imposed upon its inhabitants their customs and religion. The pressure of the Mahomedan irruption became so great that the Christian rulers of Nubia began to be apprehensive of the results, and in A.D. 831 King Zacharias of Nubia sent his son George to Bagdad to see whether the evil could not be averted by peaceful negotiation. The envoy met with a friendly reception from the Caliph Mutassim, and he returned loaded with presents and assurances of goodwill. For a considerable period after this the Nubian rulers maintained their independence, successfully resisting all efforts made to subdue them. An interesting picture of the country, as it was at about the tenth century of the Christian era, is furnished by the record of an ambassador sent by the Caliph Moaz to the then King of Nubia. The envoy described the province which extended from six miles south of Assouan to Halfa as well watered, carefully cultivated, and abounding in vineyards. Between the Second and Third Cataract was a terrible desert, and beyond this lay the kingdom of Makorra, with its capital at Dongola, and south of this, again, the kingdom of Alwa. Both kingdoms he described as being amazingly fertile and possessing even finer crops and herds than Egypt. The capital of Alwa Sina (Soba) was situated at the confluence of the Blue and White Niles. It was adorned, according to the ambassador, with "magnificent buildings, great houses, churches enriched with gold, and gardens." He noted that the Christians belonged to the Jacobite Church of Egypt, and further mentioned that their books, originally written in Greek, had been translated into their own language. The prosperity of the Nubians, of which this envoy furnishes such a lively description, continued unbroken until towards the end of the twelfth century, when a brother of Saladin invaded the country and forcibly converted many of the inhabitants to Mahomedanism. His conquest appears only to have been a partial one, for we read that in 1271 the then King of Nubia led an attack on Assouan which, proving unsuccessful, gave rise to reprisals culminating in the overrunning of the country as far as Dongola by Mahomedans. Still the Nubian Christian authority was not subverted, and for a good many years longer it had sufficient virility to give the Mahomedan rulers of Egypt a great deal of trouble. At length the Nubian kings fell out amongst themselves, and so hastened the now inevitable downfall of Christianity in this region. Slowly the ancient native rule receded from sight, and out of the welter of anarchical strife emerged several well defined Mahomedan governments. The most important of these was the kingdom of Sennaar, which from the end of the fifteenth century to the beginning of the nineteenth was a great power in Central Africa. The military operations which marked the establishment of Mahomedan rule were accompanied by a fierce religious propaganda which left no room for the existence of any other faith but that of the Prophet, and so the interesting form of Christianity which was once universal in this vast region was crushed out of existence. It would be idle to trace the career of the various potentates who in turn reigned over Sennaar. They were for the most part half civilised despots who ruled with a rod of iron, and conducted an extensive slave trade for the benefit of patrons in Egypt and Arabia. Dr. Poncet, a French physician, who visited Sennaar on his way to Abyssinia in 1699, found the kingdom a powerful one and describes it as then being in a flourishing condition. Some twenty years after this the King of Abyssinia marched at the head of a large army to conquer Sennaar, but he was disastrously defeated on the Dinder River. The victory brought great fame to the King of Sennaar, and learned men flocked to his country from Arabia, Egypt, and India. But within a few years the country, owing to fierce internecine war—struggles between the two most powerful tribes for ascendency—lapsed into an anarchical condition, in which it remained more or less until Mehemet Ali's thoughts turned to the conquest of the Soudan in the early part of the nineteenth century.



1. WOMAN OF DAR FERTIT. 2. A SOUDANESE WOMAN. 3. OLD WOMAN OF DARFUR.

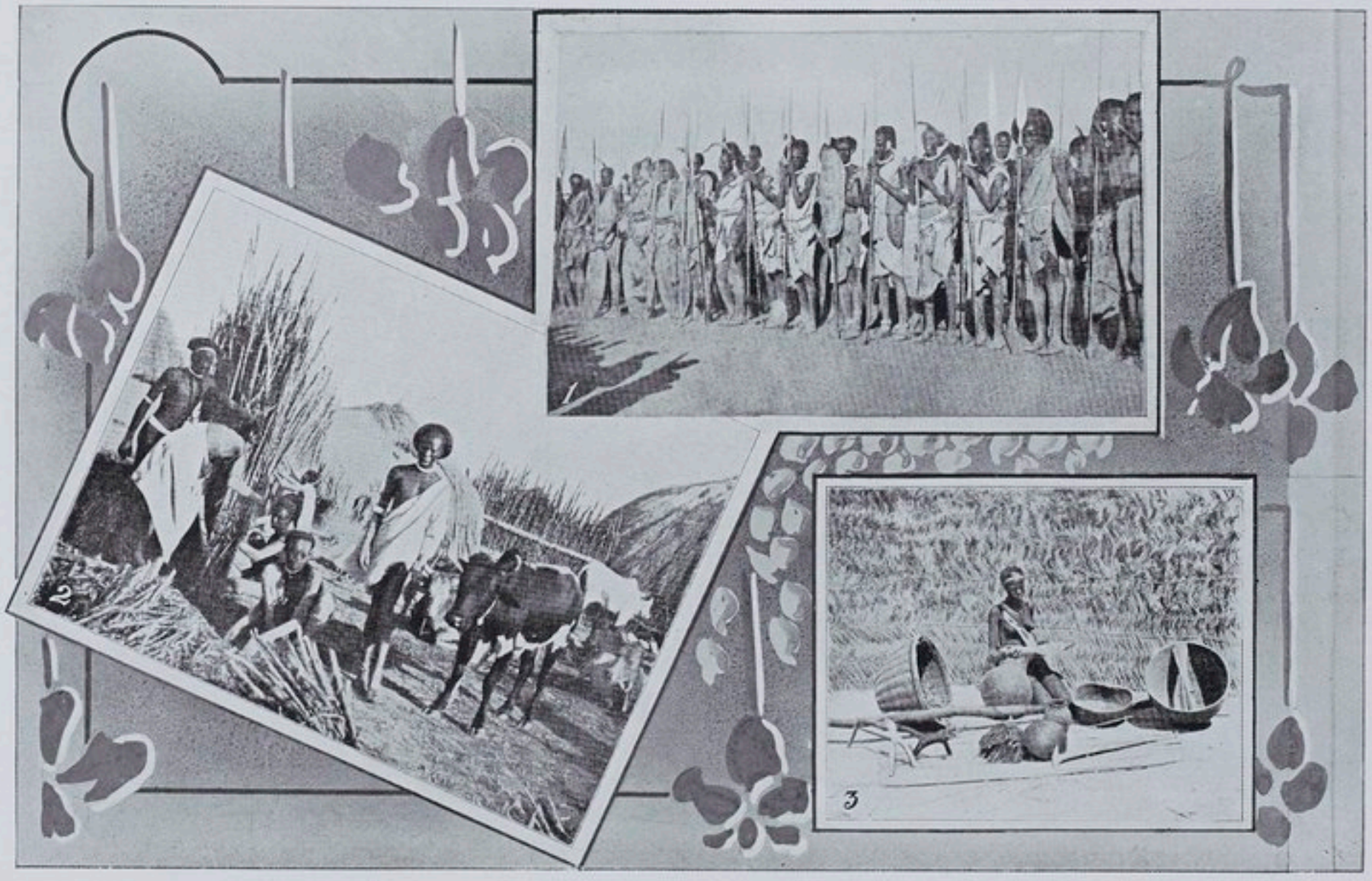
MEHEMET ALI'S CONQUEST.

Mehemet Ali's designs against the Soudan, which had been entertained from a very early period of his rule in Egypt, were entrusted for execution to his son Ismael, who was thought to be well-equipped for such an undertaking by his personal gifts. Ismael, having under his command a numerous army, crossed into the Soudan in 1819, and marched to Khartoum without encountering any resistance. From Khartoum he proceeded to Sennaar, where he was joined by his brother Ibrahim. The two in company went to Fazogli, and thence Ibrahim returned to Egypt. His departure led to the circulation of a report that he had been killed, and the Arab tribes, taking advantage of the unrest caused by the false news, rose in rebellion. Ismael took the field against them and defeated them. Having re-settled the country he returned to Shendy on the Nile to meet his death at the hands of the Tiger of Shendy, in the highly dramatic circumstances recorded in the section of this volume relating to the history of Egypt. When the news of Ismael's death reached Kordofan, the Defterdar, Ahmed Bey, who had distinguished himself by his conquest of the province, put himself at the head of a large force, and marching to Shendy wreaked a terrible vengeance on the inhabitants. Most of the inhabitants of the place were massacred, but the Tiger himself escaped. In 1822 Ahmed Bey returned to Egypt, and Osman Bey was sent to take his place with the title of Governor of the Soudan. In 1826 Maho Bey was named Governor, but his term of office was of brief duration. His successor was Khurshid Bey, an official who enjoyed a great reputation for rectitude and honesty. Under his supervision Egyptian rule in the Soudan was consolidated and extended. In 1834 he conducted some successful operations against the Abyssinians, who were threatening the Soudan. The Abyssinian army was defeated and its leader, Adlan, was captured and impaled. In 1836 the Abyssinians attempted to retrieve their ill-fortune, but after attacking the Gallabat provinces retreated into the mountains. Mehemet Ali paid a visit to the Soudan in 1838 to see for himself his new

dominions, and to seek to extend his influence in districts into which hitherto his armies had not penetrated. The outcome of his tour was the despatch of three large expeditions in 1840 and following years to the regions bordering the White and Blue branches of the Nile. Military stations were established at various points on both rivers and many slaves were brought back to swell the ranks of Mehemet's army. In this way a fatal impetus was given to the traffic in human flesh, which was afterwards to give such a sinister interest to these vast and remote areas of Central Africa. The provinces annexed as a result of these expeditions were Kordofan, Sennaar, and Taka (Kassala).

In 1853, when the most southern Egyptian post was only about 120 miles south of the abolition of slavery, and at Khartoum he organised a new government for the five provinces then comprised in the Soudan, viz.: Kordofan, Sennaar, Taka, Berber, and Dongola. He further directed that the excessive taxes on lands and waterwheels should be discontinued, and gave instructions for the organisation of fast postal service on camels across the desert. Another of Said Pasha's actions was the ordering of Mougel Bey to report on the establishment of railway communication between Egypt and the Soudan. Nothing came of the project at the time, but it is to Said Pasha's credit that he should have recognised the vital importance of railway construction as a means of promoting good government in the Soudanese territory.

of the Soudan under the then Governor, Musa Pasha. The picture he drew of a country mercilessly oppressed by a military despotism, desolated by rapacious slave traders, and condemned by Nature to an apparently unchangeable isolation, produced a great impression in Europe, and gave a powerful stimulus to the movement for the suppression of the slave trade in Central Africa, which before this had been set on foot. Ismael Pasha signalised his rule by a determined effort to suppress the detestable traffic. For this purpose he, on April 1, 1869, issued a firman to Sir Samuel Baker giving him absolute and supreme power over all the country south of Gondokoro. Baker, on taking up his duties at Khartoum, in December, 1869, met with a violent opposition



1. SHILLUK WARRIORS.

2. SHILLUK VILLAGE SCENE.

3. SHILLUK MAIDEN WITH HOUSEHOLD UTENSILS.

Khartoum, Mr. Petherick, the British Consul for the Soudan, made a successful trading voyage to the Upper Nile. His tour attracted a good deal of attention, and its success led other traders to follow his example.' Unfortunately these merchants in course of time abandoned legitimate commerce and took to slave raiding with such good pecuniary results that a regular organisation for the furtherance of this detestable traffic was set up. In the circumstances it is not surprising that the legitimate interests of the country languished and that misery and ruin were widespread.

Said Pasha, following his great predecessor's example, in 1857 paid a visit to the Soudan to see for himself the condition of affairs. His tour was marked and followed by some striking changes. At Berber he proclaimed

BRITISH EXPLORATION.

New interest was attracted to the Soudan by the momentous discoveries made in 1860-62 by Speke and Grant in the regions of the great lakes. The investigations carried out by these intrepid explorers solved the question of the sources of the Nile—a problem which had occupied the attention of geographers for ages. In the hope of meeting the travellers, Sir Samuel Baker in 1861 started from Cairo on an expedition up the Nile. He achieved his object, and conducted a series of independent investigations of the greatest scientific interest, culminating in 1864 in the discovery of the Albert Nyanza Lake. An indirect result of his expedition was a scathing exposure of the maladministration from the officials, who were all more or less interested in the trade. He speedily discovered that the districts he was authorised to annex had actually been leased by the governor to a notorious slave trader, named Ahmed Sheikh Aga, and that the entire Nile basin was honeycombed by the organisation of this and other chartered ruffians. Determined to carry through the enterprise to which he had set his hands, Baker left Khartoum in February, 1870, and after encountering many hardships, and overcoming numerous difficulties chiefly associated with the negotiation of the sudd, he arrived at Gondokoro, and on May 26, 1871, formally annexed the station, giving it the name of "Ismailia," in honour of his patron, the Khedive. Early in the ensuing year he

quitted Gondokoro, and travelling south reached Masindi, at which place, on May 14, 1872, he issued a proclamation declaring Unyoro an Egyptian province. Military posts were established at Masindi, Foweira, Fatiko, and other places, and friendly relations were entered into with King Mtesa, of Uganda. Meanwhile, he maintained a vigorous campaign against the slave traders, and greatly circumscribed the maleficent activities of the unholy fraternity. But the interests in the traffic which centred at Khartoum were far too strong to allow of anything like a complete suppression of the evil. Returning to Cairo in 1873, Baker had a series of conferences with the Government which led to the establishment of the Government of the Soudan on a new footing. The whole region was divided into provinces which were placed under governors who were to a large extent independent of the Governor of Khartoum. Before this, in 1871, the question of railway communication with the Soudan had been once more taken up with some prospect of practical results. Mr. Fowler, the well known railway expert, had been empowered to make surveys for a line, and had in due course prepared an elaborate project for the construction of a railway from Wadi Halfa *viâ* Shendy to Khartoum, with a place for the passage of the First Cataract. It was a highly promising scheme calculated to be of immense benefit to the Soudan. But circumstances militated against its execution. The Soudan had yet to wait a good many years before it was to receive the blessings of railway communication.

GORDON'S GOVERNORSHIP.

Sir Samuel Baker's mantle as a regenerator of the Soudan fell upon the capable shoulders of Gordon, whose name was afterwards to be written in letters of blood and gold upon the history of the Soudan. Gordon left Cairo for the scene of his future operations on February 21, 1874. He was commissioned to carry forward Baker's work of suppressing the slave trade and establishing good government in the Upper Nile region. It was arranged that the territory over which the Governor-General of the Soudan ruled should not extend further south than Kodok, and that Gordon should have supreme control over the Equatorial Provinces, with his headquarters at Gondokoro. Gordon, on reaching Gondokoro in the middle of April, 1874, set himself with characteristic vigour and earnestness to the task of establishing his authority. He occupied Bor, an important position north of Gondokoro, despatched his assistant, Colonel Long, on a mission to King Mtesa of Uganda, and, having broken up three large slaving stations on the Bahr el Zeraf, created a strong post at the Sobat junction with the object of arresting all illegal traffic passing down the river. These energetic measures inspired confidence in the native mind, and on September 11, 1874, Gordon had the satisfaction of receiving twenty-five chiefs of tribes in the vicinity of Gondokoro, who waited upon him to tender their homage —a remarkable tribute, having regard to the extremely strained relations which had hitherto existed between these leaders and the garrisons. Towards the close of the year Gondokoro was abandoned as the headquarters of the administration in favour of Lado, which is a more healthy spot. The report which Gordon submitted on his operations at this time enumerated the following as the posts which he had established:—Sobat, Nasser (on the Sobat), Ghabatshambe, Makaraka, Bor, Latuka, Lado, Rejaf, Dufile, Fatiko, and Foweira. The nine months' work were summed up by the Egyptian General Staff as consisting of the mapping of the course of the White Nile, from Khartoum to Rejaf, by Lieutenants C. M. Watson and Chippendall, R.E.; the striking of a deadly blow at the slave trade on the White Nile; the restoration of peace and confidence amongst the tribes about Gondokoro; the commencement of the work of opening a water communication between Gondokoro and the lakes; the establishment of relations with Mtesa; and the forming of government districts and secure posts.

It is necessary to turn for a brief space from Gordon's interesting operations in the Equatorial Provinces to other regions of the Soudan in which important changes were



ZOBEIR PASHA.

proceeding at this juncture. First, attention must be directed to Darfur, an extensive region lying to the north-west, and now one of the most valuable provinces of the Soudan. This territory had up to the time with which we are dealing been ruled for four centuries by an unbroken succession of sultans, and its inhabitants, amongst whom was a considerable number of Bedouins, jealously guarded their independence. In 1869 the Khedive sent a small expedition into the region with a view to establishing his authority amongst the slave traders who had declined to pay their rentals to the Government. The little force was badly cut up by a body of slave dealers, acting under the leadership of Zobeir, a prominent chief who wielded great authority in this region. The Sultan of Darfur subsequently gave great offence to the slave dealers by placing an embargo upon corn along his southern frontier, and Zobeir concerted measures for the invasion of the province. The Egyptian Government fearing that Zobeir's already extensive power might be dangerously augmented if he was permitted to embark upon this adventure, decided to undertake the task itself; Zobeir, however, was assigned a part in the campaign. Complete success attended the operations: the Sultan of Darfur and his two sons were killed, and Egyptian authority was firmly established. As a reward to Zobeir for his services the Khedive made him a Pasha; but this did not satisfy the slave leader, he coveted the appointment of Governor-General of the new province, and allowed it to be understood that he would be content with nothing short of it. There seemed at one period a probability that he would go into open revolt, but in the end he elected to proceed to Cairo to press his claims. His journey to the capital resulted in his being detained there in a sort of honourable captivity. Meanwhile, his son Suleiman looked after his interests in the newly annexed province.

Almost simultaneously with the occupation of Darfur the Egyptian Government was engaged in carrying out a forward policy at the other extreme of the Soudan—on the Abyssinian border. In the summer of 1874 the Cairo authorities, taking advantage of the fact that the King of Abyssinia was engaged in a war with the Gallas, employed a certain Swiss resident at Massowa, named Munzinger, to occupy Keren, the capital of Bogos, to which region a prior claim had been put forward on the ground that it had been conquered by Mehemet Ali. The Egyptian Government at about the same time acquired, by the treachery of the local Abyssinian Governor, the territory of Ailet, a region lying between Hamasen and Massowa. The King appealed to Europe against these encroachments but without result. The Egyptians then proceeded to acquire from the Sultan his rights in the port of Zeila and the coast line from near Tajura to a point on the Indian Ocean including Berbera. After the transfer took place in the autumn of 1875 an Egyptian force was despatched to Massowa under Colonel Arendrup, a Danish officer in the Egyptian service. Arendrup having landed at Massowa proceeded to Ginda, which the King of Abyssinia had just before made the centre of a new province. He annexed this and then marched on Adua, the capital of Abyssinia. When the news of the Egyptian intrusion reached him King John collected a large force and, marching against the Egyptians, practically annihilated the detachment in a surprise attack. The disaster created much consternation in Cairo, and measures were immediately taken to avenge the defeat. A second and larger expedition, under the command of Prince Hassan, was eventually despatched to Massowa. It commenced its march into the interior in the middle of January, 1876, and somewhat later came into touch with the Abyssinian forces under King John. The resulting battle, fought on March 7, ended in the total defeat of the Egyptians, with a loss of nearly four thousand men and eight thousand rifles. The remnants of the expedition withdrew into a fort which had been constructed at Kaya Khor and were there besieged by the Abyssinians. After investing the fort for two days King John withdrew his army and a little time later entered into peace negotiations.

All this time Gordon was steadily prosecuting his work of civilisation in the equatorial provinces. He had not been long in the country before he realised that the possibility of making anything of it with the materials at his disposal was small. His pessimism is reflected in one of his letters from Lado, in which he wrote: "The only valuable parts of



A NEGRESS.

the country are the highlands near Mtesa, while all between this (Lado) and Khartoum is wretched marsh." Casting about for a means of making the equatorial provinces more accessible and commercially valuable, Gordon conceived the idea of establishing communication with the East Coast. In furtherance of this scheme he fitted out an expedition to the lakes, his design being to establish a station at Mombassa Bay. Simultaneously the Khedive despatched by sea an expedition to the mouth of the Juba River, with the purpose of establishing a base there. Gordon first set himself to transport a steamer to the lakes. This was a work of immense difficulty, owing to the hostility of the tribes and the indifferent character of the material with which he had to work. It was not until December that the steamer reached Labore. The opening of the year 1876 found Gordon still struggling with the obstacles in the way of his expedition. He now decided to send Gessi, an Italian member of his staff, to Lake Albert Nyanza with two lifeboats, while he himself proceeded towards Lake Victoria. Gessi started in March, and succeeded in circumnavigating the lake in nine days. He found the natives everywhere very hostile, and the West Coast inaccessible. Before Gessi was despatched on his mission Gordon had abandoned the idea of forming an expedition to meet that proposed from the Juba River. But he continued to prosecute his policy of extending Egyptian influence in the region of the great lakes. In July a steamer was put together above the Dufile Falls and sent to cruise in the Albert Lake. About the same period, Dr. Emin Effendi (Emin Pasha) was despatched to Uganda to conclude a treaty of friendship with Mtesa. Gordon eventually found his work so uncongenial, owing to the wretched character of the officials and soldiers with whom he had to work, that he decided to resign. Consequently, having handed the administration over to Colonel Prout, he left for England in October. His great and successful work in dealing with the slave trade had not escaped notice, and before he had been long at home a strong and insistent demand was made for his return to Central Africa to take up anew the fight against the iniquitous traffic. Yielding at length to the representations made to him, Gordon, in February, 1877, returned to Egypt, and received at the hands of the Khedive the appointment of Governor-General of the entire Soudan. Gordon's first work in his new capacity was a mission to Abyssinia to attempt to arrange the differences with that power. He was not able to accomplish much, because King John was greatly incensed at the raids of Walad Mikael, a former Governor of the Hamasen and hereditary ruler of Hamasen and Bogos, who had joined the Egyptians in their campaign against Abyssinia. The Abyssinian ruler deemed that the attacks were instigated by the Egyptians, and he declined to entertain the idea of an arrangement until they ceased. Gordon now proceeded to Khartoum, and commenced forthwith to inaugurate reforms in the system of administration. But he was soon called away to Darfur, where a somewhat formidable rising had taken place under the leadership of Harun, a relative of the late Sultan of Darfur.

On arriving at Darfur in June, Gordon found that besides the revolt of the legitimists, as they may be termed, serious trouble was being caused by the slave dealers with Suleiman at their head. Gordon, as soon as he could get away, went in pursuit of Suleiman and came up with him at Dara. He peremptorily ordered him to lay down his arms. Suleiman after some hesitation made a show of submission, and left for Shakka. Not satisfied with his attitude Gordon followed him there about the middle of September and ordered him to the Bahr el Ghazal while he dismissed the other chiefs to various places.

The direct effect of this vigorous action was the freeing of a very large number of slaves and the paralysing of the slave hunting organisation. But the forces of evil were far too powerful to be finally dealt with by a single operation, however well directed. Before twelve months had elapsed Suleiman had raised the standard of revolt, attracting to his side all the disaffected slave hunting element that was floating about this part of the Soudan. Gordon was engaged at this time in dealing with a new phase of the old Abyssinian troubles, and all he could do was to despatch an expedition under Gessi, to suppress the movement. Gessi, however, proved a very able Lieutenant and conducted a most brilliant campaign against the formidable forces arrayed against him. The operations were protracted until the middle of July, 1880. On the night of the 15th of that month Gessi surprised Suleiman's camp and took Suleiman himself and a number of other chiefs prisoners. Afterwards fearing that his prizes might slip through his hands, Gessi shot the eleven ringleaders, including Suleiman. Some days later another leader was caught and executed. The only rebel chief who escaped was Rabeh, who fled to the neighbourhood of Lake Chad, where he eventually established himself as a ruler. Thus the Soudan was rid of an influence which had long menaced its peace.

Gordon proceeded to Cairo in August, 1879, to confer with the authorities there on the situation in Abyssinia, which was full of menacing possibilities. At the time Walad Mikael had joined hands with the Abyssinian General Alua, and the two were plotting a joint attack on Bogos. Gordon suggested that in order to unravel the tangle into which affairs had got, he should undertake another mission to the Abyssinian Court. His offer was eagerly accepted, and Gordon set out at once to discharge his self-imposed task. Landing at Massowa on September 6, 1879, he found that Bogos was practically in the hands of the Abyssinians. Subsequently he learned that Walad Mikael was a prisoner in Abyssinia, and that his son had been killed. Gordon, on September 11, had an interview with Alua, but was referred by him to the king. On October 28 he saw the king at Debra Tabor, near Gondar. At the interview his Majesty stated his claims to be the retrocession of Gallabat, Beni Shangul, and Bogos, the cession of Zeila and Amfila, the despatch from Egypt of an abuna, or archbishop, from the Coptic Church, and the payment of an indemnity of from one to two million pounds. In the place of the payment the king offered to take Bogos and Massowa and the abuna. Gordon made a request that the demands should be submitted in writing. But the king was not at first prepared to do this. Eventually, however, he gave Gordon a letter, and the envoy started for Gallabat, intending to return to Khartoum. Before he had reached the end of the first stage of his journey, he was arrested and brought back through Abyssinia. At length he was permitted to quit the country, and after suffering many hardships reached Massowa on December 8. With the termination of his abortive Abyssinian mission Gordon's career as Governor-General of the Soudan practically closed. He did not again set foot in the province until he went there on his ever-memorable journey in 1884.

The position of affairs in the Soudan at this juncture was far from satisfactory. Owing to difficulties of administration, many outlying districts, including Unyoro, had been abandoned, and the Somerset Nile was now the boundary of the Khedive's territory. In the equatorial provinces, where Emin Pasha was in supreme control, good work was being done, and Gessi as Governor of the Bahr el Ghazal was most successful. But the general situation left much to be desired, and it became speedily worse when Gordon's strong directing hand was removed. In a comparatively short space of time the slave trade was almost as active as ever it was. With the connivance, if not the active assistance, of the officials, long slave caravans passed through the country to the Red Sea and to Lower Egypt, and the organisation in all its ramifications started into new and vigorous life. Disgusted at the intolerable conditions imposed by the new regimé which was directed by Rauf Bey as Gordon's successor, Gessi, in September, 1880, threw up his charge and quitted the Soudan. He was much broken in health at the time, owing to the privations he had undergone on his journey down the Nile from the Bahr el Ghazal, and died at Suez, April 30, 1881. His old post was filled by Lupton Bey, an Englishman, who had once been a sea captain. It was impossible that the break-up in the arrangements for governing the Soudan which had been introduced under the able and enlightened rule of Gordon should pass without notice, but in the presence of the increasingly grave crisis through which Egypt itself was passing at this period the province was left very much to settle its own affairs in its own way, which is tantamount to saying that the slave-traders and the corrupt officials ruled the roost between them without any effective check. A show of activity was made by the Khedive's Government in April, 1882, when currency was given to a paper scheme of organisation under which the Soudan was placed under the control of one Governor-General with four subordinate Governors. But the day had by this time passed when any measure devised in Cairo, however well intentioned it might be, could have any real influence on affairs in the Soudan. On the horizon a new force had appeared which was destined to sweep away every vestige of the Khedive's authority, and drench the Soudan in blood before it had finished its evil course.

THE RISE OF THE MAHDI.

The growth of Mahdism in the Soudan is a phenomenon which is perhaps not even yet fully understood in all its bearings. The movement was one of those religious upheavals which periodically occur in the world's history, and which, while they last, sweep with hurricane intensity over the region in which they exercise their influence. Superstition and a burning sense of oppression and wrong are usually the great motive forces which operate them. Some enthusiast appearing at the appropriate moment crystallises an idea floating in the popular mind, and by natural gifts and artifices imposes himself upon a credulous and ignorant population as the chosen instrument of the will of the Most High. History is full of instances of this kind, and doubtless there are many False Prophets yet to be born. The Soudan Mahdi was a certain Mohammed Ahmed, the son of a carpenter who lived at Dongola. Born in 1848, he received his education at a village near Khartoum. He distinguished himself quite early by his devotion to religion, and



A DERVISH.

soon gained an influence over those around him. In 1870 he became a Sheikh, and, after a short stay at Kaka near Kodok, took up his residence on the Island of Aba. Here he acquired a great reputation for sanctity, and his house soon became a recognised centre for the resort of dervishes or holy men. With a shrewd eye to worldly advantage he strengthened his position by marrying daughters of leading Sheikhs of the Baggara tribe. In this and other ways he created for himself a position of remarkable influence. His teachings were a compound of mysticism and worldly wisdom. While on the one hand he posed as the divinely accredited Prophet whose advent had long been foretold, on the other he preached the gospel of an undiluted Communism. All were to be equal; there was to be one law and one religion; and all goods were to be shared in common. For those who accepted his doctrines unbounded happiness here and hereafter was promised, but all who declined to accept his mission—whether they were Mahomedans, Christians, or Pagans—were to be destroyed.

The Mahdi first attracted the notice of the authorities in the early part of 1881, but no action was taken against him until August of that year, when during the Feast of the Ramadan the impostor having proclaimed his mission, Rauf Bey sent small parties of troops to deal with him. Eluding the military, the Mahdi retired into the interior, finally taking up his position at Jebel Gedir, about ninety miles west of Kaka on the White Nile. In December an attack was made on the Mahdi by Rashid Bey with a force of 350 regular troops. But the movement was repelled with considerable loss to the attacking party. This initial victory brought prestige to the Mahdi, and made it necessary for the Egyptian authorities to order a concentration of troops with a view to crushing him. After several minor affairs matters were brought to a crisis on June 7, 1882, when the Egyptian army, reinforced by several thousand irregulars, came up with the Mahdi in a densely wooded country. The Egyptians formed into a hollow square to repel the attack of the Mahdists, but the latter advancing with irresistible impetuosity broke through the formation and completely annihilated the force. This signal triumph enormously strengthened the Mahdist movement, which now assumed the character of a widespread revolt against the Khedive's authority. In September, after a series of unimportant engagements in which neither side gained much advantage, the Mahdi led his forces in person against El Obeid, which was strongly garrisoned by Egyptian troops. On three successive days desperate assaults were made upon the Egyptian position, but on each occasion the rebels were repulsed with great slaughter. Eventually the Mahdi was compelled to retire with the loss, it was reported, of 10,000 men killed. A relief column of 2,000 men despatched from Dueim to Bara was attacked and defeated by the Mahdi, who afterwards proceeded to blockade both Bara and El Obeid. The end of the year found matters little changed. No impression had been made on either place by the rebels, and the garrisons, which had been greatly strengthened from Khartoum, were reported to be well provisioned. But the position was an essentially weak one, and on January 17 the Egyptian Commander at El Obeid, Mohammed Pasha Said, found it necessary to capitulate. He was eventually put to death by his captors, who forthwith established themselves in the town, the Mahdi transferring his headquarters thither a few days after the capitulation.

HICKS PASHA'S EXPEDITION AND ITS SEQUEL.

By this time the Mahdist movement had attracted considerable attention in Europe, and it was becoming increasingly recognised that it was a very serious factor indeed to be reckoned with in the general settlement of Egyptian affairs rendered inevitable by the British occupation. In order to obtain an accurate view of the situation the British Government in December, 1882, despatched Colonel Stewart of the 11th Hussars to the Soudan with instructions to report. Colonel Stewart remained some weeks in Khartoum and conducted a thorough investigation into the administration as far as he was able to do so in the short time at his disposal. His report, dated February 9, 1883, painted a very gloomy picture of the aspect of affairs, and recommended a drastic reform of the government as the only means of restoring the country to peace. The conclusions he formulated were widely accepted as sound, but the British Government shrank from the responsibility of giving them effect in the only possible way by intervening. They, however, permitted the Khedive to obtain the services



1. DINKA. 2. DONGOLAWI MERCHANT. 3. A BERBERINE. 4. A SHILLUK.

of Colonel Hicks, an officer of the Indian army, to aid in the suppression of the revolt. Hicks was a soldier of considerable experience and resource, whose long service in India rendered him peculiarly suitable for the duty for which he was selected. But though he worked wonders in organising and equipping the force under his command, he could not overcome the enormous difficulties which were presented in a march through a practically waterless country against a mobile enemy inured to desert warfare and acting under the powerful stimulus of a relentless fanaticism. His force, consisting of 8,200 men, started from Dueim in September, the objective being El Obeid. The intention was to march by way of Khor Abu Habl, this route being recommended on the score of its presenting fewer difficulties of watering the troops. When the Mahdi heard of the approach of the expedition he sallied out to meet it with forty thousand men. But he was too wary to engage it in open battle. He preferred to overwhelm it by strategy, and unhappily his plans proved only too successful. The full details of the disaster which overtook the force have never been clearly told. But it would seem that after he had got some distance on his journey Hicks was induced to accept the services of some of the Mahdi's emissaries or sympathisers as guides, and by them inveigled into a forest region, where his troops, weakened by incredible privations and maddened by thirst, were set upon by the Mahdi's forces and slaughtered like sheep in the shambles. Of the original body of over eight thousand men which marched out only a mere handful —about three hundred—escaped death. As it was calculated to do, this crowning disaster created a profound sensation not only in Egypt, but in Great Britain. The Imperial Government after a period of indecision decided that the Soudan should be evacuated, and sent Gordon out from England to give effect to their plans. Gordon arrived in Cairo in January, 1884, and after discussing the situation with Lord Cromer and the members of the Ministry, he proceeded rapidly up the Nile to his destination. In the interval between the destruction of Hicks Pasha's force and the arrival of Gordon at Khartoum the flood of Mahdism had extended to the Eastern Soudan with serious results. The dervish leader there was Osman Digna, a former slave dealer of Suakin. He was a man of daring and resource and great local influence. He first raised the standard of rebellion in August, and was then defeated. But later he retrieved his reputation by a series of victories over the Egyptian forces which gave an immense impetus to the Mahdi's cause in the whole Eastern Soudan. Towards the end of the year General Valentine Baker was despatched with a force of Egyptian gendarmerie to endeavour to cope with the movement. Towards the end of January, having completed his plans, General Baker moved out from Suakin mainly with the object of rescuing the garrisons of Trinkitat and Tokar which were besieged by Osman Digna's force. He reached Trinkitat without serious opposition, but on marching towards Tokar on the morning of February 5 he encountered the enemy. The result was disastrous. It was thus reported by General Baker: "On the square being only threatened by a small force of the enemy, certainly less than 1,000 strong, the Egyptian troops threw down their arms and ran, carrying away the black troops with them and allowing themselves to be killed without the slightest resistance. More than 2,000 (out of 3,500) were killed. They fled to Trinkitat. Unfortunately the Europeans who stood suffered terribly. . . . The troops are utterly untrustworthy except for the defence of earthworks." The defeat of General Baker's force was not the only misfortune experienced at this time. The garrison at Sinkat, finding that no relief was possible, attempted to cut their way through to Suakin, and were practically annihilated. These repeated disasters in the Eastern Soudan led to a great outcry in England in favour of intervention, and eventually a force of some four thousand British troops under Major-General Sir Gerald Graham was despatched mainly with the design of relieving the garrison at Tokar. Before the troops could advance, however, news was received of the capitulation of the garrison. After consultation with the authorities on the spot the Home Government thought it desirable that a demonstration should be made against Osman Digna. Accordingly the troops marched out on the morning of February 29. The enemy was found entrenched at El Teb. An immediate attack was delivered, with the result that the dervishes were driven out with great loss. On the British side the casualties amounted to 189 of all ranks killed and wounded. Four days after the action General Graham marched to Tokar. He remained



STATUE OF GORDON IN TRAFALGAR SQUARE, LONDON.

there only a day, and on March 5, having returned to the coast, he re-embarked his force for Suakin. The question now arose of the desirability of an advance against Osman Digna's force in the neighbourhood. A proclamation summoning the rebel chiefs to yield having failed to produce any effect, the Home Government gave their sanction to this further operation. On March 14 the British force marched out to Tamai, a few miles from Suakin, and engaged there a large body of Mahdists estimated to number twelve thousand. The dervishes fought desperately, but they were no match for the disciplined valour of the British troops, and ultimately fled from the field, leaving two thousand of their number killed behind. The British casualties were heavy, amounting to thirteen officers and 208 men killed and wounded. Osman Digna's camp having been destroyed, the expeditionary force on March 15 returned to Suakin. Later there were further important military developments in this sphere, but a recital of them must be left until the history of the Gordon mission has been traced to its melancholy close, as these later occurrences were closely associated with the events which occurred at Khartoum.

GORDON'S MISSION TO KHARTOUM AND THE NILE EXPEDITION.

Gordon reached Khartoum on February 18. He met with what Mr. Power, the British Consul, described as a "wonderful demonstration of welcome" from the population. One of his first acts was to order all white troops to leave for Cairo. To convince the people of his determination to act justly he caused all the old records of debt to be burned and destroyed the instruments of torture at Government House. He also issued a proclamation sanctioning slavery. These measures, combined with his action in appointing a Council of Notables, comprised of twelve Arabs, to act with him, inspired confidence, and the outlook for the moment was distinctly hopeful. But Gordon had not been in Khartoum long before he realised that the situation was far too serious to be alleviated by reforms, however drastic. Recognising this, Gordon revived a proposal he had previously made for the despatch of Zobeir Pasha to Khartoum to govern the Soudan as a feudatory of the Egyptian Government. The British Government declined to sanction the step, though repeatedly pressed to adopt this course by Lord Cromer, who realised that the only chance of successfully carrying through the policy of evacuation was by utilising Zobeir's great authority in the manner suggested. While the question was still under discussion, the important news was received at Cairo that the Sheikh-el-Obeid, an influential chief, had declared in favour of the Mahdi, and that the tribes between Berber and Shendy had risen. About the same time communication with Khartoum was cut off. Gordon's position thus became very critical. In his communications prior to the severance of the telegraph wires he had emphatically intimated that he would not leave Khartoum until he could bring away the garrison with him. As the weeks went by and the position in the Soudan became more threatening, the Home Government were reluctantly driven to the recognition of the fact that military measures on a large scale would be necessary to rescue Gordon and the Khartoum garrison. A circumstance which greatly influenced the final decision was the obvious peril to Egypt which the growing Mahdist influence constituted. Berber was attacked and captured on May 20 by a dervish force, and in June the victors advanced down stream in the direction of the Dongola province. They were, however, defeated at Debba on July 5 by a body of Bashi Bazouks, and again a little later at Tani. These engagements were followed by a more decisive one on September 1, in which the dervish force was attacked near Korti and totally defeated, the two principal emirs being killed in the engagement. Encouraged by this success, Captain (afterwards Lord) Kitchener, who had been sent to report on the loyalty of the Mudir of Dongola, pushed on and completed an arrangement with the important Kababish tribe, under which their chief, Sheikh Saleh, pledged himself to render assistance to the relief expedition which had then been decided upon by the Home Government. As early as April 14 Lord Cromer had urged upon the Cabinet the necessity of preparing for the despatch of such an expedition. But beyond instructing Sir Frederick Stephenson to report "on the best plan of operation for the relief of Gordon," the

Government took no practical steps until August 8, when a vote of credit of £300,000 was obtained from Parliament, and Sir Frederick Stephenson was directed to take certain preliminary measures in connection with the movement of troops south of Wadi Halfa. Still the Government were not finally convinced as to the necessity of the expedition. They hoped that with the receipt of more definite news from Gordon it might be found that the evacuation of the city would yet be found to be practicable. It was a vain expectation, as the scanty information which had filtered through from Khartoum after the cutting of the communications, to say nothing of the evidence afforded by the Mahdist advance southwards, pointed to the fact that Gordon was hopelessly isolated and could not retire if he would. Even after Lord Wolseley had arrived in Cairo on September 10, he was furnished with instructions on no account to advance beyond Dongola because of the invincible repugnance of the Government "to undertake any warlike expedition not called for by absolute necessity." In point of fact it was not until October 8 that the final instructions were issued for the advance to Khartoum. The preparations were then pushed forward with all despatch. The force collected for the enterprise was a carefully chosen one, consisting of nine battalions of infantry (1st Battalions R.I., Sussex, South Stafford, Black Watch, West Kent, Gordon Highlanders, Cameron Highlanders, 2nd Battalions D.C.L.I. and Essex); a Camel Corps of four "regiments" drawn from the Heavy Cavalry, Light Cavalry, Brigade of Guards, and Mounted Infantry; the 19th Hussars; some light artillery, and other details. The force was despatched up the Nile in whaleboats, and it was all concentrated at Korti by December.



THE GORDON MEMORIAL, CHATHAM.
(A replica of the statue at Khartoum).

GORDON'S LAST STAND AT KHARTOUM.

Meanwhile Gordon, with rapidly diminishing resources, was making a gallant stand against the rising tide of barbarism which was threatening to engulf him. At the end of August his able lieutenant, Mohammed Ali Pasha, won two victories over dervish forces at Gereif and Halfaya respectively, but on September 5 was defeated and slain at El Eilafun after scoring a third success over his wily opponents. This reverse was followed at a short interval by a tragic episode which created a great sensation when the facts became known. On September 10 Gordon sent Colonel Stewart, Power, Herbin (the French Consul), and some Greeks down the Nile on the Abbas steamer to give the authorities an accurate account of the position of affairs. On September 18, when near Hebba at the head of the Fourth Cataract, the party was decoyed on to an island and murdered by the orders of a local sheikh. At about this time the Mahdist's forces closed in upon Khartoum and maintained a rigorous investment. On January 5, Omdurman, which had been vigorously defended by Farajalla Pasha, was compelled by famine to surrender. Undismayed by the terrible odds against him, Gordon at Khartoum continued the fight. In messages he sent through he intimated that he "could hold out for years," but the truth was that his position was as desperate as it could well be. His supplies were nearly spent and the garrison was being daily reduced by sickness and famine. The critical state of affairs at Khartoum at this period was not completely revealed to the authorities in Lower Egypt until after the fall of the city. But it was well understood that every moment of time was valuable if a rescue was to be effected. On December 28 the first step in the advance from Korti was taken by the despatch of a river column of four battalions of infantry, one squadron of cavalry, and details, under Major-General Earle, with the object of reaching Abu Hamed and pushing on to seize Berber. Two days later the desert column, consisting of about 1,100 men, mostly of the Camel Corps, marched out under Major-General Sir Herbert Stewart to occupy Jakdul Wells on the road to Metemmeh. The position was occupied in due course, and after receiving reinforcements which brought his force up to about 1,800 men, Sir Herbert Stewart started for Metemmeh on January 14, 1885. Three days later he came in contact with a dervish force of about 11,000 and inflicted a heavy defeat on them at Abu Klea Wells. The advance was continued and the enemy was again encountered near Abu Kru. A sharp fight ensued in which Sir Herbert Stewart received a mortal wound. On the evening of the 19th the column reached the Nile, greatly diminished in strength but full of determination to achieve the object for which it was despatched. On the 21st a strong force was sent to Metemmeh, and arriving there after heavy fighting found four

steamers which had been despatched down the river waiting for the Expeditionary Force. Sir Charles Wilson, who had succeeded to the command on Sir Herbert Stewart's death, on January 24 proceeded with a picked force in two steamers up the river in the direction of Khartoum. On January 28 the little expedition arrived off the town. To their great grief they learned that all was over. Khartoum had been taken by assau't two days previously and the heroic Gordon killed. The facts ascertained were of the meagrest description, but information collected at a subsequent period brought to light some interesting details of these last days in the beleaguered city. Through treachery, the Mahdists were enabled to break through the defences in the early hours of the morning, and having done so they started to massacre the wretched defenders indiscriminately. Gordon, on leaving the palace to concert measures to repel the invasion, was met by a horde of fanatics who killed him as he stood and then cut off his head for transmission to the Mahdi's camp as a trophy. All the accounts show that the heroic Englishman met his death with the calm serenity of the Christian soldier that he was. That his fate did not come upon him unexpectedly is shown by his correspondence and his diary which he sent down the river with the steamers. In a letter, dated December 14, to Major Watson, R.E., at Cairo, he wrote saying that he thought the game was up and that a catastrophe might be expected in ten days' time. To his sister he wrote at the same time: "I am quite happy, thank God, and like Lawrence I have tried to do my duty." The last entry in his diary was: "I have done the best for the honour of my country. Good bye."

When the rescuing party found that they had arrived too late the heads of the steamers were turned down stream and the return journey was commenced. At the Sixth Cataract both vessels were wrecked, and for a time Sir Charles Wilson and his little force were in imminent peril. In the nick of time Lord Charles Beresford appeared on the scene with a third steamer, and after a hard fight extricated the force from their dangerous position. The remainder of the journey was completed without any notable incident.

The news of Gordon's death reached England on February 5. It created an overwhelming sensation throughout the length and breadth of the land. Friday, March 13, was fixed as a day of national mourning for the dead hero. Parliament afterwards voted a national monument to be placed in Trafalgar Square, and in due course Mr. Hamo Thornycroft's fine effigy of Gordon was placed there. Another beautiful memorial—a recumbent figure—was placed in St. Paul's Cathedral, and years afterwards, when the Mahdist tyrrany was overthrown, the Corps of Royal Engineers erected at Khartoum itself a characteristic and splendid statue of the hero representing him seated on a camel. Finally, Lord Tennyson wrote an epitaph which beautifully expressed the public sentiment:—

"Warrior of God, man's friend, not here below,
But somewhere dead far in the waste Soudan,
Thou livest in all hearts, for all men know
This earth hath borne no simpler, nobler man."

After the fall of Khartoum the desert column, much diminished in strength and with inadequate stores, retired, actively pursued by the enemy. At Abu Klea Sir Redvers Buller, who was in command, directed a stand to be made, and on January 17 a sharp engagement took place in which the Mahdists were severely beaten. The column reached Korti during March. Meanwhile, the river column, having ascended the fourth cataract with great difficulty, on February 10 fought a decisive action at Kirbekan. The Mahdists were routed, but General Earle, who was in command, was killed. Under the leadership of Brigadier-General H. Brackenbury the column continued the advance to within 30 miles of Abu Hamed. At this point orders were received to retire, and the column retreated to Merowe which place was reached on March 5.

Though Gordon's death had in melancholy fashion solved one of the great problems contained in the Soudan question, the British public were most reluctant to accept this as decisive and without further effort allow the vast region to lapse into barbarism. Under the stimulus of the popular feeling, the Government made preparations for an advance into the Soudan from the Red Sea. From the ends of the Empire troops were collected to form this new expeditionary force. India sent a contingent formed of the flower of her native troops, and Australia, responding gallantly to the call of patriotic duty, sent for the first time from her shores a body of her splendid mounted men to help in the work of winning the Soudan back to civilisation. A substantial force of British troops from various stations near and far completed the expedition, numbering some 13,000 men, which assembled at



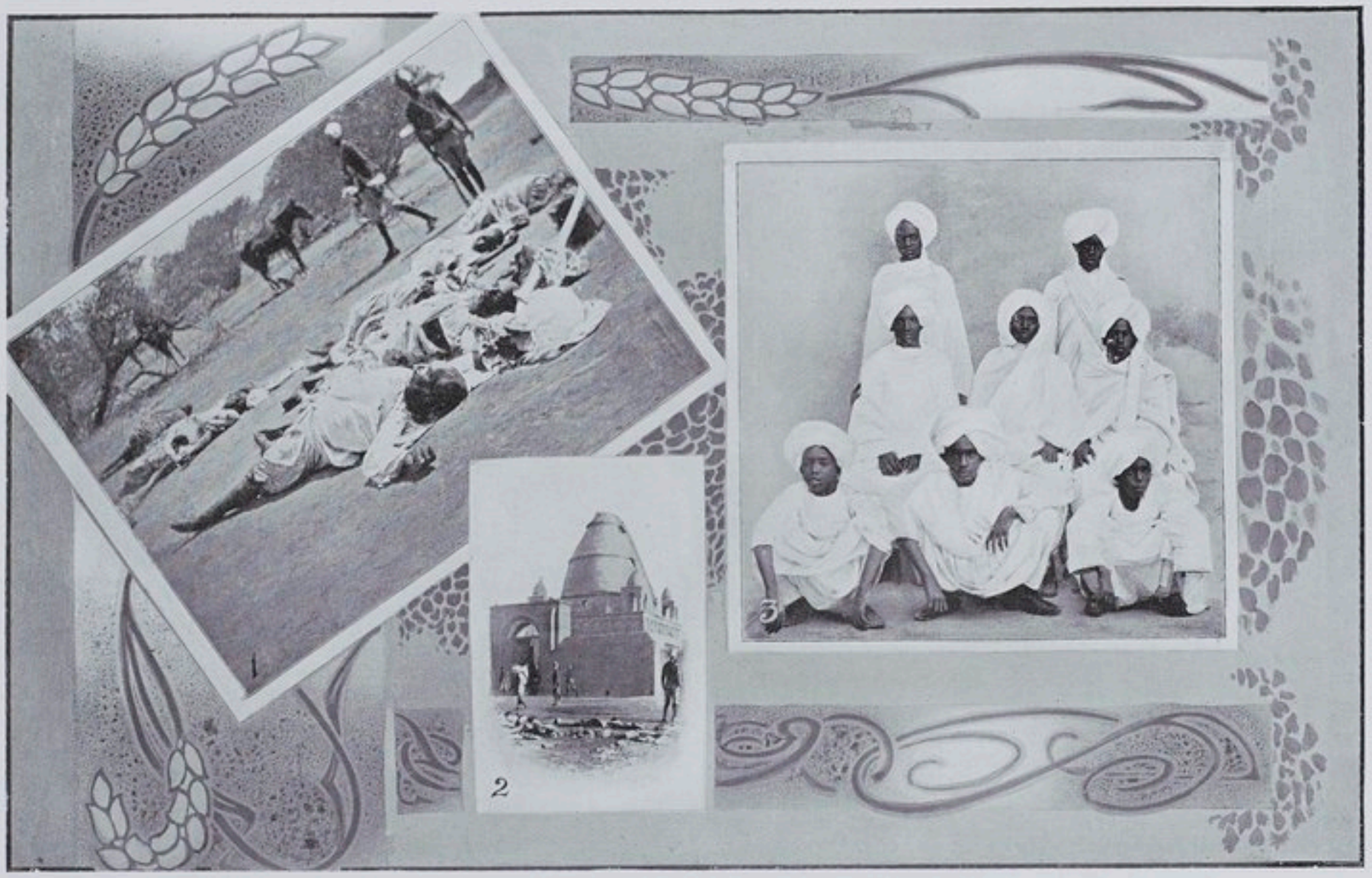
KHALIFA'S HOUSE, OMDURMAN.

Suakin about the middle of March. The primary object of the expedition was to crush that versatile and elusive Mahdist leader, Osman Digna, and open the road to Berber. In furtherance of this project arrangements were made for the construction of a desert railway. A great amount of plant with a considerable number of navvies were collected, and work was commenced from the Suakin end. While the railway operations were proceeding the troops were actively engaged with the enemy. Actions were fought at Hashin on March 20, at Tofrek (McNeill's Zareeba) two days later, and Tamai on April 3. But the results were inconclusive, and the Government, finding that the task in hand was a more formidable one than they had anticipated, decided, in view of the approach of the hot season, when British troops would be severely handicapped, to withdraw the expedition. As soon as practicable the bulk of the troops were re-embarked, only a sufficient force being left to garrison Suakin. The railway, which had been carried as far as Otas, was necessarily abandoned. On the Nile, meanwhile, the frontier force, a mixed body of 1,700 British and 1,500 Egyptian troops, was being greatly harassed by the enemy. This state of affairs continued until December, when a favourable opportunity offering, Sir Frederick Stephenson, then in command, inflicted a decisive defeat on a body of 6,000 of the enemy at Ginnis. Before this, on June 22, the Mahdi had succumbed to an attack of typhus fever at Khartoum. The succession devolved upon Abdalla Ibn el Sayid Hamadalla el Taaishi, a Baggara of the Taaisha tribe, one of four caliphs whom the dead Mahdi had appointed to succeed him. He was a fanatical tyrant, who spared no effort and refrained from no cruelty to strengthen his position. A legacy which he received from his predecessor was a project for the invasion of Egypt. Troubles in Darfur and Kordofan, war with Abyssinia, and a rising of the Kababish tribe prevented the execution of the design, but the enemy continued to give a considerable amount of trouble, and on April 28, 1897, fought an unsuccessful action with Colonel Chermside's frontier force at Sarras. Soon after this Charles Neufeld, a German merchant, who had been detained a prisoner at Khartoum, made his escape into Lower Egypt, and brought valuable information of the condition of affairs in the Soudan. In the spring of 1888 the small body of British troops still on the frontier were withdrawn, and the defence of the advanced position was entrusted solely to the Egyptian Army, which was at this time under the command of Sir Francis Grenfell. Within twelve months the efficiency and courage of the reorganised force were put to a severe test by having to bear the brunt of the attack of a powerful Mahdist force, numbering 4,000 fighting men and 7,000 camp followers, led by Wad el Nejumi, a famous Soudanese chieftain. They emerged triumphantly from the ordeal. The enemy were met at Toski by General Grenfell, with two Egyptian and four Soudanese battalions, with detachments of cavalry and artillery, and completely routed. Nejumi was killed, together with most of the other sheikhs, and the dervish force was decimated. The victory effectually dispelled the illusion which had for years dominated the Mahdist mind—of a conquest of Egypt. Another important result achieved was the creation of a feeling of confidence in the ability of the Egyptian Army to hold its own on the frontier.

It was not until 1892 that the Mahdist forces again ventured to try conclusions with the Egyptian Army. In that year commenced a series of raids which were conducted most determinedly and kept the frontier region in a state of turmoil for months. There was a cessation of these unwelcome attentions in 1894, but in 1895 they were resumed with something of the old spirit. After mature consideration the Government in 1896 came to the decision to grasp the nettle which had been so long irritating them. Their forward action was hastened by the unfortunate flight of the Italians who had been heavily defeated at Adowa on March 1, 1896, and whose right flank was threatened by the Mahdists. Another factor which stimulated the energies of the authorities was the full and accurate knowledge of the internal state of the Soudan which had been brought down to Egypt by Slatin Bey, who, after a memorable captivity in the Mahdi's capital, escaped to Egypt in February, 1895, he having followed in the footsteps of Father Ohrwalder and Father Rossignoli, two priests for long fellow captives with him in Khartoum.

The advance movement was commenced on March 20, 1896, when a Soudanese brigade occupied Akasha. On June 7 the dervish garrison at Firket was surprised and almost annihilated. By August 4 the expedition, now reinforced by a British battalion, advanced into Dongola Province, and on September 23 occupied Dongola. The enemy fled before the advancing troops and were pursued up to Merowe. A circumstance which

had greatly facilitated the movement of the troops was the construction of the railway which was so expeditiously carried forward that by May 4, 1897, it had reached Kerma, while a further line had been commenced from Halfa to Abu Hamed across the Korosko Desert. The troops continued to advance and Abu Hamed was occupied on August 7 and Berber on September 6, 1897. Thus the army was placed in occupation of the river from Atbara to Dongola; but it soon became evident that the enemy did not intend to allow the British to remain in undisputed possession. The leaders gathered their forces for a movement on Berber with a view to its recapture. January, 1898, therefore, found the British forces concentrated about that place, while behind them the railway engineers an additional British brigade was sent up the Nile in July to strengthen the Sirdar's army. By August 24 a magnificent body of 23,000 men had been concentrated within striking distance of Khartoum. The British troops under the command of Major-General Gatacre, consisted of the 21st Lancers and the 32nd Field and 37th Howitzer Batteries R.A. The 1st Warwicks, Lincolns, Camerons, and Seaforths, with 6 maxims and a detachment R.E. (composing the 1st Brigade under General Wauchope); and the 1st Grenadier Guards, and Northumberland Fusiliers, 2nd Lancashire Fusiliers and Rifle Brigade with 4 maxims and a detachment R.E. (composing the 2nd Brigade under General Lyttelton). The Egyptian troops, which were commanded by Major-



1. AFTER UM DEBREIKAT: BODY OF THE KHALIFA IN THE FOREGROUND.

2. THE MAHDI'S TOMB, MORNING AFTER THE BATTLE, SEPTEMBER 2, 1898.

3. SONS OF THE MAHDI AND KHALIFA.

were busily engaged in pushing on the railway which was so essential to the success of the forward military movement. A British brigade was sent up the river in March to strengthen the Egyptian force, and the combined body moved up the Atbara to intercept Mahmud who, with Osman Digna and a large force, was advancing on Berber. In the ensuing fight the dervishes were utterly routed and their leader was captured. Altogether, their losses in killed alone were estimated at over 3,000, while the combined British and Egyptian casualties (including 82 killed) numbered 560.

The battle of Atbara was a crushing blow for the dervishes, but it soon became clear that it was not finally to settle the question of the domination of the Soudan. In view of the resistance which seemed likely to be offered to a further advance of the force, General Hunter, included 9 squadrons of cavalry, 1 horse and 4 field batteries, 8 companies Camel Corps, 10 maxims, 1st Brigade (2nd, 9th, 10th, and 11th), 2nd Brigade (8th, 12th, 13th, and 14th), 3rd Brigade (3rd, 4th, 7th, and 15th), 4th Brigade (1st, 5th, 17th, and 18th). In addition to the land forces there was a river flotilla of 10 armoured gunboats, their armanent including two 40-pounder guns.

Advancing cautiously by successive stages the army, by September 2, had reached Egeiga, some eight miles from Omdurman. A great force, estimated at 40,000 or 50,000 men, led by the Khalifa in person, came out to do battle with the invaders. A tremendous conflict ensued, in which the Mahdists fought with all the recklessness of the fanatic. Wave after wave of the great host was mown down by the modern arms of precision wielded by our troops but still the dervish force swept dauntlessly forward. There was one critical moment when the Mahdists seriously threatened the right rear by a movement which was not detected until late, but the prompt wheeling to the right of the 1st Brigade, commanded by the ill-fated Hector Macdonald, and the steadiness of the troops led to the repulse of the attack. Finally, complete victory was obtained by this splendid Anglo-Egyptian force. The Mahdist losses were enormous. No fewer than 10,560 dervish dead were counted on the battlefield, and in addition there were about 16,000 wounded. In fact the Khalifa's army was practically annihilated. On the Anglo-Egyptian side the casualties were: British, 3 officers and 24 men killed, and 8 officers and 125 men wounded; Egyptian, 2 officers and 27 men killed, and 15 officers and 286 men wounded. A great victory was seldom purchased less cheaply; and though in some quarters an outcry was raised as to the awful slaughter in the ranks of the enemy, there can be little doubt that the suffering was infinitesimal compared with that involved in a single year of Mahdist rule.

After the battle, Major-General Kitchener, at the head of the victorious army, entered Khartoum. The Mahdi's tomb was destroyed, and the relics of the cruellest false prophet of modern history cast to the winds. On September 4, a solemn memorial service was held on the spot where Gordon fell, and with due ceremony the British and Egyptian flags were hoisted over the ruins of the palace

in token of the beginning of the new era of enlightened rule. The Khalifa, meanwhile, was making good his escape to the wilds of Kordofan, where he knew he was not likely to be followed by the victorious troops. He was able later to collect a considerable force about him; but eventually, on November 24, 1899, Sir Reginald Wingate, by a series of clever movements, brought him to bay. In the resulting fight he and all his principal Emirs were killed, and those of his force who were not also placed *hors-de-combat* surrendered. Thus Mahdism was completely wiped out in a campaign which will go down to history, not only as one of the most successful, but also, having regard to the theatre of war, the most economical. "The total cost of the campaigns of 1896-98," says Lord Cromer, "was £2,354,000, of which £1,200,000 was spent on railways and telegraphs, and £155,000 on gunboats. The military expenditure properly so called only amounted to £906,000."

Lord Kitchener, having established the new administration on a firm basis, and provided for the despatch of the greater portion of the troops northwards, turned his face southwards, where the presence of a French expedition under Major Marchand demanded his attention. After an interesting journey, in the course of which he had a lively skirmish with a dervish force, he met Major Marchand at Kodok on September 19. There was an agreeable interchange of civilities between the two, but Lord Kitchener, having caused the Anglo-Egyptian flags to be hoisted to the south of Major Marchand's position, and posted a force to defend them, was content to leave the diplomatic difficulties to be adjusted elsewhere. He returned almost immediately to England to receive the due reward of his great services in the shape of a peerage, and the popular acclaim of his countrymen. For a time after this the relations of Great Britain and France were somewhat strained, owing to the presence of the French force on the upper reaches of the Nile. But eventually a settlement was reached under which Major Marchand was left free to withdraw his gallant little force to Jiboutil, *viâ* Sobat and Abyssinia.

Not long after the destruction of the Khalifa and his force another serious element of unrest was removed by the capture (on January 18, 1900) of Osman Digna by Captain F. Burges, Mamur Muhammed Bey, and a police patrol. But that the old spirit of fanaticism had not been entirely exorcised was shown by the advent at Khartoum of a new sect who dubbed themselves the Milleniumists. They appeared likely at one period to give trouble, but happily the expectation was not realised. On November 29, 1900, an expedition under Lieutenant-Colonel Sparkes left Omdurman in steamers to occupy the Bahr el Ghazal. In the new year, temporary headquarters having been fixed at Tonj, small expeditions were despatched in various directions, and measures taken to extend Anglo-Egyptian authority. Colonel Sparkes himself, in the middle of 1901, led an expedition to the country of the Nyam Nyams. He had a most friendly reception from Sultan Tembura the chief, and established excellent relations with the tribe. Early in 1901 arrangements were made with representatives of the Italian Government relative to the Soudan-Eritrea frontier, and about the same time Major Austen and Lieutenant Bright started on an expedition south-eastwards from Nasser. The latter party, after suffering terrible hardships, arrived at Lake Baringo on August 6. In consequence of difficulties arising out of the frontier negotiations a conference met in Rome in November, 1901. The deliberations resulted in a complete agreement relating not merely to the frontier, but also to customs and postal and telegraph matters. All this time the work of administrative organisation was proceeding uninterruptedly. Considerable obstacles had to be overcome, but the officials were of an excellent stamp, and faced the situation with a determination to firmly establish the new order, which of itself was a guarantee of success.

The year 1902 opened in the Soudan with an unpleasant episode. Lieut. Scott-Barbour, whilst in charge of a camel convoy between Shambe and Rumbek in the Bahr el Ghazal, was treacherously murdered on January 10 by the Agar Dinkas. A punitive expedition was promptly organised by Major Hunter, and by a series of rapid marches it reached the Agar Dinka country and inflicted condign punishment on the tribe. A further expedition, despatched from Khartoum in March, gave the tribesmen an additional taste of the form of justice which is best understood by these rude inhabitants of the Central African wilds. The murderer himself died of wounds which he received in the course of the operations. The tribesmen were glad afterwards to make their submission. On May 15 a treaty was signed at Addis Abbaba defining the Soudan-Abyssinian frontier line. At the end of the year Major C. W. Gwynn proceeded with Major C. E. Wilson to carry



1. MARKET SCENE. 2. ANUAK WOMEN. 3. KORDOFAN ARABS WITH CHIEF.

out a delimitation of the frontier in accordance with the agreement arrived at. Later, in February, 1903, Colonel The Hon. M. G. Talbot met the Italian delegates at Kassala and together they delimitated the frontier from Abu Gamal to the Setit, opposite the mouth of the Khor Royan which point now forms the junction of Eritrea, Abyssinia, and the Soudan. At the close of 1903 work on the Nile-Red Sea Railway was commenced. In January, 1904, a strong patrol, under the command of Captain P. Wood, left Tonj to visit the Nyam Nyam Sultan Yambio. On the way the patrol met with a treacherous reception from Riketa, a son of Yambio and avowedly friendly. Riketa's village was accordingly destroyed and the patrol returned to Tonj. Owing to Yambio's persistent treachery and hostility a column under Major Bonhiors was sent against him, and Yambio and ten of his men were killed. Another trouble, in some respects more serious, was experienced in August, 1904, by the appearance of a false Mahdi in the Kenana Khot near Senga. Prompt measures were taken for his suppression, and after a brisk chase he was run down and, on their refusal to surrender, he and his entourage were killed. During this year, 1903–4, there was a great extension of Anglo-Egyptian influence over the remoter parts of the Soudan. Simultaneously the Government, in pursuit of its policy of economic development, commenced a railway connecting the Port of Suakin with the main line near the mouth of the Atbara. In addition preliminary surveys were made for a branch line from Abu Hamed to Merowe and Affat in the Dongola Province. Apart from these schemes, the Government at the period of which we are writing contributed to the prosperity of the country by encouraging the cultivation of cotton and cereals. There is an impression in many quarters in Europe that the Soudan is mere desert, utterly devoid of agricultural promise, years ago, and with a much wider range of possibilities already established."

Unquestionably, the two great factors in the development of the Soudan are irrigation and railway communications. Both subjects are treated elsewhere. But it may not be out of place to quote here the remarks made by Major Hawker on the effects of the opening of the Nile-Red Sea Railway in 1905. "I do not suppose," says this official, "that any person unacquainted with Suakin as it was when I first saw it, four years ago, could realise the extent to which everything has altered for the better since the railway works began. The conditions under which the people were living at the time of which I have spoken could scarcely have undergone a more remarkable change. Instead of enforced idleness and a dull market, there is general activity and brisk trade. Not only has regular employment been found for many who were without occupation, but still larger numbers have benefited indirectly by the making of the railway and the building of Port Soudan. Trade, which had left Suakin, has returned, and must rapidly improve. The general attitude is one of contentment, and there are signs on all sides of increasing prosperity." Since these words were written the policy of commercial development has reached a further stage by the devising of several new railway schemes and the formal inauguration in March, 1909, of Port Soudan by the Khedive.

May 9, 1906, witnessed the termination of the long-standing dispute relative to the territory occupied by troops of the Congo Free State in the area in the Bahr el Ghazal known as the Lado Enclave. On that day an agreement was concluded in London between H.M. the King and H.M. the King of the Belgians, under which the Congo forces were withdrawn in consideration of the grant of permission on the part of the Anglo-Egyptian Government for the construction of a railway from the Congo to the Nile.



RECEPTION OF LORD KITCHENER AT THE GORDON COLLEGE, KHARTOUM, NOVEMBER, 1902.

But as against this view we may set the opinion of "an intelligent American observer" quoted by Lord Cromer in his report for 1905. "The truth is," remarked this visitor, "the Soudan is as much an undeveloped country as our own Mississippi Valley a hundred

As was not unnatural, the establishment of settled government in the Soudan and the completion of the railway to Khartoum have been followed by a great influx of distinguished visitors. Lord Kitchener went up the Nile to the scene of his former triumph in November, 1902, to perform the opening ceremony in connection with the Gordon College, a splendid educational institution, which has been reared as a suitable memorial to the dead hero on the scene of his martyrdom. The Duke and Duchess of Connaught have paid three visits, one in 1900, 1905,



MAJOR-GENERAL SIR RUDOLF VON SLATIN PASHA.

and again in 1909, and Princess Henry of Battenberg, accompanied by the Princesses Victoria of Battenberg and Beatrice of Saxe-Coburg, was at Khartoum in February, 1904. The Khedive, who has always taken a deep interest in this portion of Egypt, travelled to the Soudanese capital first in 1901, and again in March, 1909, when he went to open Port Soudan. Lord Cromer also made a memorable tour throughout the length of the conquered province in 1903, four years prior to his retirement. He had on two previous occasions —December, 1899, and January, 1901—visited Khartoum. In the near future a trip to the Soudan, there can be little doubt, will be as simple a matter as a tour in the Levant, and probably not much more expensive.

What is the effect on the inhabitants of this remarkable change in their condition? For answer we may turn to the opinions of Slatin Pasha, who, perhaps, has the best title amongst Europeans to speak on the subject. "The justice of the Government," says the Inspector-General, "is recognised by every soul in the Soudan, by sedentary natives as well as by the nomad Arabs, and I have never heard that even the losing party suspected Government officials of having been influenced by private reasons in giving a decision or sentence. . . . The people are daily gaining more confidence in our good intentions, and are convinced that we do our best to establish security in the country. The population is becoming more active and wealth is increasing. . . . The people give a great proof of their confidence in the Government in sending their sons to Government schools. Practically all the tribes of the Soudan are represented, and there are so many applicants that we are forced to refuse a certain number. . . . Public security prevails throughout the whole of the Soudan. Considering the extent of the country, murder and highway robbery are rare; there is comparatively little thieving, and that nearly always amongst the natives and not from the white man. . . . The conclusion at which I have personally arrived is that by treating the people with justice and making allowances for their habits and customs, we have succeeded in gaining their confidence and that they have now ceased to be indifferent to our efforts, and are willing to assist us to attain our object—peace and prosperity in the Soudan." These are words which well sum up the points of the new conquest of the Soudan. The forward policy, in fine, has

been abundantly vindicated, and Gordon has been avenged in the way which would have best pleased him.

AREA AND POPULATION.

In its present form, with the frontiers fixed under recent treaties, the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan contains an estimated area of 1,006,000 square miles, and a population of about 2,000,000. The greatest length of the country from north to south is about 1,250 miles, and from east to west about 1,080 miles. Khartoum, the capital, and seat of Government, is situated at the junction of the White and Blue Niles, and distant in a direct line about 1,250 miles from the Mediterranean. The province is administered by a Governor-General (who is also Sirdar of the Egyptian Army), and under him by Mudirs (governors of provinces), assisted by inspectors and deputy-inspectors (British military and civilian), and by Mamurs (Egyptian or native officers). The principles upon which the government is to be carried on are set forth in the agreement of 1899. Under this the administration is to be carried on by a Governor-General appointed by Egypt, with the assent of Great Britain. The British and Egyptian flags are to fly together; laws are to be made by proclamation; no duties are to be levied on imports from Egypt, and the duties on imports from other countries are not to exceed those levied in Egypt; the import and export of slaves are prohibited, and it is stipulated that special attention shall be paid to the Brussels Act of 1890 respecting the import and export of arms, ammunition, and spirits. The capitulations do not exist in the Soudan to embarrass officials, and there are no consuls.

ADMINISTRATIVE.

The Soudan is divided into the following eight first-class and four second-class provinces, the name in brackets being that of the capital.

First Class.—Bahr el Ghazal (Wau), Berber (El Damer), Dongola (Merowe), Kassala (Kassala), Khartoum (Khartoum), Kordofan (El Obeid), Sennaar (Senga), Upper Nile (Kodok).

Second Class.—Halfa (Halfa), Suakin (Suakin), Gezireh, Blue Nile (Wad Medani), White Nile (Dueim).

The provinces are sub-divided into districts, each of which is under an Egyptian or native Mamur.

The general administration is under the control of the following officials, in addition to the Governor-General:—the Secretary-General, the Director of Intelligence and Agent-General (Cairo), the Inspector-General, the Legal Secretary, Financial Secretary, Director of Surveys, Director of Works, Director of Education, Director-General of Irrigation, Principal Medical Officer, Director of Woods and Forests, Director of Agriculture and Lands, Director of Railways, Director of Steamers and Boats, Director of Telegraphs and Posts, Director of Customs, Principal Veterinary Officer, Director of Slavery Repression Department, and Superintendent of Game Preservation Department. The six principal posts at the beginning of 1909 were filled as follows:—

Governor-General: Major-General Sir F. Reginald Wingate, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O.

Inspector-General: El Lewa Sir Rudolf von Slatin Pasha, K.C.M.G., C.V.O., C.B.

Legal Secretary: Mr. E. Bonham Carter.

Agent-General (Cairo): Miralai L. O. F. Stack Bey.

Financial Secretary: El Lewa E. E. Bernard Pasha, C.M.G.

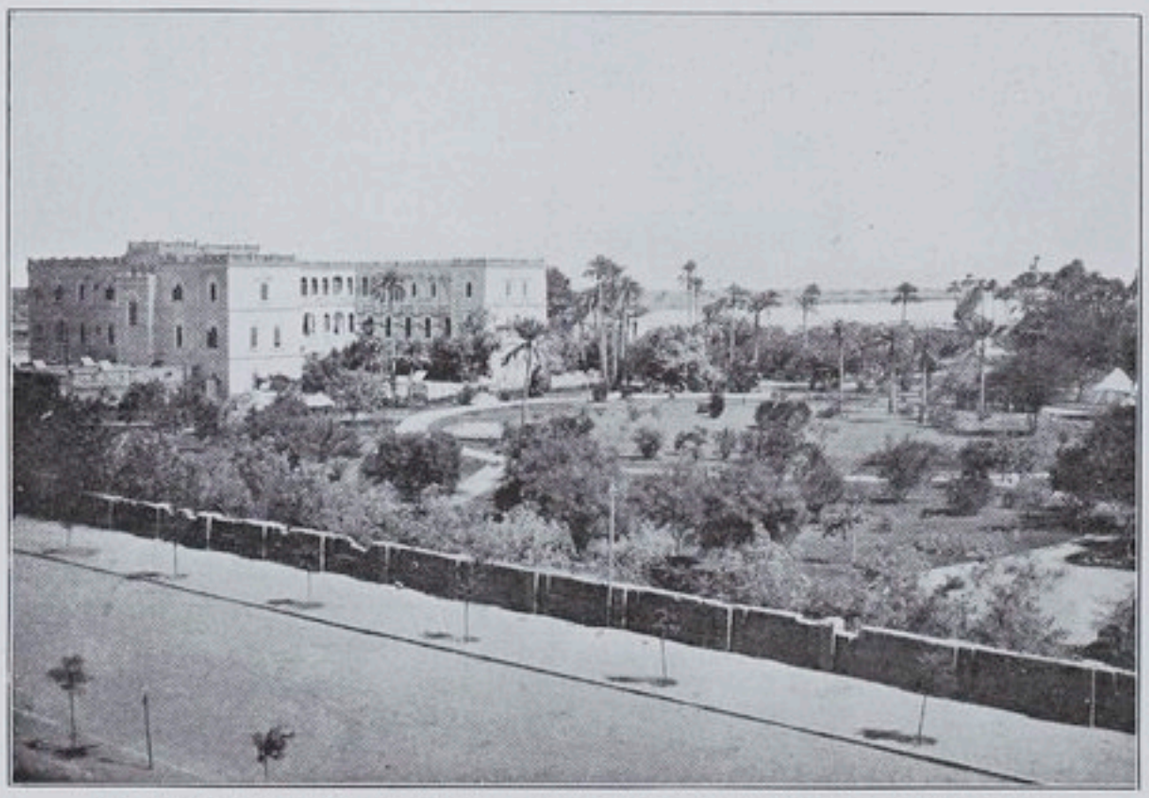
All the above (with the exception of the Legal Secretary, the Directors of Education, Woods and Forests, Superintendent of Game Preservation, and Director of Agriculture and Lands) are at present British Officers attached to the Egyptian Army.

FINANCE.

In regard to finance, the following table of revenue and expenditure since 1899 is of interest:—

Year.	Revenue. £E.	Expenditure. £E.	Deficit. £E.
1899 ...	126,596 ...	511,693 ...	385,097
1900 ...	156,888 ...	614,780 ...	457,892
1901 ...	242,309 ...	629,969 ...	387,660
1902 ...	270,226 ...	639,493 ...	369,267
1903 ...	462,605 ...	810,019 ...	347,414
1904 ...	531,000 ...	815,500 ...	284,500
1905 ...	569,000 ...	688,000 ...	119,000
1906 ...	804,000 ...	832,000 ...	28,000
1907 ...	966,000 ...	1,013,000 ...	47,000

£E1=100 piastres=£1 0s. 6d.



THE PALACE AND GARDEN, KHARTOUM, FROM THE SOUTH WEST.

The deficit is covered by a contribution from the funds of the Egyptian Government towards the cost of the civil and military administration. This amounted in the early years to the nominal sum of £E380,000, but the amount in reality was not so large since considerable deductions had to be made in respect of customs dues in Egypt on goods going to the Soudan and the payment made by the Soudan Government for the upkeep of that portion of the Egyptian Army which is stationed in the Soudan. In recent years other factors have been brought into the account to reduce the adverse balance. For example, in 1906 when the contribution of the Egyptian Treasury stood at £E253,000 the following deductions were made:—

	£E.
Amount collected by the Egyptian Customs administration on goods imported into and exported from the Soudan ...	121,000
Railway receipts after deducting 50 per cent. for administrative expenditure	39,500
Post Office and Telegraph receipts after deducting £E8,000 for administrative expenditure ...	4,000
Profit made by Egypt on silver, nickel, and bronze imported into the Soudan in 1906 ...	60,000
Total	£E224,500

The net charge to Egypt was therefore the difference between £E253,000 and £E224,500, or, say, roughly speaking £E30,000. This is exclusive of the interest on Egyptian capital expended in the Soudan. In the estimates for 1908 the sum of £E45,000 figured under this head.

Besides the Budgetary expenditure represented above, there have been additional credits authorised since 1899, principally for railway and telegraph construction and public works.

The principal sources of revenue are land, date, animal, road, house, and boat taxes, tribute from tribes, royalties, customs, sales of government properties, woods and forests, and miscellaneous small imposts.

RESOURCES AND COMMERCE.

At present the chief natural resources of the Soudan lie in the forests of Kordofan and the Blue Nile, which produce gum (Hashab and Talh), ebony, furniture, woods, and fibre; and in those of the Bahr el Ghazal, which produce indiarubber, gutta percha, &c. There are large quantities of fine cattle in the country, especially on the Upper White Nile, but export of these is forbidden. There is a large opening for the growth and export of cotton. Experiments are being made in this direction which it is hoped will prove fruitful. Sugar could also be grown, and also cereals. Inducements are, according to circumstances, held out by the Government to would-be settlers in the shape of free or easy grants of land, remission of taxes for a time, low rates of transport, &c. In time, when the Nile-Red Sea Railway has had full effect, it is expected that trade will receive a great impetus, and

that the population will rapidly increase. In regard to customs duties, the Soudan in the main is considered as forming a part of Egypt. But the Government has concluded a Customs Convention with Eritrea and applies practically the same principles to the coterminous countries of Uganda, the Congo Free State, the French Congo, and Abyssinia. Broadly, goods exported to these countries from the Soudan pay 1 per cent. ad valorem, and imports from those countries 5 to 8 per cent.

It should be noted before leaving the subject of trade, that in 1907 a Central Economic Board was established at Khartoum to aid in commercial development. The Board consists of a number of officials directly concerned with economic questions, and it operates as an Advisory Council. The permanent staff of the Board act as the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Government. Information has been supplied by this new department to the Imperial Institute, London, and samples of Soudan produce have been forwarded to the same institution for the information of home merchants.

JUDICIAL AND LEGISLATIVE.

The administration of justice in the Soudan is under the direct control of the Governor-General, who, however, has the benefit of the advice of a Legal Secretary. Under the Civil Justice Ordinance, 1900, the Civil Courts are subordinated to the Legal Secretary in his capacity as Acting Judicial Commissioner. Criminal justice in each province is administered by the Mudir's Court (composed of the Mudir, or Governor, and two other magistrates), which has general competence ; minor district courts of three officers with limited competence ; and magistrates with powers similar to, but more limited, than those of Indian magistrates. Sentences passed by the Mudir's Court are submitted to the Governor-General for confirmation. The Governor-General has in all cases revising powers similar to those of an Indian High Court. The substantive criminal law is contained in the Soudan Penal Code, which is a copy of the Indian Penal Code with modifications. The Civil Courts in each province are those of the Mudir and of the subordinate magistrates. Their procedure is borrowed in part from that in Indian provinces which do not possess a High Court, and in part from the Ottoman and African Orders in Council. There are special courts, Mehkema Sharia, for the trial in accordance with Mahomedan law of cases between Mahomedans involving questions of personal status. The judges of these courts are Mahomedan sheikhs, either natives of the Soudan or Egyptians.

Legislation takes the form of ordinances issued by proclamation of the Governor-General. In accordance with Article IV. of the agreement of January 19, 1899, between the British and the Egyptian Governments as to the administration of the Soudan, all such ordinances must be forthwith notified to the British Agent-General in Cairo and the President of the Council of Ministers of H.H. the Khedive.

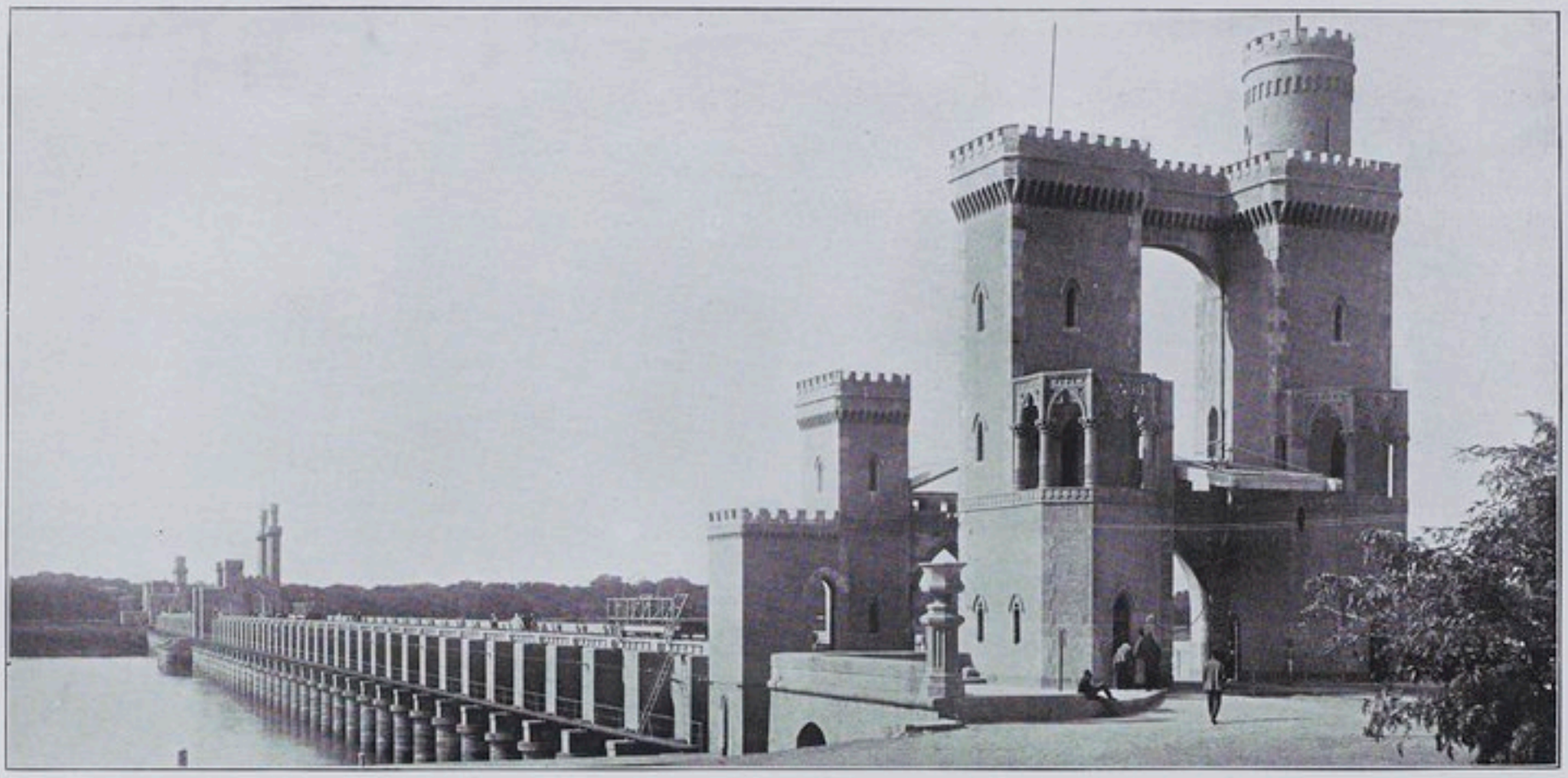
MISCELLANEOUS.

The Soudanese railway system and the river steamboat service are treated elsewhere, and it is only necessary to say here that there has been a great extension in the facilities for travel in the most recent years, and that far-reaching results on the general situation are being produced by them. The post and telegraph system too has been enormously developed since its establishment in 1897, and telephones are a convenience within the reach of residents at Khartoum, Omdurman, and Khartoum North.

Finally, a brief reference may be made to education. Naturally the efforts of the administration in this direction have as yet been confined to the populous centres. But within these limits good progress has been made. Gradually a higher primary school system is being developed. There are at present schools of this description at Khartoum, Omdurman, Halfa, and Suakin. In addition there are a number of kuttab or village schools, where instruction is given in reading, writing, and arithmetic. All school subjects are taught in Arabic. Instruction in English is not encouraged, but the language can be taught. At the Gordon College at Khartoum there is a higher primary school and a training college for schoolmasters and cadis. In a separate wing of the building there is a laboratory, the generous gift of Mr. Wellcome, for bacteriological work and research into the products and diseases of the country. A further valuable adjunct of the college is a group of technical workshops completely fitted up at the expense of Sir W. Mather, M.P. In years to come the Gordon College will no doubt be an important centre for the diffusion of civilisation throughout the darkest regions of the Dark Continent.

H.E. SIR FRANCIS REGINALD WINGATE PASHA, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O.—Egypt and the Soudan have been the scene of Lieut.-General Sir Francis Reginald Wingate's life-work, for, with the exception of two or three years spent in India and Aden when he first joined the army nearly thirty years ago, practically the whole of his military career, which culminated in the death of the Khalifa and the overthrow of Mahdism, has been passed in this corner of the African continent. Scarcely an action of any importance has been fought here during the past quarter of a century, in which he has not borne a distinguished part. His dual appointment as Sirdar of the Egyptian Army and Governor-General of the Soudan in 1899 was, therefore, a fitting acknowledgment of signal services as well as a token of that gratitude which has been aptly described as "a lively sense of favours to come." The task of transforming a barren territory, devastated by tribal wars, disease, and famine, into a smiling land of peace and prosperity is the task confided to Sir Reginald Wingate, and, hopeless though it may well have seemed at first, the unprecedented success which has been achieved in ten short years shows that Sir Reginald is a statesman as well as a soldier.

The seventh son of the late Andrew Wingate, of Glasgow, and Bessie, daughter of Richard Turner, of Dublin, he was born at Broadfield, in Renfrewshire, on June 25, 1861, and is still, therefore, less than fifty years of age. After being educated privately at Jersey, he entered the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, and was gazetted a lieutenant in the Royal Artillery in 1880. Three years later he joined the Egyptian Army, and was placed in charge of the military hospital, receiving for his services in that connection the Order of the Osmanieh, fourth class. From that time onward he steadily forged his way to the front. During the Nile Expedition of 1884–5, he acted as A.D.C. and military secretary to Field Marshal Sir Evelyn Wood, and at the close was mentioned in despatches and awarded the medal with clasp, the bronze star, and the Order of the Mejidieh, fourth class. His next appointment was that of A.D.C. to the General Officer Commanding the Eastern District, but within a year he returned to the Egyptian Army, and was promoted captain and brevet major in 1889. In the battle of Toski he served as A.A.G. of the Intelligence Department, and was mentioned in despatches and awarded the Distinguished Service Order and clasp. For the part which he took in the action of Afafit and the recapture of Tokar in 1891, a clasp was added to his bronze star, and he was advanced to the Third Class of the Mejidieh. In 1894, Sir Reginald acted as Governor of the Red Sea littoral and officer commanding the troops at Suakin, and in the following year was created a Commander of the Bath (Civil Division) and had the Second Class of the Iron Cross of Austria conferred upon him. For his services as Director of Military Intelligence in the Dongola Campaign of 1896, he was mentioned in despatches, promoted brevet lieut.-colonel, and awarded the medal with two clasps. The following year saw him on the way to Abyssinia as a member of the special mission to King Menelek, from whom he returned with the Second Class Star of Ethiopia ; and before the twelve months were completed he was with the Nile Expedition, on the conclusion of which he was appointed A.D.C. to H.M. Queen Victoria, promoted to a brevet colonelcy, and awarded a clasp. A further clasp was added in 1898 after the battle of Atbara, when he was again mentioned in despatches. He was mentioned in despatches a fifth time after the battle of Khartoum and the expedition to Fashoda, and was thanked by both Houses of Parliament, created a Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, and awarded a clasp. As already stated, Sir Reginald Wingate was in command of the operations which resulted in the death of the Khalifa near Gedid, and at the close was advanced to the Knight Commandership of the Order of the Bath and to the Second Class of the Osmanieh, while two more clasps were added to his Soudan medal. He was promoted colonel, with the local rank of major-general, in 1899, major-general in 1903, and lieut.-general in 1908. His present appointment dates from 1899. Sir Reginald Wingate is a Pasha of Egypt, and has the Grand Cordons of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh and the Grand Cross of Francis Joseph of Austria. The University of Oxford has conferred upon him the degree of D.C.L. *pro honoris causa*. Despite his ceaseless activity in the field, he has found time to write two works—"Mahdism and the Egyptian Soudan" (1889) and "Ten Years' Captivity in the Mahdi's Camp" (1891)—and to translate and edit Slatin Pasha's "Fire and Sword in the Soudan" (1895). Sir Reginald married in 1888 Catherine Leslie, daughter of Captain J. S. Rundle, R.N., and has two sons and a daughter. His addresses are Cairo and Khartoum, and his clubs are the Army and Navy and Beefsteak.



THE NILE BARRAGE NEAR CAIRO.

IRRIGATION.

"EGYPT is the gift of the Nile," said Herodotus. A profound truth is embodied in this statement. Without the Nile, Egypt would be a dreary sandy waste, differing in no respect from the desert which hems it in on every side save the north. The periodical inundations of the Delta by the overflowing of the river give to the soil an immense fertility, and literally cause the desert to blossom like a rose. Shakespere, who has a reference to almost everything, supplies in this passage from "Antony and Cleopatra" a perfect description of the process which year by year goes on :—

> "Thus they do, sir; they take the flow o' the Nile
> By certain scales i' the Pyramid; they know,
> By the height, the lowness or the mean, if dearth
> Or foizon follow: The higher Nilus swells,
> The more it promises; as it ebbs the seedsman
> Upon the slime and ooze scatters his grain,
> And shortly comes the harvest."

An analysis of the deposit left by the inundation, given by Regnault in his "Memoirs sur Egypte," mentions the following as its component parts :—

11	Water.
9	Carbon.
6	Oxide of iron.
4	Silica.
4	Carbonate of magnesia.
18	Carbonate of lime.
48	Alumen.
100	

Wilkinson observes that the fertilising properties of the alluvial deposit answer all the purposes of the richest manure. Its peculiar quality is not merely indicated by its effects, but by the appearance it presents, and so tenacious and silicious is its structure that when left upon rocks and dried by the sun it resembles pottery from its brittleness and consistence. Another writer mentions that each year's deposit may be clearly detected in the fissures in the river bank caused by the sun "in the same way that we may determine the age of a tree by the concentric rings visible in its stem; for it is a curious fact that this mud does not amalgamate with the previous deposit, although that be softened by the overflow of the stream, but may be separated in layers, generally about one-eighth of an inch in thickness, with perfect ease, the upper and under surface of each being as flat as a sheet of cardboard." Viewed under a powerful microscope, adds the writer, the component parts of this fertile deposit "present a singularly interesting epitome of the course of the stream, fragments of syenite, basalt, and other rocks, indicating its passage from the interior of Africa to the sea."

The ancient Egyptians regarded with profound reverence the great stream whose life-giving waters brought an abiding prosperity to their country. They elevated the river to a divine position, depicting it in human form as a substantial well-fed figure with a garland of lotus flowers about his head. Another allegorical representation which finds a conspicuous place on the ancient monuments depicts two figures—gods of the Upper and Lower Niles—engaged in binding together the lands of the lotus and the papyrus into one kingdom. A further form in which the Nile is typified is to be seen in the great temple at Luxor, where the river god is shown as the guardian and protector of the royal children. Again, in the sacred chamber at Philæ, we have a design which is intended to convey an impression of the mystic qualities of the noble waterway. Here the deity is pictured as a kneeling figure pouring water on the earth from two vases which he holds, one in each hand. Surrounding and protecting him in his rocky abode is the serpent—an all-powerful element in Egyptian mythology. Towering cliffs rise sheer above the figure and on their summit are perched the figures of two birds—a hawk and a vulture. The Romans, with that catholicity which marked their paganism, carried forward the tradition of the deification of the Nile, and various embodiments of the divine principle inherent in the river have come down to us. On some coins commemorating the Emperor Hadrian's journey to Egypt (about A.D. 130) Father Nile is shown as a man of middle age seated with his left arm on a sphinx and holding in his right hand a cornucopia filled with corn and fruit, typical of the fertility of the stream which flows at his feet. A statue in the museum of the Capitol at Rome, which was found in the Colonna gardens, represents a reclining figure resembling that on the coins with, on different parts of the body, sixteen children, the latter typifying the sixteen Roman cubits, which was the extra height reached by the Nile during the annual inundations.

It was not merely a lip service that the ancient Egyptians rendered to the greatness and glory of the Nile. They turned to the highest practical account its pre-eminent advantages, utilising its waters with a degree of engineering skill which is the admiration of the latter-day British prototypes of the original workers. Even the vicissitudes of time have not served to obliterate the traces of their handiwork. In the Fayoum, one of the most productive parts of Egypt, we have the site of the ancient Lake Mœris, a great artificial sheet of water which was formed four thousand years ago by letting in the waters of the Nile by means of a canal from the river to the low-lying basin-like area of which the Fayoum district consists. The canal leaves the western bank of the Nile about 200 miles to the south of the entrance to

the valley at a place anciently called Torpor, and on reaching the Fayoum, divides into two branches. One of the branches forms a junction with an ancient canal constructed, it is supposed, by Menes, and joins the Nile again 150 miles further north. The second branch flows westward into the valley, and, after irrigating it, now discharges its waters into the vast salt lake called Birket-el-Karoun. A tradition current amongst the natives of Egypt is that the works were constructed in the time of Joseph's stewardship, and from this circumstance it is called by the Arabs Bahr Youssef—"The river of Joseph." Dr. Lepsius in his work expresses the conviction that the canal was planned and executed by the Pharaohs of the XIIth dynasty, and the view is supported by the famous hieroglyphic inscription at Beni Hassan, which distinctly affirms that Amenemhê't was the monarch by whom the canal was first opened. The circumference of the lake was 150 miles, and its area 750 square miles.

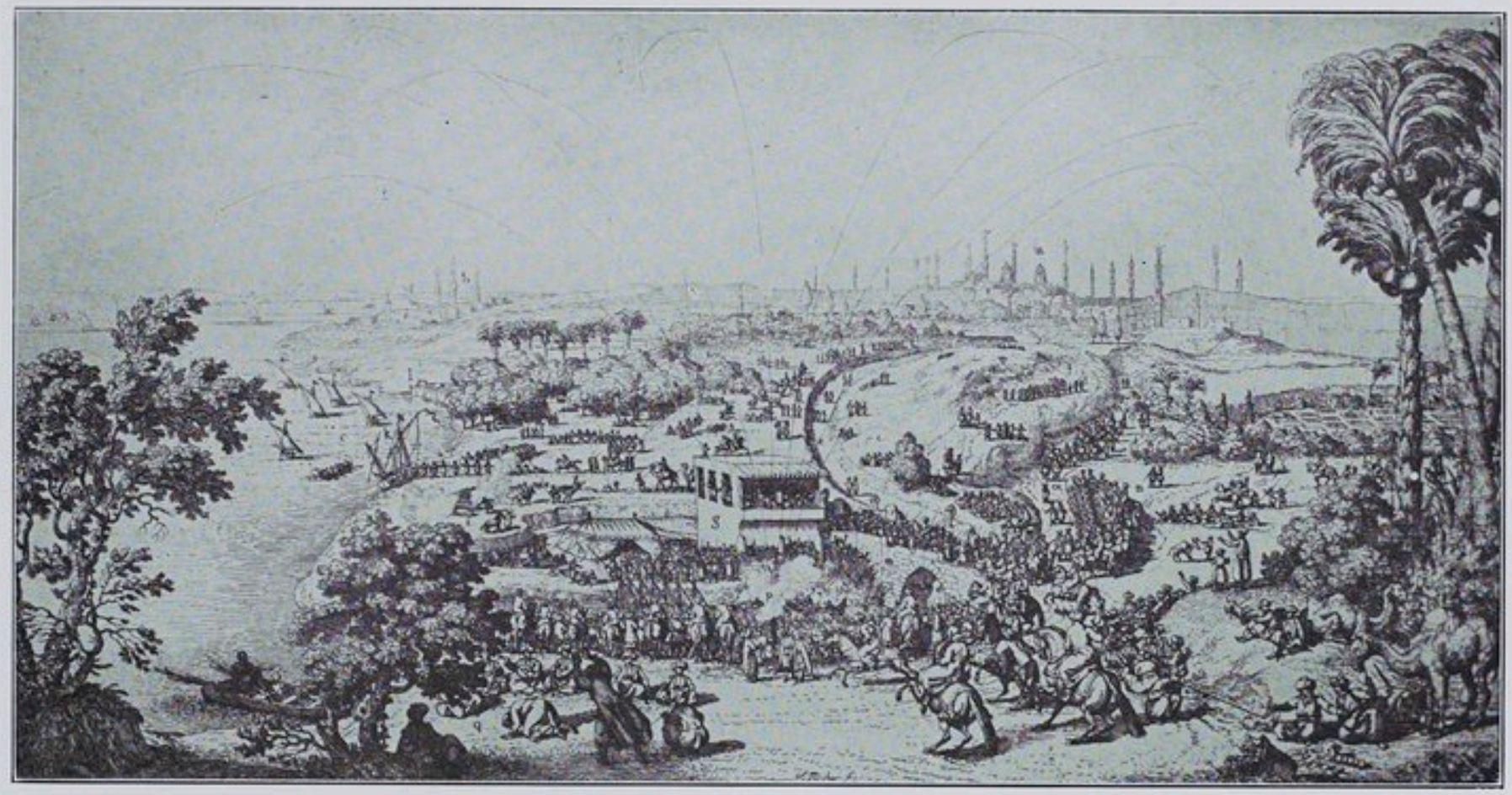
Mœris is, from its size and depth, capable of receiving the overflow of the Nile at its rising, and preventing the flooding of houses and gardens; when the river falls, the lake again discharges the water by a canal at both mouths, and is available for irrigation. There are regulators at both ends for controlling the inflow and outflow."

Diodorus Siculus, writing at the same time, says: "King Mœris constructed a lake which is amazingly useful and incredibly large. For as the rising of the Nile is irregular, and the fertility of the country depends on its uniformity, he dug the lake for the reception of the superfluous water, and he constructed a canal from the river to the lake 80 furlongs in length, and 300 feet in breadth."

Sir Hanbury Brown is of the opinion that the lake covered the whole of the modern Fayoum below the level of the contour which is 22½ metres above mean sea level. "The common Nile shells," says Sir William Willcocks in his suggestive work, "The channel more than kept pace with the rising level of the Nile. Eventually the silting up exceeded the rise, and at an accelerated rate, the canal became weaker and weaker, and the Fayoum province gradually occupied the site of the lake. Lake Mœris had lasted over two thousand years."

"The connection between the Nile and the germ of the future Lake Mœris was in existence in King Mene's time, as I have been informed by Professor Sayce, but it was King Amenemhê't of the XIIth dynasty who widened and deepened the canal, cleared away the rocky barriers, and converted the trifling lake of King Mene's time into the mighty inland sea which controlled the highest floods of the Nile. Those ancient Pharaohs were giants in hydraulic engineering. They were moreover as wise as they were courageous."

Sir Hanbury Brown has well described the action of the lake. It has a surface of 2,500 square kilometres, and being drained



FESTIVAL OF THE NILE AT CAIRO.
(From Norden's "Travels in Egypt and Nubia," 1757.)

Sir Hanbury Brown, in his work on the Fayoum and Lake Mœris, reproduces some interesting extracts from the works of classic writers relating to the lake.

Herodotus, writing about B.C. 450, was the first to describe the lake: "Now the labyrinth being such as I have described, the lake named that of Mœris causes still greater astonishment, on the bank of which the labyrinth was built. The water in the lake is not derived from local sources, for the earth in that part is excessively dry and waterless, but it is brought in from the Nile by a canal. It takes six months filling, and six months flowing back. During the six months of the return flow it yields a talent of silver every day to the treasury, and during the flow twenty minæ for the fish."

Strabo, writing in B.C. 20, remarks: "It has also a remarkable lake called the Lake Mœris, large enough to be called a sea, and resembling the open sea in colour. Thus the lake of Assouan Reservoir and Lake Mœris," in which he supports his colleague's opinion, "are to be met with in myriads at any point in this contour round the Fayoum that one cares to look for them. The ordinary high flood level of Kushesha basin to-day is 26½ metres above mean sea. In Amenemhê't's time, which was four thousand years ago, the level was four metres lower, or at 22½ metres above mean sea. This was the highest possible level the lake could attain in his day. In the course of time, the level of the Nile valley really rose by about 10 centimetres per century, but the frequent occasion on which the canal was left closed during poor and low floods silted up the channel and made it less capacious. As there are no Nile shells above the contour of 22½ metres above mean sea (except a few on the south side of the lake, which have evidently been blown up by the north-west wind in sand drifts), it is evident that the gradual silting up of the back into the Nile and kept at a low level it was able to take from a very high flood 20 milliards of cubic metres of water. It was quite capable of reducing a very high flood to moderate dimensions; and if injuriously or maliciously opened in a low flood it was capable of depriving Lower Egypt of any flood irrigation at all.

A papyrus in the Gizeh Palace contains a plan of Lake Mœris together with the canal connecting it with the Nile. From some hieroglyphic explanations appended to the drawing by the draughtsman, "it appears," says Brugsche, "that the lake was sometimes called She, *i.e.*, 'basin' or 'lake'; sometimes She-uer, 'the great lake basin,' or 'Mi-uer.' From the most usual designation, She, the country was called Ta-She, 'the land of the lake,' of which the Arab Coptic word, 'Fayoum,' is an exact translation. Another appellation of the lake, including the canal, is Hunt, 'the water dam,' or 'weir.' The

place at which the canal leading from the Nile entered the valley formed by the great mountain basin of the Fayoum was called Ape-Tosh, 'the defile of the land of the lake.' Here was the opening (sluice) of the canal, the La-Hunt, from which word certainly comes the modern name of the place El-Lahun, which lies near the spot in question. The same word is beyond all doubt hidden in the name of Labyrinth, the Lape-ro-hunt, that is, 'the temple of the sluice of the canal.' On the western side of the canal lay the capital of the old 'country of the lake,' in which the kings of the XIIth dynasty founded temples and raised obelisks to the crocodile-headed Sebek and kindred deities. Situated in the neighbourhood of the present capital of the Fayoum, called Medinet-el-Fayoum, the city bore in ancient times the name Shat (canal ?) or Pa-Sebek, *i.e.*, the dwelling of Sebek; whence the Greeks called it by the corresponding name of Crocodilopolis, or 'the city of the crocodile.'"

year 14, under the reign of His Majesty King Amenemhê't III., the ever living." At this time, according to Lepsius, the highest rise was nearly 23 feet above the greatest height of the inundation in these days, and the average height was about 12 feet above that of to-day. In the remote desert districts of what now constitutes the Soudan wells were sunk along the tracts of the trading routes to supply the needs of travellers. An inscription still extant on one of the ancient monuments tells in simple language the story of the construction of some of these desert wells:—

"Then spake the king's son of the miserable land of Cush, saying thus before the king: '(the land) is in this state. It is accursed for want of water since the time of Ra. People die of thirst in it. All former kings wished to bore wells in it, but they were not successful. King Seti I. also did the same. He had a well bored 120 cubits deep in his time, but they abandoned it, for no water made its appearance. If then now thou

on (which) thou shalt (carry out thy mission.' The scribe did) just as he was bidden. Behold, he assembled the people (which were skilful in boring, that they should work and form a well, which should furnish water to those who travelled) the road to the land of Akita. Never was the like done since the earlier kings. (And of the water which streamed out brooks were formed, and) fishermen from the islands in the neighbourhood of the lagoons of Natho enjoyed themselves, for they built (small boats and made use of the . . . . . .) as a rudder with the wind.

"Then there came the bearer of a letter from the king's son of the miserable land of Cush (about the well, to say to the king: 'All has in fact been done) that thy Majesty has spoken with his own mouth. There has appeared water out of it 1w cubits deep. There were 4 cubits in it . . . . ? . . . . the depth . . . . . they . . . . out as was the intention of the work. The god has inclined



1. END OF BAHR EL YOUSSEF, MEDINET-EL-FAYOUM.

2. WATER-WHEELS IN MEDINET-EL-FAYOUM.
These wheels supply the whole town from the Bahr el Youssef Canal, and are said to be the only ones in Egypt driven by the current.

3. ON THE BAHR EL YOUSSEF.

Lake Mœris, though greatly diminished in size, appears to have survived much in its original form until the first century of the Christian era. At or about this period, owing to the neglect of the embankments, the water broke out into the salt lake Birket-el-Karoun, previously referred to, and the two small pyramids which had hitherto been surrounded with water then stood on dry ground. Nearly two thousand years later, as we shall see, this remarkable work of the ancient Egyptians suggested to the modern race of hydraulic engineers the construction of a similar project of basin irrigation in Wady Rayan, a depression in the Libyan hills immediately south of Fayoum.

Apart from Lake Mœris there are abundant traces of the elaborate care taken by the Pharaohs to supply water to the thirsty land. In the Delta innumerable canals were cut, and their repair was a matter of constant and careful regulation. Traces exist in Nubia of works undertaken there by Amenemhê't III., whose work in connection with Lake Mœris has already been dealt with. In the rocks of Semneh and Kimmeh is to be found this inscription:—"Height of the Nile in the

thyself wouldest speak to thy father, the Nile-god Hapu, the father of the gods: "Let the water come up on the mountain," he will do all that thou sayest, yea, indeed, all which thou hast designed will be accomplished before us, and not only according to hearsay because thy fathers the gods love thee more than all kings which have been since the time of Ra.'

"Says the king to the princes: 'If all is true that ye have spoken, and water has not been opened in that country since the time of the god, as ye have said, then I will bore a well there, to afford water perpetually, yea! that the well may be under the command of the father Amen-Ra, the Theban god, and of Horus, the lords of the land of Nubia, that their hearts may be fixed in love. I will therefore appoint that it be called after (their name.' And the princes) praised their lord and worshipped him, and fell prostrate before him (the king), and raised shouts of joy to the heights of heaven.

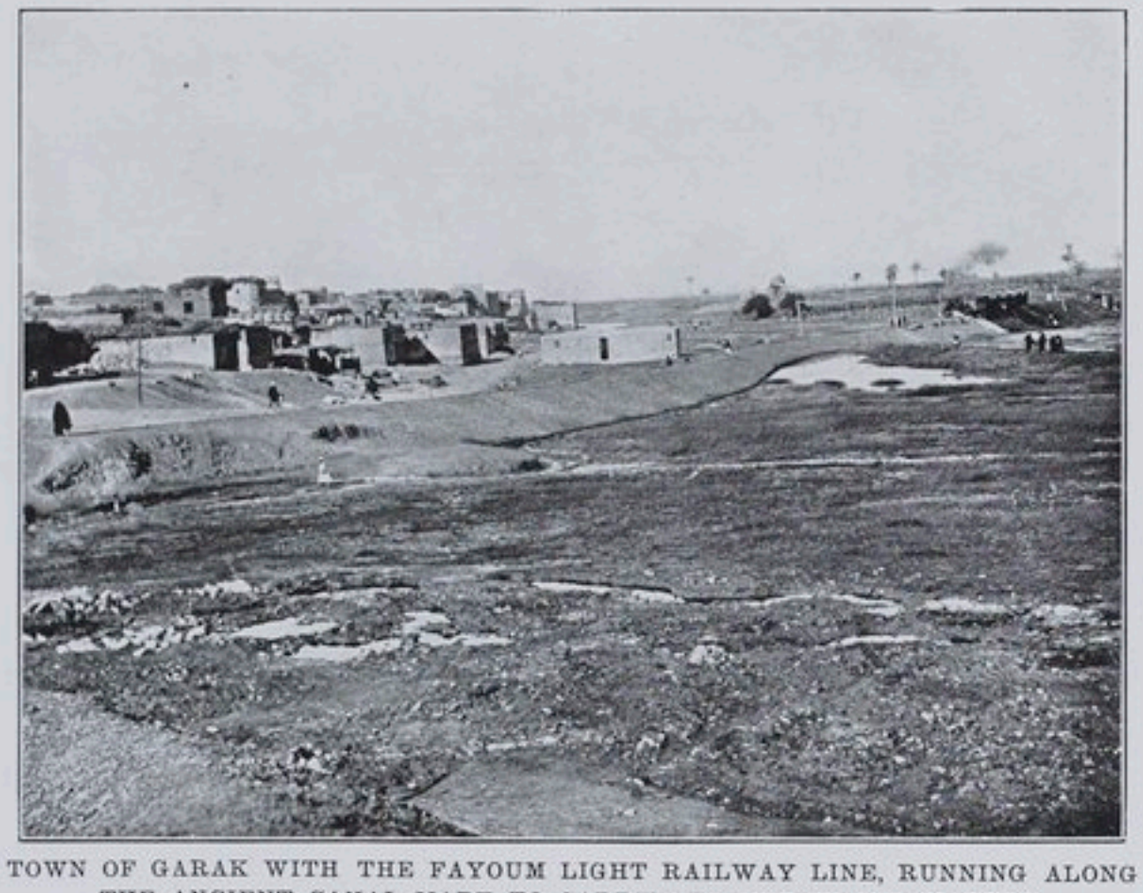
"Then spake the king to a royal scribe (who was near him: 'Prepare thyself and betake thyself to the) road to the land of Akita. Let the second day of the month be the day

his heart favourable through thy love. Never has such a thing happened (since the time of the god Ra).'

"(And the inhabitants of) Akita made joyful music on great drums (?) Those who had diseased eyes (washed themselves with the water and were healed. They all sang: 'Hail) to the king! The water which was in the depth was obedient to him. He hath opened the water on the (mountain). And they offered thanks to him through the king's son, because of his mission. That was more pleasant to (the heart of the king than all else. Thus then were) his plans well carried out. Beautiful was the acknowledgment which (the inhabitants of the district) uttered. A road was made from this well to the well of Ramses Meri-Amen, the conqueror (in the land . . . .)."

To this day remains of some of the old wells, constructed probably four thousand years ago, are to be seen on the old road between Coptos on the Nile and Kosseir on the Red Sea.

The Romans, with their strong utilitarianism, were drawn irresistibly to the admiring contemplation of the irrigation works of their



TOWN OF GARAK WITH THE FAYOUM LIGHT RAILWAY LINE, RUNNING ALONG THE ANCIENT CANAL MADE TO CARRY OFF THE FLOOD WATERS.

great predecessors. Successive Emperors who journeyed up the Nile took a keen interest in the evidences they found of the care taken to turn the Nile waters to the largest practical account, and they were inspired by them to improve and extend many of the canals. Under the prefect Petronius an especially active irrigation policy was pursued. By his order the Roman soldiers were employed during their leisure hours in clearing out the canals and repairing the embankments. It was at this period that the famous Nilometer on the island of Elephantine was constructed. This is a structure reared above a flight of stone steps which run down into the river. On the wall by the side is cut a scale to measure the rise of the water. The record still remains of the state of the river in the years between the reigns of Augustus and Severus. The maximum rise registered is 25 cubits and 4 hand breadths, and the minimum 21 cubits and 3 hand breadths. The existing building erected over the Nilometer was the work of the early Arab conquerors of Egypt. It is, indeed, one of the earliest specimens of Arabian architecture extant, having been completed, according to Mr. Lane, as early as the year A.D. 861. The interior of the building is 18 feet square, and contains on each of its sides a recess about 6 feet wide and 3 feet deep surmounted by a pointed arch, a remarkably early example of that style of building construction. Over each of the arches is an inscription of passages of one short line from the Koran in old Kufu characters, and a similar inscription above these surrounds the apartment or well.

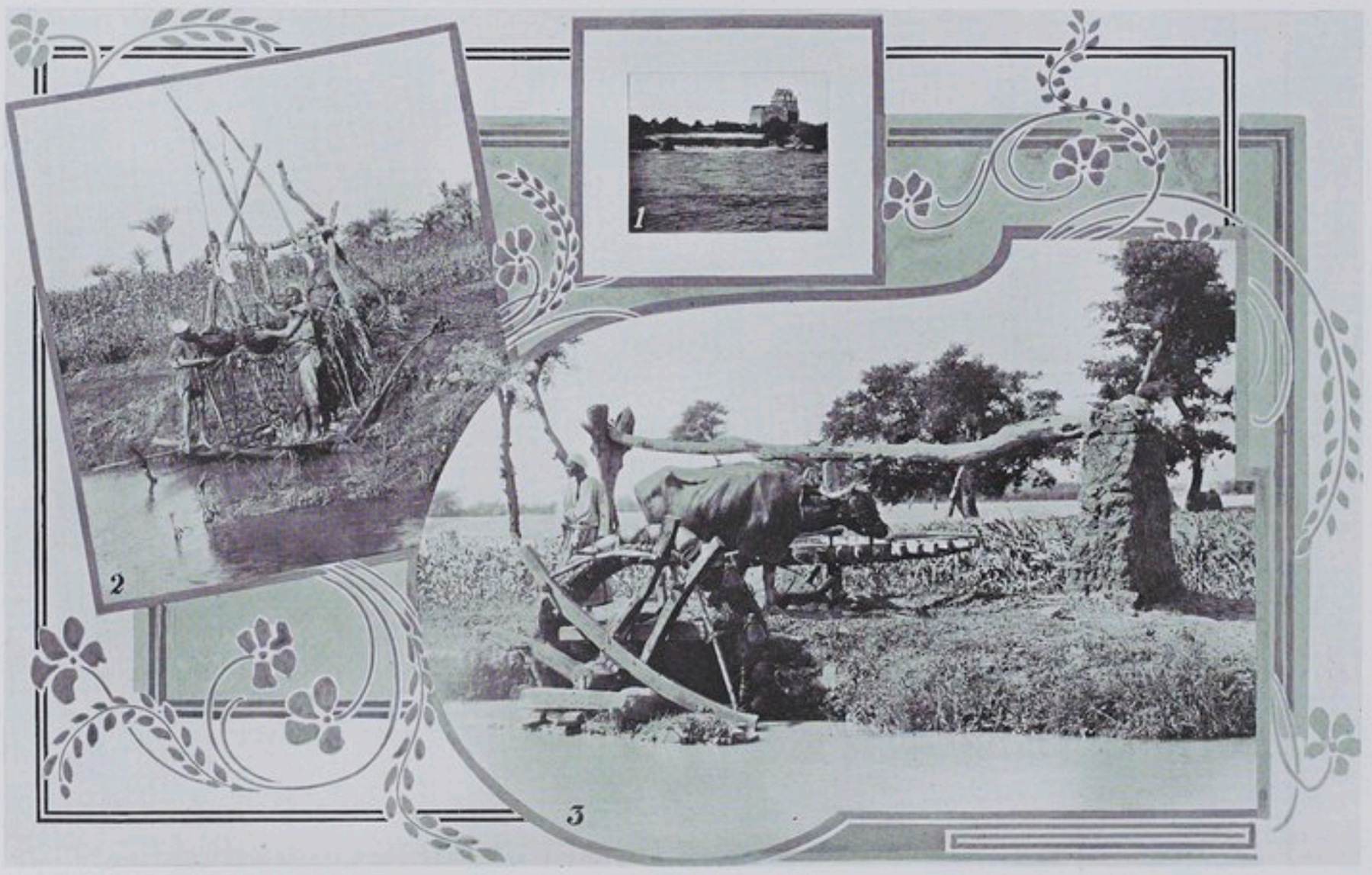
Another work of the Roman period was the reconstruction of the canal from the Nile near Bubastis to the Bitter Lakes which had been made by Necho and a second time excavated by Philadelphus. The scheme of reconstruction was carried through in the time of Trajan (A.D. 98–117). "The stream of the Nile," says Sharpe, in his "History of Egypt," "was deserting the Bubastite branch which was less navigable than formerly; and the engineers now changed the greater part of the canal's bed. They thought it wiser to bring the water from a higher part of the Nile, so that the current in the canal might run into the Red Sea instead of out and its waters might still be fresh and useful to agriculture. It now began at Babylon, opposite Memphis, and passing by Heliopolis, Scenæ Veteranorum, Heresopolis, and Serapion joined the Upper Bitter Lake and thence entered the Red Sea at a town which, taking its name from the locks, was called Clismon, about ten miles to the south of Arsinoe. . . . We have no knowledge of how long the care of the imperial prefects left this new canal open and in use. The encroachment of the sands would fill it up whenever it was neglected; it was, perhaps, one of the first of the Roman works that went to decay; and when we find the Christian pilgrims sailing along it seven centuries later on their way from England to the Holy Sepulchre it had been again opened by the Mahommedan conquerors of Egypt."

The Arabs, with all their hatred of the idolatrous practices of the Egyptians, were not ashamed to follow them in paying their tribute to the majesty of Father Nile. Their reverent care for the Nilometer already referred to went hand in hand with the observance of particular ceremonies of which the river was the object. The greatest festival of all was the celebration, on the night of June 17, of what is called "Leylet En-Nuktah" or "The Night of the Drop," the belief being that on that evening a miraculous drop then falls into the Nile and causes it to rise. Lane, in his deeply interesting work on the "Manners and Customs of the Egyptians," gives an elaborate description of the ceremonies which marked the occasion in his day. As the festival has changed little in its main essentials since the time of which he wrote, some sixty or seventy years ago, it will be of interest to give a condensed version of his description. Astrologers having calculated the precise moment when the drop is to fall, "the Crier of the Nile" goes out to proclaim the glad tidings. He does so in a sort of litany, the responses to which are made by a boy who accompanies him. The proclamation is repeated daily until the day preceding that fixed for the ceremony. The chief feature of this is the cutting of the dam which closes the mouth of the Canal of Cairo. The dam is of earth, very broad at the bottom and diminishing in breadth towards the top, which is flat. In front of the dam is a round pillar in the form of a truncated cone. It is called the "arooseh" or bride, because of a singular tradition which Lane recounts, giving as his authority the Arab historians and more particularly El Makreezee. The story goes that in the year of the conquest of Egypt by the Arabs, Amrou, the Arab general, was told that the Egyptians were accustomed at the period when the Nile began to rise to deck a young virgin in gay apparel and throw her into the river to obtain a plentiful inundation. This barbarous custom, it is said, he abolished, and the Nile in consequence did not rise in the least degree during the space of nearly three months after the usual period of the commencement of its increase. The people were greatly alarmed thinking that a famine would certainly ensue. Amrou therefore wrote to the Caliph to inform him of what he had done and of the calamity with which Egypt was, in consequence, threatened. Omar returned a brief answer, expressing his approbation of Amrou's conduct, and desiring him upon the receipt of the letter to throw a note which it enclosed into the Nile. The purport of this note was as follows: "From Abdallah Omar, Prince of the Faithful, to the Nile of Egypt. If thou flow of thine own accord, flow not; but if it be God, the One, the Mighty, who causeth thee to flow, we implore God, the One, the Mighty, to make thee flow." Amrou did as he was commanded, and the Nile, we are told, rose 16 cubits in the following night.

The cutting of the dam takes place in the presence of a distinguished gathering of notables and of an immense throng of spectators who swarm about the banks and fill numerous boats upon the river. Among the craft in the vicinity of the entrance to the canal is a very large boat called the Akabeh which is gaily decorated with streamers and various ornamental devices. Popularly it is supposed to represent the vessel used by the Egyptians on the occasion when they sacrificed a virgin to the Nile. When the eventful morning arrives a large number of workmen commence to cut the dam. They use for the purpose a kind of hoe, slicing away the earth until only about a foot of soil remains. Shortly before this interesting stage is reached the Governor of Cairo with other high officials arrive, and the formal proceedings begin. The Cadi writes a document to attest the fact of the river's having risen to the height sufficient for the opening of the canal and of the operation of the cutting of the dam having been efficiently performed. Then the Governor proceeds to throw a purse of small gold coins to the labourers. A boat is then propelled against the narrow ridge of earth, and, breaking through the impediment, passes through it and descends with the torrent. The remains of the dam are quickly washed away by the influx of the water into the bed of the canal, and numerous other boats enter, pass along the canal throughout the whole length of the city, and some of them several miles further, and return. Formerly it was the practice for the great officers of State to throw money into the canal to be picked out by the populace, but owing to the fatalities which were caused amongst

the scrambling crowds the custom was discontinued.

It was not until recent years that the various influences which control the Nile were fully revealed. For ages the sources of the great waterway were a problem which exercised the minds of geographers and scientists. The ancients were divided between two theories, one of which held that the river rose in the Atlas Mountains in Morocco, and the other that there was a connection between the upper reaches of the stream and the Niger. Coming to more modern times we find writers in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries ventilating the belief that the sources were placed in the Mountains of the Moon. This range has since been speculatively identified with the Ruwenzori Mountains between



1. "BORG" OR PIGEON HOUSE AT EL DEIR WATERFALLS.
2. DRAWING WATER FOR THE FIELDS. 3 "SAKIEH" OR PRESENT-DAY WATER-WHEEL.

Lakes Albert and Albert Edward, and assuming that theory to be sound, the early African geographers were not very far from the truth. It was left to a band of British explorers whose investigations were commenced within the last half century to place beyond cavil the true sources of the Nile. Speke and Grant, on a journey made from the east coast in 1862, came upon the great inland sea which they named Victoria Nyanza, and, following up their discovery, they were able to make it clear that it was from this vast natural reservoir that the White Nile drew its main supply. Sir Samuel Baker, working up stream in the following year, discovered the lake Albert Nyanza, and so added another link to the chain of facts which were ultimately to lay bare the great mystery of the river's origin. It was, however, not until 1874 that the actual course of the upper portion of the river, now known as the Bahr el Jebel, was scientifically traced by two British Lieutenants, Watson and Chippendall, R.E. The Blue Nile, which was for a long period regarded as the main stream, was explored by Bruce in 1770, and its sources were accurately fixed by him as being near Lake Tsana in Abyssinia. But to this day the actual course of the stream between Lake Tsana and Famaka on the borders of the Soudan has never been scientifically traced. The Atbara rises in the Abyssinian hills near Chelga, where it is known as the Goang. Its course up to its junction with the Setil was roughly known before 1864, when Sir Samuel Baker explored both rivers pretty thoroughly, but the courses of the two streams within the Soudan has only in recent years been clearly demonstrated by scientifically conducted surveys. The Sobat, another important Nile tributary, though explored by Marno and Junker some forty years ago, was not properly surveyed until after 1898, when Captain Gamble and other British officers devoted their attention to tracing the direction of various narrow rivers such as the Baro, Pibor, Akobo, &c., which join the main stream from South-West Abyssinia, east of Nasser. The course of the Upper Pibor was explored by Lieutenant Comyn as late as September, 1904. To complete the survey of the water system of the Upper Nile basin we must make a brief reference to the Bahr el Ghazal. This river was familiar to the slave dealers of old times and its course was laid down by various explorers between 1864 and 1878, but a good deal of exploratory work yet remains to be accomplished before the western connections of the stream are properly fixed. The southern effluents, too, have still to be thoroughly traced in continuation of the work of Junker, Marchand, and other travellers.

A brief description of the course of the Nile, condensed from Sir William Garstin's lucid and exhaustive "Report on the Basin of the Upper Nile," may be given as an appropriate introduction to the account of the phenomenon of the annual rise of the river upon which the whole system of Egyptian irrigation is based. After leaving the Albert Nyanza, the White Nile (or, as it is there called, the Bahr el Jebel) flows for 110 miles in a deep broad arm, with scarcely any velocity or slope, past Wadelai and Dufile to Nimule, and then, after a short and troubled course, between high mountain ranges, tosses over the Fola Rapids in a channel only 50 yards broad. From here it continues in a torrent to about Rejaf. At this point it is 7 feet deep at low Nile, and 15 feet at flood time, discharging between 18,000 to 60,000 cubic feet per second. The regulating effects of the great lakes are well felt here. From Rejaf to Bor, 112 miles, the river is mainly in one channel with a rapid fall. From Bor to the junction with Lake No, 384 miles, the river meanders along in numerous marshy channels, with a very gentle slope. The main channel always used is known as the Bahr el Jebel. In these reaches are the dams of living vegetation known as the "Sudd." On one stretch the true channel is still blocked with sudd, and

a false channel a little to the westwards has to be used for about 20 miles. Lake No, just referred to, is a shallow expanse of water surrounded on all sides by reedy marsh. It forms a reservoir for the sluggish streams that drain the extensive plateau, forming probably about 60 square miles. The Bahr el Ghazal enters Lake No at its western extremity, and the Bahr el Jebel passes through its eastern end. In the stretch between Lake No and the Sobat, 81 miles, the current is slow, and the channel occasionally blocked by sudd. At the Sobat confluence the river changes its name, and now becomes the Bahr el Abiad or White Nile. From this point down to Omdurman, 530 miles, it receives no more perennial affluents, but several large Khors join it on the east bank between Kodok and Renk, chief of which are Khor Adar and Khor Rau. The White Nile flows sluggishly along with a low velocity and gentle slope. The colour and limpidity of its water show very little change throughout the year, and the variations between the level of high and low supply are very small, being not more than 2 to 6 feet. The depth of the river in this stretch ranges from 15 feet at low Nile to 21 feet in flood. In parts, the channel in flood time is often of immense width. The result of ninety-four measurements made in June, 1862, show the mean width of the river flood to be 1,870 yards. In many places, however, the channel is more than two miles wide, and in general appearance it resembles a lake rather than a river. Its banks, more particularly the western shore, are very low, and in flood its waters spread for several miles over them. Their average height is not more than 8 to 10 feet above low-water level, and the maximum difference between high and low supply is not more than 6 feet.

The river is at its lowest by the beginning or the middle of April. The rainfall in the south then causes a constant and gradual rise. But the flood does not reach its maximum before the beginning of November. The velocity of the current when in full flood is not more than 2½ to 3 miles an hour, whilst in winter this is reduced to 1¼ miles an hour. At Omdurman half Nile usually occurs about the middle of July; high Nile at the end of August or the beginning of September, lasting about a month; half Nile the end of November, and lowest Nile the end of April. The Blue Nile is at its lowest in May, and highest about the end of August. The result of careful measurements during the past few years has been to prove that when the Blue Nile is in flood, and generally when its discharge exceeds 5,000 metres cubic per second, its waters hold back those of the White Nile, and owing to the increased depth of this river, due to the rise in the water levels, the volume coming from the south floods the sudd marshes right and left of the channel, and thus reduces the discharge of the White Nile by about 50 per cent. The average difference between high and low Nile here is 22 feet (17½ to 26 feet).

The river below Khartoum flows steadily on till it reaches the Sixth or Shabluka Cataract. Below this it is not disturbed, except for the rapids of the so-called Fifth or El-Homar and Bagara Cataracts till it passes Abu Hamed and enters the Fourth or Belal Cataract some way below this point. Below it there is an open stretch past Dongola to the Third or Hannek Cataract, shortly followed by the Kajbar Rapids. A rocky channel full of small islands and small rapids increasing in size and importance as the river proceeds, is entered some 80 miles below Kajbar, and through the Batn el Hagar the river rumbles along until, after passing the Second or Amka Cataract it emerges past Halfa in a broad and steady stream which lasts until it arrives at the dam and the First Cataract (Shellal) of Assouan. From here onwards there are no further obstacles (except sandbanks and canals) till, *viâ* the Delta of Egypt, the Mediterranean Sea is gained.

Such is this mighty waterway as described by the official experts who have done so much in recent years to turn to practical advantage the rich stream of the life-giving element poured down by "Afric's Sunny Fountains." The precise effect of the river discharges remains to be described, and we cannot do better than follow the description which Sir William Garstin has given of this interesting phenomenon. In the months of April and May the torrents which feed the Bahr el Jebel are at the lowest if not actually dry, and the discharges of the Blue Nile and the Sobat have shrunk to very small limits. It follows that at this period of the year practically all the water passing Khartoum is that derived from Lake Albert. In June the Blue Nile begins to rise slowly in consequence of the Abyssinian rainfall. About the same time the Sobat discharge into the White Nile begins to increase. In July the floods in both the Blue



SIR W. E. GARSTIN, G.C.M.G.

Nile and the Sobat increase very rapidly, and in the month of August they attain their maximum. The Atbara, too, at this period is in full flood and brings a large addition to the volume of the Nile north of Khartoum. As the Sobat rises the larger volume of water rushing down that river holds back the smaller and more constant stream which flows along the White Nile. A natural reservoir is thus formed in the Valley of the White Nile upstream of the junction which cannot discharge itself until the Sobat flow has slackened. The Sobat river water thus takes the place of the lakes water for a period from July to October, and it is this stream alone which produces the entire volume of water which passes down the White Nile to Khartoum. During the month of July the flood water reaching Egypt is entirely derived from the Sobat, the Blue Nile, and the Atbara. In August occurs one of the most interesting phenomena connected with the Nile system. The Blue Nile is then in full flood, and attains to a volume some ten times as great as that brought down from the Sobat by the channel of the White Nile. The Blue Nile now plays an exactly similar part in regard to the White Nile, although upon an infinitely larger scale to that of the Sobat in relation to the Bahr el Jebel. As soon as the Blue Nile discharge at Khartoum exceeds a certain volume, the flood holds back entirely the waters of the White Nile, ponding them up and forming an immense reservoir which floods the White Nile Valley for nearly two hundred miles. This ponding up is maintained until the Blue Nile discharge again sinks below the volume mentioned, a phenomenon which generally occurs in September. Immediately the fall reaches the requisite level the impounded water in the White Nile is set free and passed on to the north. As the Blue Nile discharge decreases, which it does rapidly, and the fall in the river commences, its place is taken by that of the White Nile. In consequence of the large amount stored in the reservoir the discharge of the latter river at Khartoum steadily increases until the end of the year. Meanwhile the Sobat has also been falling rapidly, and the water stored in the smaller reservoir to the south has been passed down the White Nile and helps to maintain its supply. In November, when the Sobat has fallen very low, the lake water brought down by the Bahr el Gebel again becomes the main supply of the White Nile. The amount of water held up by these two reservoirs is, however, so considerable that throughout the early winter months the volume passing Khartoum is actually greater than that which came down from Lake Albert, diminished though it has been by the loss caused by evaporation in the great swamps. The comprehension of this wonderful automatic arrangement by which while one river is passing on a large volume of water, the other is storing up its discharge, Sir William Garstin considers to be one of the most important results of the studies of the Nile since 1898.

The history of modern irrigation works in Egypt dates back to the early years of Mehemet Ali's reign. That remarkable man, when he had established his capital at Alexandria, saw clearly that if the ancient glories of Alexander's city were to be revived it was essential that a direct means of communication between the coast and Cairo should be established. So, with the aid of European engineers, he set about the construction of the Mahmoudieh Canal. Forced labour was almost as a matter of course resorted to in the execution of this undertaking. Every village and town was required to supply its quota of labourers, and in this way as many as 250,000 were brought together. They came ill provided with tools, and according to one writer they were compelled to scratch the earth into baskets with their hands only. Such were the hardships to which they were subjected, that more than 20,000 of the number are said to have perished during the few months that the work lasted. As the unfortunates died their bodies were cast into the earth from the excavations and covered by the soil dug from the trench by the feverish hands of the survivors. In this manner the canal throughout its entire length, some forty miles, was made to flow through what is practically a vast graveyard. Even the enormous advantages which followed upon the execution of the work in the wide extension of the area of cultivable land, and the cheapening of the system of transit through this part of the Delta, cannot be considered to atone for the enormity of the crime which was perpetrated by the despotic Mehemet Ali in the construction of the canal.

Another of Mehemet Ali's great conceptions in the domain of irrigation is the Delta Barrage. Napoleon Buonaparte is said to have been one of the first to see the value of a dam at the point where the river divides, and possibly, had not his career in the East been cut short by the British, he would have given his

serious attention to the matter. Mehemet Ali, prompted probably by his French advisers, took the work in hand in 1833, employing as his chief engineer Mougel Bey, one of the many able Frenchmen who had been attracted to Cairo to seek employment in the Pasha's service. The design which Mougel Bey put in hand occupied many years in the execution. After the foundations had been laid Mehemet Ali, who had other and, as he thought, more important uses for his money, stopped the work, and it was not resumed until 1842. Intermittently the operations continued during Mehemet Ali's lifetime, but the work was left at his death far from complete. Abbas Pasha took up the project in grudging fashion. He did not appreciate the repeated demands that were made for money to finance the operations, and did his best to evade them. A curious story in this connection was told to Edwin De Leon, the author of "The Khedive's Egypt," by one of the French engineers engaged upon the barrage. Summoned by the Viceroy hurriedly to one of his desert palaces, the engineer on presenting himself was greeted as follows :—

"You are always troubling me about your barrage," said Abbas, "and an idea has struck me. Those great masses of stone, the Pyramids, are standing there useless. Why not take the stone from them to do the work? Is it not a good idea?"

"Pull down the Pyramids!" exclaimed the amazed engineer, aghast that his name should go down to posterity in such a connection.

"Yes," impatiently repeated Abbas. "Why not? Are you silly enough to attach any reverence to those ugly, useless piles of stone? See if you cannot make use of them for the barrage. They have helped to build Cairo already."

The Frenchmen made his salaam and retired in despair. What was he to do? The obstinacy of Abbas was ever proof against argument, and he brooked no contradiction to his will, however extravagant the whim that prompted it. To refuse to carry out his orders would be equivalent to losing his place, to obey would, to his excited imagination, stamp his name with an immortality of infamy, as the destroyer of the Pyramids. As he tossed restlessly on his bed all night, a bright idea flashed upon him. He would appeal to Abbas's avarice, to escape the desecration of the great historic monuments of Egypt. Taking a large sheet of paper he covered it over with long rows of figures and calculations, and armed with this returned to the Viceroy the next day.

"What is all this?" growled Abbas glancing suspiciously at the sheet covered with what to him were cabalistic figures, and frowning darkly on the engineer. "What rubbish is this you have brought me?"

"Highness," was the reply, "after receiving your order to remove the stones from the Pyramids for the barrage, I deemed it my duty to make a rough calculation of the cost, and here it is."

"Well, well," said Abbas impatiently, "what do I know about your hieroglyphics? Tell me what will it cost?"

The engineer immediately named an enormous sum for the cost of taking down and transferring the stones ; and after some severe cross-examination from the Viceroy, who seemed suspicious of his good faith, finally persuaded him to abandon the design of pulling down the Pyramids.

Said Pasha took a great interest in the barrage. He was, indeed, so enthusiastic on behalf of the scheme at one time that he founded a city on the site and ordered a silver medal to be struck to commemorate the event. But his eagerness to associate his reign with the completion of this great public work did not last, and some time before his death the work upon the barrage was suspended. It was not until 1862 that the project was actually finished. By that time something like three millions had been spent. The vastness of the expenditure is a measure of the magnitude of the work that had been accomplished. It is in fact one of the most stupendous irrigation works in the world, a worthy forerunner of those not less remarkable barriers which British engineers have since erected further up the Nile. The barrage is in two main sections, one across the Rosetta branch of the Nile, and the other is athwart the Damietta branch of the river. The former is 1,525 feet in length, and includes sixty-one arches of 16 feet 4 inches span and two locks of the respective widths of 40 and 50 feet. The Damietta section is 1,787 feet long, and has a similar number of arches and locks as the other portion of the barrage. A large sluice iron gate was to have been fitted in each archway, which when lowered would dam the waters back to a height of 15 feet above low Nile level, and when raised would have allowed the floods to pass down unimpeded. The foundations, however, had been so carelessly laid that when the work was subjected to a head of water in 1867 it showed such unmistakable signs of falling that all attempts to use it for its original purpose were abandoned. At a subsequent period Mr. John Fowler, the eminent English engineer, when in Egypt in connection with the question of railway construction in the Soudan, was consulted on the question of making the barrage effective, and he elaborated a scheme for strengthening the works by supplying new foundations. But nothing came of his proposals, and some time afterwards the Government went off on a totally different tack owing to the presentation of a report by their then advisers recommending the practical abandonment of the barrage and the establishment at vast cost of a system of pumping. Fortunately the Egyptian Government were saved from the blunder involved in the adoption of this proposal by the advent of the British irrigation engineers.

The circumstances under which British irrigation engineers were brought to Egypt form an interesting chapter in the history of the British supervision of Egyptian affairs. When by the decrees of fate and the arbitrament of war Great Britain had been driven to accept responsibility for the government of Egypt, it became quickly evident, to use the words of Sir Hanbury Brown in his paper read before the Society of Arts on February 29, 1908, "That a sound administration of finance and an intelligent direction of irrigation were the two things to set the country on its legs." Lord Cromer (or Sir Evelyn Baring, as he then was) in the capacity of a financial expert inspired confidence that whatever was done and whoever might be the adviser of the Khedive in the Financial Department, there was good security that soundness would be the characteristic of his policy. But it was otherwise with irrigation. "For the proper control of Egypt water supply there was absolute need of a man who had gained experience in the practical working of canal systems. So a well-known irrigation engineer of India, on his way home to England, was waylaid by Lord Dufferin in the Suez Canal and captured for Egypt. Sir Colin Moncrieff was the man." "No better choice could have been made," adds Sir Hanbury Brown. "In his position as head of the Irrigation Department he had need of broad views of irrigation matters. He required in addition the attributes of an administrator of consummate tact to qualify him to deal, on the one hand with his own staff officers—who were at times unduly restive, being animals of high mettle—and, on the other, with Consuls-General and their kind, who had various axes of their own which they thought Sir Colin might be in a position to grind." All these qualities the chief of the Irrigation Department possessed. Trained in that best of all schools of practical statesmanship—the Government of India—he had had a close acquaintance with the thorny problems of administration presented in a country in which enlightened and necessary measures for the good of the community have often to be carried in the face of the apathy, if not the actual opposition, of the inhabitants. He had, moreover, been long engaged on the widest stage that the modern world presents in working out the principles of hydraulic engineering in their application to agriculture. Young, earnest, and sympathetic, he was precisely the man to head a new movement for enlarging the boundaries over which the beneficent influences of the Nile were exercised.

With Sir Colin Moncrieff at an early date were associated in the work of the new Egyptian Irrigation Department, several assistants, like him, servants of the Indian Government. First to arrive were the late Lieut.-Col. J. C. Ross and Sir William Willcocks in December, 1883, Captain (now Sir) Hanbury Brown and Mr. E. W. P. Foster followed in April, 1884, and Sir William Garstin in October, 1885. For administrative purposes the country was divided into five circles of irrigation (three in the Delta and two in Upper Egypt), of which four were entrusted to the officials from India. Before he had got his staff about him Sir Colin Moncrieff made an exhaustive survey of the entire Valley of the Nile as far as it was accessible to him. His investigations led to an interesting conclusion in reference to the Delta Barrage. This great work, in the report of the Egyptian Irrigation Department of 1883, had been declared to be valueless save as a bridge and a means of distributing the river discharge between the two branches, and a recommendation had been made that additional water should be supplied to Lower Egypt by means of pumps at an initial cost of £E700,000 and an annual outlay of £E248,550. Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff thought that he could see possibilities in this discredited work upon which so much public money had been lavished. He accordingly, towards the end of 1883, appointed Sir William Willcocks to make a thorough examination of the barrage and put it to the necessary tests to determine its adaptability for additional irrigation purposes. The duty imposed upon the young engineer, as he then was, was an arduous one, calculated to bring out his best professional qualities. At the outset an attempt was made to improve the head of water by stopping up the numerous leaks in the gates of the barrage. The Irrigation Department then was not so well supplied as it is at present, and, as Sir Colin Moncrieff has told us, some very curious materials were used for the purpose. "Close to the barrage there was an old palace belonging to one of the Khedives ; nobody ever went there except rats, bats, and moths. It possessed some splendid big rooms with divans all round them covered with smart French brocades, damasks and silks, more or less worm-eaten. His friend the engineer saw them one day and said they were the very things for blocking up the holes in the gates. Accordingly the divans were stripped of their cushions and silks and brocades, the holes were blocked one after another, and the cotton crop was saved."

In his book, Lord Milner gives an interesting

account of the extraordinary effect produced by the operations of the British engineers. "The discharge of the Rayah Menufia," he says, "was doubled, and that of the Rayah Behera and of the three Sefi canals, which draw from the river between Cairo and the barrage, greatly increased. Water in abundance made its appearance as late as the middle of June in districts where it had not been seen for years except during flood time. And not only was the quantity increased, but owing to the delivery being at a higher level, an immense saving was effected in the trouble and cost of lifting. The cotton crop for 1884 was nearly half a million kantars above the highest figures of previous years."

It soon became evident, however, that no great good could result without the excavation of thorough-going works, involving a very large expenditure. The feasibility of making an effective job of the repair of the barrage was not doubted by Sir William Willcocks, and his report was in this tenour. But the money difficulty was a serious one, and seemed for a time insuperable. Thanks, however, to the far-seeing genius of Lord Cromer, who by this time was in full control of the Egyptian Administration, the proposal received such an effective backing that at the International Conference, which sat in London in 1884, sanction was given to the raising of a loan of a million sterling for purposes of irrigation, in addition to a sum of eight millions to be allotted to other objects. There was at the time little faith in the scheme of barrage reconstruction outside the circle of professional experts, and years after the Secretary to the Treasury admitted to Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff that he thought it perfect madness to expend the enormous sum that was demanded for this work. It is scarcely necessary to say that the results achieved abundantly justified the views of the engineers and the confidence reposed in them by Lord Cromer.

The amount allotted to the reconstruction of the barrage out of the irrigation loan was half a million. Lieut.-Colonel J. W. Western and the late Mr. A. G. W. Reed came from India to direct the works, which were almost immediately thereafter put in hand. They occupied five working seasons, and it was not until June 16, 1890, that the work below water level was reported complete. The nature of the undertaking which was carried through is clearly explained by Sir Hanbury Brown (who had an important share in the execution of the scheme) in the following passages from his paper at the Society of Arts, already referred to:—

"Before Colonel Western's restoration work, the regulating apparatus was entirely wanting on one section of the barrage, and on the other was incomplete and defective; the foundation platform was full of faults, and traversed by springs, and was in no fit state to serve as a floor to a regulator of the river levels. To remedy this state of things a skin of sound masonry was laid over the old defective floor, with apron extensions up and down stream. At the same time the springs were properly staunched. This difficult piece of work was so skilfully and thoroughly carried out that the barrage was made strong enough to hold up 13 feet head of water.

"But below the new skin which had been formed over and beyond the old floor there still existed the original defects in the foundation material. To consolidate this a rather remarkable operation was carried out. Bores were jumped in the thickness of the piers from the roadway level 51 feet downwards to the underside of the lowest layer of masonry. Into each of the bores cement grout was poured continuously till the grout rose in the bore to roadway level. By this process the cement grout forced itself by the pressure of its own liquid column into all cavities, in or under the floor, and, by its property of setting under water, compacted together all that was loose or disintegrated within its reach. Lastly, weirs have been constructed down stream of the barrage on either branch, with the object of relieving the original structure of some of its work and, at the same time, of increasing its powers of control over the river, so that it has now been made possible to head up the river in summer to an artificial height of 20 feet, instead of 13 feet only. Consequently, every drop of the summer Nile which reaches the head of the Delta is forced into the canals which carry it to the crops to be irrigated. Absolutely no water is allowed to flow past the barrage along the natural channels of the river below it until such time as the rising flood has caused the canals to run with liberal discharges."

The successful execution of the barrage works was attended or followed by highly important consequences. When the first section of the undertaking had been completed, and before the weirs were built, the raising of the level of the river by 13 feet had been enormously beneficial, not only in increasing the water supply but in reducing the labour upon the canals by lessening the silt clearances. Formerly, with a very low stream the periodical removal of accumulations in the channels was an operation of a formidable character, and it was only rendered possible in the then circumstances of Egypt by the persistent enforcement of the *corvée*—the system by which the fellaheen were compelled to labour for a certain period every year upon public works without remuneration. By the raising of the water level at the canal off-takes which followed upon the completion of the barrage, combined with the methods introduced by the new Irrigation Department for lessening the deposit of silt, the cube of earthwork which it was necessary to remove annually had been so reduced that the cost of getting it done by contract instead of by forced labour was brought within the means of the country's resources. In due course the sum of £E400,000, which the irrigation officers estimated was annually required to pay for the necessary work, was provided by the Finance Ministry as soon as the financial state of the country permitted, and so, as Sir Hanbury Brown says, "the corvée came to an end like a bad dream." But it is of course in its purely utilitarian aspect that the improvement has produced the most striking results. Here we may again quote Sir Hanbury Brown, premising that his remarks refer not only to the barrage reconstruction, but to other special works, the whole involving an outlay of £E3,800,000:—

"In consequence of the better water supply obtained in summer by its action, the cotton crop, on which the wealth of Egypt depends, had been doubled, having increased from 3,000,000 to 6,000,000 cwt., or in value from £E7,500,000 to £E15,000,000. As a result also of the greater control obtained over the levels of the rising flood, the timely sowing of the peasant's food crop of maize had been ensured. Further, the cost of raising crops had been lowered in consequence of the reduction of the height to which the water had to be lifted for irrigation. Meantime the cultivated area of Egypt had increased from 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 acres, and the value of land had been doubled; while, at the same time that these benefits were accruing, the land tax had been reduced from £E5,000,000 to £E4,500,000."

Seldom has a great engineering work more brilliantly justified the expectation of its promoters than this reconstruction of the Delta Barrage. Its success, indeed, was a little too overpowering for the administrators, who were endeavouring with inadequate means to provide for Egyptian necessities; for it stimulated a demand for irrigation which could not be immediately satisfied.

Apart from the great work on the barrage, the Irrigation Department had its hands pretty full for years after its establishment in remodelling and reorganising the canal system of the country. One of the most important projects taken in hand and financed out of the proceeds of the million loan was the completion of the third or eastern of the three main canals taking off from the barrage. The work on this was carried through simultaneously with the repair of the dam, and the waterway was opened in the spring of 1890 with the name of "Rayah Tewfikia," in honour of the late Khedive. When the million had been fully expended the department put in a demand for a further grant of £E1,250,000 to carry through extensive drainage works in the Delta, which experience had shown to be necessary, and to improve the Rayah Beheireh, the great western canal. Eventually £E910,000 was voted, the sum being part of the amount set free by the operation for the Conversion of the Privileged Debt in 1890. Out of the proceeds of the grant the irrigation system of the Delta was put on a proper footing, and the officials were able to give some attention to the demands that were coming in from Upper Egypt for the services of the department. Here the call was not for any great work, but for a series of small improvements constituting in the aggregate what are known as "Sharaki" works. The character of these works is well described by Lord Milner in his "England and Egypt." "Sharaki," he says, "is the term which is applied in Egypt to those lands which have, in any given year, to be relieved of all taxation on account of their receiving no water whatever. In Upper Egypt the amount of Sharaki used to be very considerable. It averaged at least 45,000 acres a year, while in exceptionally bad years it reached many times that amount. In 1888, when there was a very low Nile, the loss to the Government in taxes abandoned on account of sharaki was nearly £E300,000. Evidently it was worth while to face even a very large expenditure in order to avoid the recurrence of such disasters, to say nothing of the habitual loss of about £E50,000 from sharaki in average seasons." It was not, however, alone with Sharaki that the irrigation officers concerned themselves. The opportunity was taken to overhaul the canal system of Upper Egypt generally, and to make the methods of basin irrigation there prevailing more effective. The work, which was carried out under the supervision of Colonel Ross, was of a very elaborate character. "He had," says Lord Milner, "constantly to keep in view two distinct objects, not always easily combined. The first was to make sure that every basin—and he was dealing with a hundred and twenty of them, varying in size from five hundred to thirty-five thousand acres—should, even in a year of low Nile, be adequately flooded. The other was to give to every part of each basin, as far as possible, not merely water, but water of the red or fertilising quality. Whether the water he receives is

'red' or 'white' makes a vital difference to the agriculturist of Upper Egypt. The 'red water' (I think we should call it brown) is that which has not yet deposited its precious mud, the annual regeneration of the soil. The 'white water' is that which has already parted with its mud. Land inundated with red water every year for a sufficient time never deteriorates. Land inundated with only white water rapidly becomes exhausted. . . . Were it not for this necessity of flooding the land with water of a certain quality, basin irrigation would be comparatively easy. As it is the filling of the basins is a most complicated business. Very varied means have to be adopted, and a great multiplicity of feeders devised, especially in large basins, in order to distribute the precious mud equally over the land. The number of individual works, such as canal extensions, or widenings, syphons, regulators, culverts, etc., on which the Sharaki grant has been expended, amounts to several hundreds. It required the great scientific attainments, the memory, the minute knowledge of the country, and the mastery of detail which distinguished Colonel Ross, to bring the complicated enterprise to a satisfactory conclusion."

Sir Hanbury Brown, in his paper read at the Society of Arts, already referred to, gives a graphic account of the work of the irrigation officers in the early days of the new department. The difficulties they had to encounter were such as would have discouraged officials trained in a less exacting school than the Indian service. "They had to learn a new language and a new country. They had to assert authority over their own staff of native engineers—no difficult task with the ready backing at headquarters of which they were assured. They had to encounter numerous vested rights and overcome the open or hidden opposition of the native governors of provinces. They had above all to inspire the people with confidence in their honesty and ability." One of the most important duties was to see that water was justly distributed. In "the good old times" before the Britishers appeared, might was right in this matter; the powerful obtained their water, the weak had to go without or at best take the scanty supply that was left after the needs of their betters were supplied. The irrigation officials changed all this. They enforced an absolutely impartial rule under which the poor and helpless had their share equally with the wealthy and influential. Sir Hanbury Brown, in illustration of the character of the influences with which he and his colleagues had to contend in this early period, tells an instructive story. The heirs of Sultan Pasha, one of the most influential men in Middle Egypt, seeking to carry forward the bad old traditions, filled up a poor man's field channel, and thus cut off his water supply. Sir Hanbury ordered the re-construction of the channel and the restoration of the water supply, and wrote a strong letter to the Governor calling upon him to see that the work was permitted. An appeal was made by the indignant representatives of the Pasha to Cairo, and Sir Hanbury Brown was sent for by the Minister of Public Works. He went, and the Minister in virtuous tones impressed upon him that there was such a thing as justice for the rich as well as for the poor. Finally the British official left without having given way upon the point and saying that he would find out whether his order had been executed or not. He then sent a curt telegram to the Governor from the Ministry simply asking if his order had been carried out. The Governor noticing the place of despatch, and fearing that he would be reported for non-compliance of the order, promptly replied that the channel had been re-dug and that the water was flowing. Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff, in the discussion which followed the reading of Sir Hanbury Brown's paper, capped this experience with one of his own equally suggestive. "He recollected," he said, "a French lady, a governess in the family of the Khedive's brother, asking him on one occasion to give the Khedive's brother another irrigation outlet in the particular canal where he had land. He (Sir Colin) knew that the Khedive's brother at that time had more outlets than he de erved, and refused the application; but he 'chuckled' inwardly to think that the irrigation officer so controlled matters that the Khedive's brother had to get his French governess to ask for irrigation facilities." In further illustration of the change that had come over the spirit of things with the advent of the British officials, Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff stated that again and again natives went to him with complaints about the unfair distribution of water, and that when he told them that he would write on the subject to the Governor of the Province they always said, "Do not do that; send one of your Englishmen." In course of time the resolution shown by the irrigation officials, of which these stories afford examples, produced its effect. Those high placed found that it was useless for them to strive for unfair advantages, and the cultivators got into the habit of referring all their disputes to the inspectors. And so, as Sir Hanbury Brown pithily remarks, "the life-giving waters of the Nile no longer bear the reproach of being waters of strife."

Having thus traced the general course of the administration of the Irrigation Department from the period of its establishment, we may revert to the history of the special measures taken to develop the Nile resources after the success of the barrage re-construction had been demonstrated.

In 1887 Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff deputed Colonel Western to inquire into and report upon various schemes for increasing the water supply for irrigation purposes. Linant Pasha, Mehemet Ali's chief engineer, had formulated a scheme for the construction of a weir at Silsila, but nothing had been done in regard to the proposal owing to the failure of the Delta Barrage. The project was revived in 1880 by Count de la Motte, who suggested the construction of a dam at Silsila and a reservoir to the south of it. The Count also proposed to cut a capacious depression to the east of Kalabsha in communication with the Nile by the aid of a dam at that place. Not long afterwards Mr. Cope Whitehouse suggested utilising for storage purposes the Wadi Rayan depression, to which reference has already been made. Colonel Western was instructed to examine this Wadi Rayan project, while Sir William Willcocks was entrusted with the duty of reporting upon the other proposals of Count Motte. Colonel Western's report, with plans and estimates, was presented by the Egyptian Government in 1888. In 1889 and 1891 Sir William Willcocks reported unfavourably on the other schemes. He did so because he could find no depression near Kalabsha to put in communication with the Nile and could find no rock at Silsila on which to build a dam. The Bergat Takhan Pass was the only depression near Kalabsha which could be used as a reservoir, and it was over one hundred metres above the level of the Nile flood; while both on the Silsila Pass and the Silsila Gate Sir William Willcocks bored for rock and was everywhere still in sand ten metres below the level at which the existence of rock was assumed by the Count's engineers. On Sir William Willcocks' report reaching Cairo Mr. Prompt proposed using the trough of the Nile itself at Kalabsha as a reservoir in the place of the depression which did not exist. Mr. Prompt had supposed that the rock could be met with at Kalabsha at a depth of four metres below low water level, but Sir William Willcocks failed to find it at a depth of twenty-six metres. At length in 1894, having spent a considerable time in boring at every possible site in the Nile, and surveying, levelling, and boring in the deserts between Wadi Halfa and the Fayoum, Sir William Willcocks, who had in the interval become Director-General of Reservoir studies on Colonel Western's retirement, submitted his report. He rejected all the existing projects for solid dams and proposed an open dam at Assouan of a new type which he felt sure would meet the requirements of a Nile reservoir dam.

In the first instance the report was referred to the Technical Commission for consideration. That body, after giving it prolonged attention, decided, though not unanimously, in its favour. The Commission recommended, however, that certain modifications in matters of detail should be made in the plans. As submitted to them the scheme would, if carried out, have entailed the complete submersion of the Philae temples, and upon this being brought to the notice of the archæological societies in Europe a great outcry was raised against the threatened "vandalism," as it was termed. Yielding to pressure from this quarter the Ministry of Public Works reconsidered the project and eventually submitted to the Government a modified scheme which would leave the Nubian monuments unsubmerged, and which would only for a short time annually put under water a portion of the more unimportant temples of Philae Island. The scheme, as finally sanctioned, provided for the construction at the First Cataract, a few miles south of Assouan, of a dam designed to hold water to a level of 106 metres above mean sea level, or rather more than 20 metres above the low water level of the Nile at site. Its total length is 2,156 yards, with a width at crest of 26·4 feet. The width at base at the deepest spot is 29·4 feet. The dam is pierced by 180 openings or under sluices (140 of which are 23·1 feet by 6·6 feet and 40 are 18·2 feet by 6·6 feet) provided with gates. These sluices pass the flood and surplus water through the dam, and by them the reservoir is emptied when water is required for irrigation in Middle and Lower Egypt. Five locks are provided and a navigation channel exists on the west of the river to enable boats to pass up and down. Associated with this great work at Assouan was the construction of a dam at Assiout. It is what is called an open barrage, and is similar in construction to the existing barrages on the Rosetta and Damietta branches. This work consists of 111 bays or openings, each 16·5 feet wide, and each bay is provided with regulating gates. The total length of the structure is 903 yards. A lock 53 feet in width exists on the west branch. It is large enough to pass the biggest tourist steamer plying on the river. The object of the construction of this barrage is to regulate the water supplied in spring and summer to the Ibrahimieh Canal, which irrigates Middle Egypt. Before the dam existed this canal had to be dredged to a depth of some two metres below the lowest summer level in the river, and even with this heavy excavation the crops suffered in years of low summer supply.

The works thus sanctioned, and their estimated cost, were:

	£E
Assouan Dam and Lock ...	1,400,000
Assiout Dam and Lock ...	425,000
Ibrahimieh Canal, Regulator, and Lock	85,000
Land and subsidiary works ...	49,000
Customs duty on material and plant	41,000
TOTAL	2,000,000

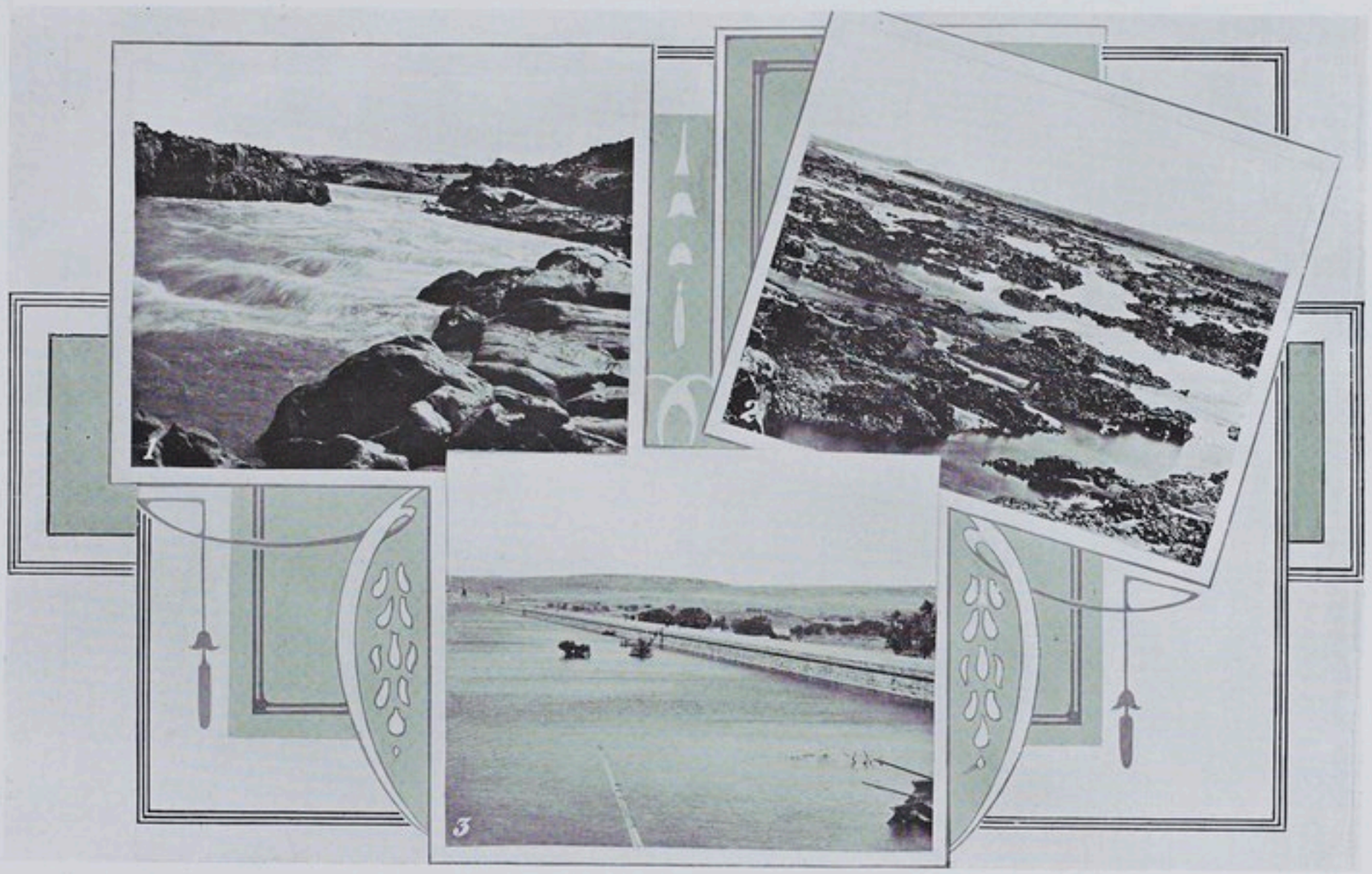
High hopes, which it may be noted have not since been belied, were entertained of these projects, and notably of the Assouan dam. In a memorandum he wrote on the subject Sir William Garstin entered into some interesting calculations on the probable return from the work. On a very low computation of the advantages which would follow in the train of the reservoir he estimated that it would add £E2,608,000 to the wealth of the country and confer a direct annual benefit on the State of not less than £E378,400; while an additional sum of £E1,020,000 would accrue to the State from the sales of reclaimed land. In his report for 1898 Lord Cromer noted the wide popularity of the scheme. It received not only the hearty blessing of the Khedive and the warm support of the Egyptian Ministers, but it was universally approved by the population. Thus the project was entered upon under the happiest circumstances.

A contract for the execution of the work was entered into by the Egyptian Government with Messrs. Sir John Aird and Company, the eminent firm of London contractors, and signed on February 20, 1898. Under its provisions Messrs. Aird and Co. were bound to complete the work within five years from July 1, 1898. Sir Benjamin Baker was appointed consulting engineer of the undertaking and lived to see the great project a triumphant success though he died before the question of the heightening of the dam was finally settled. Financially, there was at the outset some trouble in connection with the enterprise. The very large sum of money required could not be granted in the ordinary way in the then condition of Egypt, and the scheme had for a time to be laid on the shelf. At length Sir Ernest Cassel, with a public spirit which did him the highest credit, came forward and provided the money under an arrangement with the contractors of the Egyptian Government which was satisfactory to all concerned.

Under the general supervision of the late Mr. Wilson, and, after his death, Mr. Webb, the Director-General of Reservoirs, and with Messrs. Fitzmaurice and Stephens filling the posts of Resident Engineers, the former at Assouan, the latter at Assiout, both works were simultaneously commenced in the summer of 1898. Great difficulties were experienced at the outset owing to transport troubles. The Soudan expedition practically monopolised the line between Luxor and Assouan and the exceptionally low state of the Nile during the months of May and June rendered the carriage of heavy goods by river out of the question. Nevertheless a considerable amount of work was done by the contractors. By the end of the year there were no fewer than 2,900 men employed upon the work at Assouan including 271 Europeans chiefly Italian stonecutters. The foundation stone of the dam was laid by the Duke of Connaught and thereafter the masonry work proceeded rapidly. The foundations gave a great deal of difficulty. The first expectation, that the rocks in the bed of the channel would turn out to be sounder than in other parts of the river, was not realised, and the foundations had to be carried an average depth of six metres below that shown on the original contract drawings. By December, 1901, more than half the length of the dam was completed and in less than twelve months from that time the great project was accomplished. Mr. Fitzmaurice did not remain to witness the complete execution of the plans. At the end of 1901 he was called away to take up the post of Chief Engineer to the London County Council. He handed over charge to his senior assistant, Mr. May, who saw the scheme through its final stages.

At Assiout the progress was equally as rapid as that at Assouan notwithstanding serious drawbacks which had to be overcome. At the end of 1901 regulations upon the newly constructed weir commenced, for the purpose of assisting navigation, and some months later the entire dam was completed.

When the accounts for the two projects were finally adjusted it was found that the cost had been very considerably in excess of the estimates. The precise sum paid to Messrs. Aird was £E3,258,706. Other charges including £E127,626 on account of expropriation and indemnities, and £E47,532 for the construction of a lock, brought the total cost of the two dams up to £E3,439,864. This is an enormous sum, but Lord Cromer in receiving the accounts claimed that for this expenditure of roughly three and a half millions more good would be done to the people of Egypt than



1. THE FIRST CATARACT OF THE NILE. 2. THE SECOND CATARACT OF THE NILE. 3. ASSOUAN RESERVOIR.

by the hundred millions of debt which Ismael Pasha contracted and for the most part squandered. Under the arrangement with Sir Ernest Cassel the Government, in order to redeem the money raised on the certificate, had, commencing with July 1, 1903, and ending with January 1, 1933, to pay sixty semestrial instalments of £E72,648 each. In other words the Government will pay £E4,598,880 in interest and sinking fund before the certificates are fully redeemed. The terms were less favourable than could have been obtained had the Egyptian Government been free to go to the Money Market for the loan in the ordinary way; but it cannot be denied that the expeditious construction secured by the arrangement was well worth the extra cost.

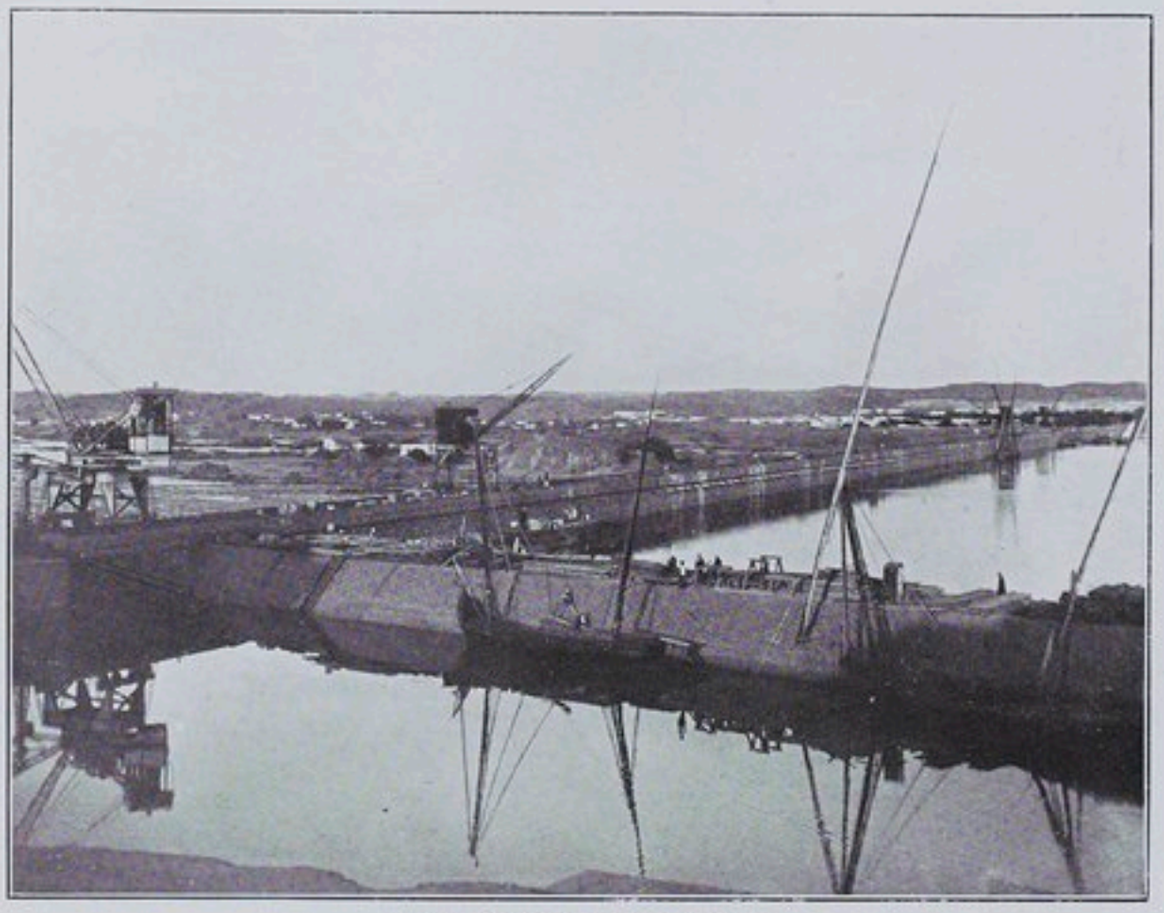
It was not long before an opportunity occurred of testing the value of the work at Assiout. The flood of 1902 was one of the lowest of which accurate records exist. It was not so bad as that experienced in the disastrous year 1877, but it was sufficiently low to excite the liveliest anxiety for the safety of the crops. Mr. Webb, who at that time was acting as Under Secretary for the Public Works Department, with a happy perception of the enormous value of the additional supply of water that the great reservoir just completed would furnish, gave orders for the lowering of the gates of the Assiout dam. His action was thought to be somewhat dangerous at the time, having regard to the newness of the masonry, but events entirely justified the step. By the closing of the gates the water level in the adjoining canal was raised by 1·5 metres, and in consequence the crops in Middle Egypt and the Fayoum were saved. Lord Cromer, in his report for 1902, estimates that the assistance thus given to the landowners by the additional supply of water was at least £E600,000. As the cost of the Assiout Dam, including the Ibrahimieh Head regulators, was about £E875,000, the works may be said to have repaid the greater portion of their cost in the first year after their completion.

The Assouan Dam quite as brilliantly justified its existence in 1903. The flood of that year was fairly abundant, but the river was very late in rising. Throughout the period of low summer supply and whilst the Khartoum levels were at their lowest, the discharge of the river north of Assouan was supplemented by the water from the reservoir to such an extent that no difficulties were experienced as regards irrigation, and, to use Lord Cromer's words, "but few people in Egypt were aware of how critical the situation at one time promised to become." The quantities of water added to the river supply from the reservoir are given in the official report as follows:—

From March 10 to March 26, 1,000,000 cubic metres per diem.
From March 26 to May 1, 2,000,000 cubic metres per diem.
From May 1 to May 20, 4,000,000 cubic metres per diem.
From May 20 to June 3, 11,000,000 cubic metres per diem.
From June 3 to June 30, 20,000,000 cubic metres per diem.

The discharge of the Nile on June 20 was only 20,000,000 cubic metres. The reservoir, therefore, practically doubled the river supply. The effects of this welcome augmentation of the supply, as set out in Lord Cromer's report for 1903, were very striking. It was possible to give an ample supply to Middle and Lower Egypt at least one month earlier than would have been possible had not the reservoir existed. Canal rotations were for the most part relaxed early in July, instead of as previously in circumstances, in the middle of August. The prohibition against the irrigation of land for the maize sowings was removed one month earlier than the usual date. Rice irrigation was permitted everywhere, and the entire cotton crop was plentiful. Lastly, and most important of all, some 170,000 acres of land in Middle Egypt were converted from "basin" to perennial irrigation. Since 1903 a further very large area of land has been given the benefit of perennial irrigation, the total up to 1906 amounting to about 300,000 acres of the 400,000 acres that are available. Basin land, to quote an explanation given by Sir Hanbury Brown, is land that is inundated during the flood season and grows one crop of cereals or clover a year. When such land is converted to perennially irrigated land—that is, when floods are excluded and irrigation is provided all the year—two crops a year are grown in the place of one. It was feared at one time that the cultivators of Middle Egypt, having been accustomed to basin irrigation for many centuries, would be slow in adapting themselves to the new conditions; but the contrary has proved to be the case. Everywhere the utmost readiness has been shown to take advantage of the new system. Unquestionably the wonderful enhancement of the value of the land which has followed the introduction of perennial irrigation has had a powerful influence in promoting the change. According to the official estimate made up to the end of 1906, there has been in Middle Egypt a rise in rental value of £E1,770,000, and of sale value of £E23,569,000, as a result of the construction of the Assouan and Assiout Dams. Nor is this all. The Assouan Reservoir has a high importance in that it provides insurance for the cotton crop, valued at about £E28,000,000. Furthermore, land in the Fayoum province has risen in value, and the area in cultivation there has extended in consequence of the improved conditions of water supply created by the execution of the scheme.

"The appetite grows upon what it feeds" is a saying applicable to irrigation projects in Egypt. As the successful reconstruction of the Delta Barrage led to an urgent demand for further storage facilities, and so paved the way for the construction of the Assouan and Assiout Dams, so the building of those works in turn produced a call for additional storage, and made the heightening of the Assouan Dam a practical proposition. As we have seen, the original plans for this work contemplated a much larger structure than that actually erected. The dimensions of the dam were reduced, chiefly in deference to the representations of the Archæological Societies in Europe, which viewed with dismay the complete flooding of the temples on the Island of Philae which would have resulted from the execution of the designs. Experience gained in the seasons which followed the opening of the dam showed that the fears of damage to the interesting monuments at Philae were to a large extent without foundation. Careful examination of those parts of the structure which were submerged showed that they had suffered no damage whatever, and the opinion of the engineering experts



THE ASSOUAN BARRAGE.

was that none was to be anticipated if the proper precautions were taken. The only point which could be urged by way of objection was that the temples would be flooded during the tourist season, and so would not be available for inspection by the great majority of visitors who proceed up the Nile. But after carefully considering the matter the advisers of the Egyptian Government rightly came to the decision that the practical interests of the cultivators of Egypt could not be sacrificed to meet the convenience of the health and pleasure seekers who throng the Nile in the cold season. So the scheme for the heightening of the dam went forward. The plans, which received official sanction, were framed by the late Sir Benjamin Baker, whose name will always be associated with this colossal work. Broadly speaking, the design provided for the thickening of the dam, from the foundations upwards, by the addition of a strip of masonry to the down-stream face throughout its entire length and for its heightening to an extent sufficient to permit of the water being held up

7 metres higher than the level which the dam as originally completed allowed. To overcome the difficulty caused by the variations of expansion and contraction between the new building and the existing masonry of the dam, Sir Benjamin Baker devised a scheme by which the new wall would have a space of 15 centimetres width left between it and the older structure. Steel rods, embedded in both the new and the old masonry, will support the new wall, and these rods, while transmitting the weight of the added masonry, will allow for the difference of expansion and contraction. When it is considered that the two structures have reached the same temperature the space will be grouted with cement mortar. When completed, the work will increase the storage capacity of the reservoir two and a quarter times, and will make available for agricultural purposes nearly a million acres of land now lying waste in the northern tracts of the Delta. The execution of the work was entrusted by the Government in April, 1908, to Messrs. Sir John Aird & Co., the contractors for the original work. At the same time a tender was arranged with Messrs. Ransomes & Rapier, of Ipswich, for the supply of the necessary alterations to the iron and steel work. The duty of the general supervision of the work fell to Mr. Macdonald, Director-General of Reservoirs, while Mr. Corquodale filled the post of resident engineer. To complete the account of the scheme it must be added that Messrs. Aird & Co.'s contract amounts to £E1,036,788, that the total cost of the project, including compensation for property inundated and the preservation of the monuments, is estimated at £E1,500,000, and that the work will take some five years to complete.

The acceptance of the contract for the heightening of the dam was preceded by an animated controversy among experts as to whether the calculations heretofore adopted for determining the stresses and the stability of masonry dams covered a sufficiently wide range, and whether the consideration of certain important factors had not been neglected. The doubts raised were of such a character that the Government deemed it advisable to stay their hands for a time. They were the more disposed to take this course as it afforded them an opportunity of testing certain important protective works which it had been deemed desirable to carry out in the seasons of 1905–6. These consisted chiefly of the construction of a solid masonry apron downstream of the dam sluices in order to protect the rock from the severe action of the water issuing through them. A continuous talus of granite and masonry was carried right across the river, extending from the faces of the sluices for a width varying from 30 to 60 metres. The cost of this work was £E304,000.

A project of some importance which may be regarded to a large extent as an auxiliary of the Assouan Dam is the Esneh Barrage which was formally opened by the Khedive on February 9, 1909. The construction of this work was rendered necessary by the unfortunate position of the province of Keneh, which is so situated that when the level of the river is very low the land is exposed to the worst calamities of drought. In 1877 the area of land that could not be irrigated amounted to 250,000 feddans, in 1888 to 114,000 feddans, and in 1899 to 80,000 feddans. The last of these figures shows a wonderful improvement on the condition of affairs in the days prior to the introduction of the new irrigation system, but the situation was still such as to render desirable the adoption of measures to increase the supply. Consequently, the Esneh scheme was brought forward. The construction of the barrage, as Ismael Sirry Pasha pointed out in his speech at the opening ceremony, "will have the effect not only of preventing the recurrence of sharaki or unirrigated land in the province of Keneh even in the lowest floods, but will permit of the better irrigation of the 350,000 feddans of cultivated land situated within the radius of its direct action. . . . Further, the Treasury will find itself relieved of the heavy burden which the Ministry of Finance under the head of sharaki has to shoulder each year." The barrage, which is situated about 162 kilometres north of the Assouan Reservoir, is 900 metres in length and rises across the Nile to a height of 9 metres 50 above low-water level. It is pierced by 120 sluice gates, and at its western extremity a lock, 80 metres long by 16 wide, has been provided to facilitate navigation. There is a road 6 metres wide running across the top of the superstructure and upon it is a tramway track, which crosses also the swing bridge of the lock. Designed by Mr. A. L. Webb, C.M.G., M.I.C.E., adviser to the Ministry of Public Works, the work was carried out under the supervision of Mr. E. H. Lloyd, resident engineer, the contractors for the masonry being Messrs. Aird & Co., and for the steel and iron work Messrs. Ransomes & Rapier. Although very serious difficulties were encountered, especially at the early stages of the construction, the work was carried through with remarkable celerity. In point of fact the contractors were eighteen months ahead of the time guaranteed for the completion of the work, a circumstance no doubt due to the valuable experience gained by the contractors in this class of work and to the efficiency of the staff from the chief engineering representative of the firm on the spot, Mr. H. McClure, M.I.C.E., down to the humblest item of the great army of 8,000 labourers employed upon the undertaking. His Highness the Khedive in his speech, at the opening ceremony previously referred to, paid a worthy tribute to the Irrigation Service which had "dowered" his country with so many benefits, not the least of which was this Esneh Barrage, and showed his gratification in practical form by conferring decorations on Mr. Webb and others who had been concerned in the execution of the project.

The execution of the important works which have been described did not by a long way monopolise the energies of the Irrigation Department. A great opportunity for the profitable extension of the area over which the operations extended came with the reconquest of the Soudan. For the first time since the work of irrigation was undertaken under British auspices the way was clear for a thorough examination of the upper basin of the Nile. There was very little delay in taking advantage of it. Immediately after the battle of Omdurman, Major M. Peake proceeded in a steamer up the Bahr el Ghazal nearly as far as Meshra el Rek, and subsequently with Major Stanton he steamed 157 miles up the Bahr el Zaref. These reconnaisances showed that the channels of the two streams in the upper reaches were completely blocked with vegetation, and that before clear navigation could be established for any distance it was imperative that this obstruction should be dealt with. The following year Sir William Garstin and Lieut.-Colonel Sparkes made a tour of inspection in this remote region, and their observations confirmed the impressions formed by the members of the pioneer party. It was therefore determined to commence operations immediately for the removal of the sudd, as the accumulated vegetation is termed, the phrase being derived from the Arabic word "sadd" or block.

Before detailing the steps taken to this end it may be useful to give an account of the area which is affected by the sudd and a description of the manner in which the vegetation forms. The country affected by the phenomenon is a huge triangular tract, of which the northern base extends about 200 miles west from the mouth of the Bahr el



THE ASSOUAN BARRAGE.

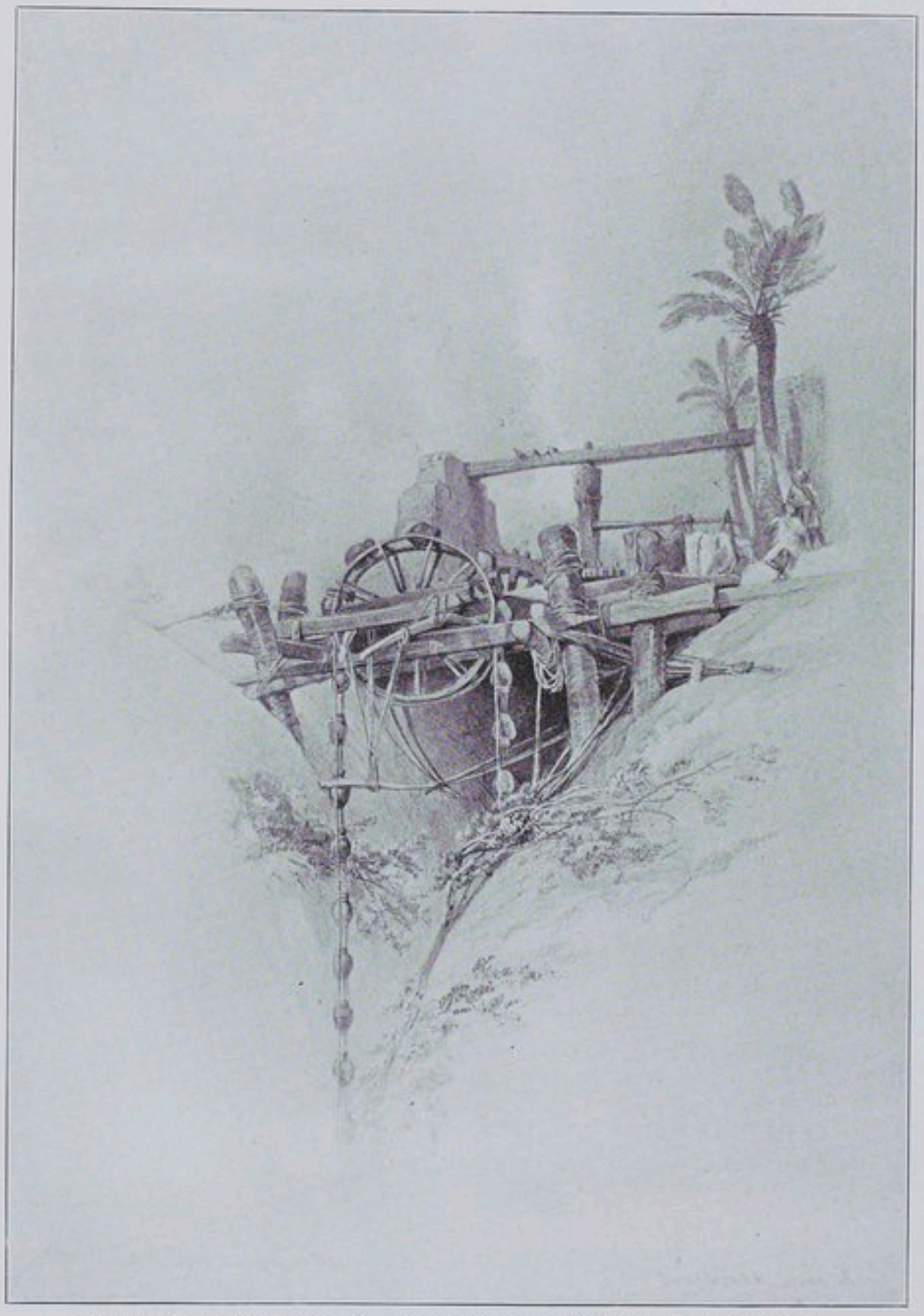
Zaref, and the southern apex lies about Bor, 250 miles SSE. of Lake No. On a rough estimate these vast marshes cover an area of 35,000 square miles. The marshes are formed by the expansion of the rivers mentioned over this area, and probably represent the bed of a prehistoric lake which has to a certain extent dried up. A great part of the tract is covered with a shallow sheet of water, over almost the whole extent of which thick reeds and swamp grasses have sprung up. Except in the actual river channels the water is probably nowhere more than two to six feet deep. The real sudd is not the general growth on these marshes, but only the obstructive floating vegetation which is driven by force of circumstances into the river channels and there forms the block or sudd.

According to Sir William Garstin the main factors in producing the sudd in the Bahr el Jebel are the papyrus and the "um sûf." These two, with the earth adhering to their roots, form the real obstruction. On the Bahr el Ghazal the sudd is chiefly composed of various small swimming plants, such as the "azolla," the "utricularia," and the "otellia vallisneria." Their breeding places are Lake Ambadi and the other shallow lakes to the south. The Ghazal sudd is much lighter in texture than that of the Jebel, and is consequently much easier to remove. At the same time even in the former river the sudd is at times dangerous, especially if it forms down stream of a vessel, and if the latter has to work upon it from its up-stream end.

The measures taken for the removal of the sudd commenced with the departure from Omdurman, on December 16, 1899, of Major M. Peake at the head of an expedition consisting of five gunboats, five English and some Egyptian officers, some British N.C.O.'s, 100 Soudanese, and 800 dervish prisoners. By March 27, 1900, by means of hard and continuous labour, fourteen blocks had been cleared out of nineteen, opening up 82 miles of river. Major Peake then avoided the remaining blocks by using side channels, arrived at Shambe on April 25, 1900, and proceeded in clear water to Rejaf, which he reached on May 5 following. Four out of the remaining five blocks were cleared by Lieutenant Drury, R.N., in January, 1901, and only the last one, 22 miles long, still remained. To clear this remaining obstacle an expedition under Major C. E. Matthews was sent up the river in the winter of 1901–2, but did not succeed in completely opening the channel. Nothing was done in 1902–3, but in 1903–4 Lieutenant Drury was again sent to renew the clearing operations. Practically no traces of Major Matthews' work were discernible, and when, after dogged perseverance, the accomplishment of the task was well in sight, the work had again to be reluctantly abandoned. A false channel had previously been opened for the passage of steainers and other craft and this is used with every prospect of a clear fairway being kept by the mere passage of the steamers.

An interesting account is given in the official work on the Soudan, "The Anglo-Egyptian Soudan," of the method adopted by Major Peake in clearing the sudd. From this it is to be gathered that the whole of the vegetation on the surface of the obstruction, having been cut and burnt by a party of men with swords, fasses (native hoes), and axes, the line to be taken up for the first channel, generally about 12 yards in length, was marked out and trenched by dervish prisoners into pieces about 4 yards square. When the men had cut as deep as the water allowed, holdfasts of telegraph poles were driven in as far as they would go around the edge of each piece to be removed, a steel-wire hawser was fastened as deep as possible around the square mass, and the ends of the wire having been made fast to the bollards in the bow of the gunboat, "full speed astern was ordered." Full speed was kept up continually, if the piece showed any sign of becoming detached, until it came gradually away. As soon as the piece was quite clear one end of the hawser was cast off and the mass was allowed to float down the stream. If the piece showed no signs of coming away the engines were reversed and the steamer was brought close up to the sudd and then went astern again. This was repeated again and again until the piece was detached. Some sections were known to take as much as two hours to get away. Not infrequently the sudd was found with roots growing to the bottom of the river. On those occasions an ordinary anchor was sunk and dragged along the bottom of the channel by the steamer. When the first steamer employed had opened up a channel of sufficient length to permit of another vessel working behind her, a second steamer was employed. The work was of a most arduous character and put a great strain upon all engaged in it.

These sudd-clearing operations, important as they were, only touched the fringe of a great question. That question was the extent to which the Upper Nile basin could be utilised for purposes of irrigation and more particularly how far it could be made to subserve the interests of the great projects carried out or projected in Egypt proper. In order to obtain the fullest possible light on this project Sir William Garstin from 1901 onwards made a memorable series of tours throughout the entire course of the Nile from the great lakes to the sea, and at



PERSIAN WATER-WHEEL USED FOR THE IRRIGATION OF NUBIA.
(From Roberts' "Egypt and Nubia.")

about the same time a number of subsidiary tours were commenced by other officials of the department with a view to the securing of accurate knowledge of particular areas which play an important part in the economy



MAP SHOWING PROPOSED NEW CHANNEL FOR BAHR EL JEBEL.

of the great river. The observations made by Sir William Garstin himself, together with the reports of his assistants, are embodied in the great Blue Book (Egypt No. 2 (1904)), to which reference has already been made. That publication, with its maps and diagrams and illustrations, constitutes, perhaps, one of the most remarkable and interesting official compilations that have ever been given to the public. It is a perfect mine of information on all that concerns the upper reaches and sources of the river, and though the matter it contains is necessarily largely of a technical character there is much in the volume that is of fascinating interest to the general reader. Sir William Garstin's descriptions of the great lakes, so rich in their wealth of scientific knowledge, so attractive in their sketches of natural phenomena and of scenery, are only surpassed in drawing power by the lucid presentment of the various problems which are involved in the utilisation of these stupendous natural reservoirs. Some interesting passages, in which the writer describes the Ripon Falls, the point at which the water which feeds the Nile finds an outlet from Lake Victoria Nyanza, may be quoted, as they have a distinct bearing on the subsequent proposals which Sir William Garstin elaborates.

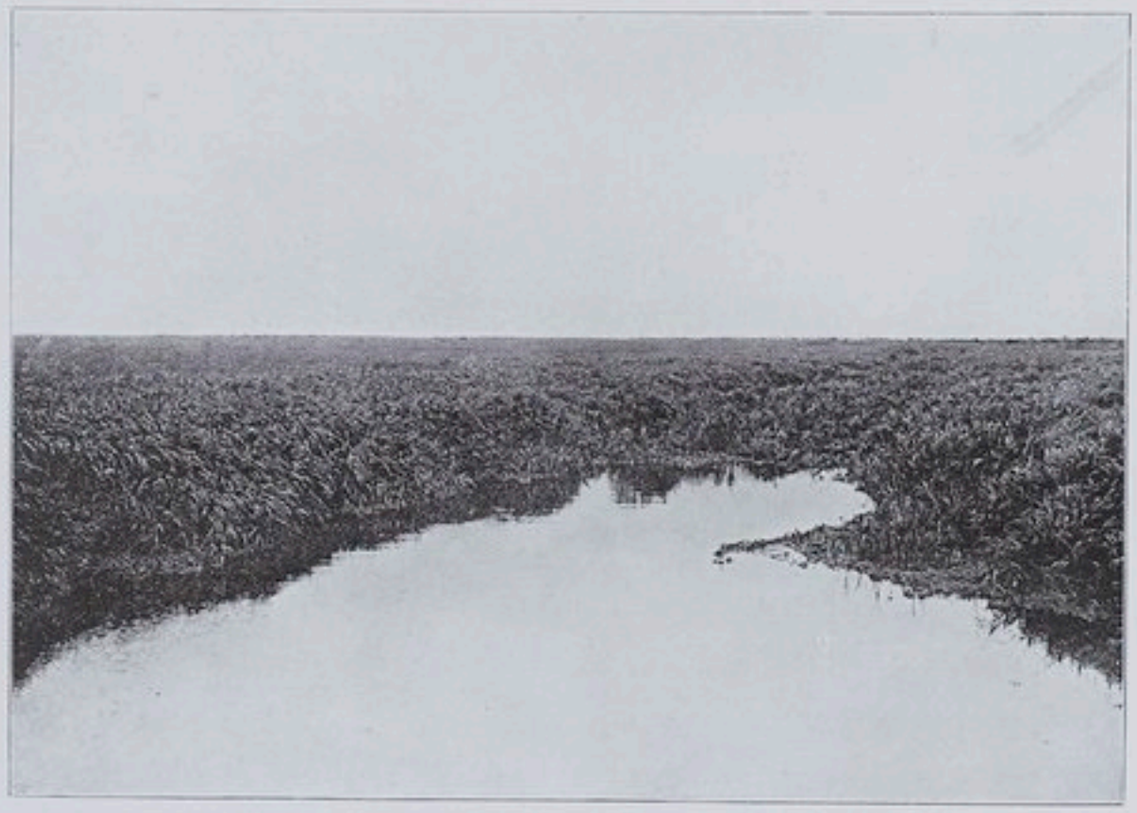
"A very short distance below Jinja," he says, "a distinct current, flowing north, is visible on the lake surface, and the sound of the falls is distinctly heard. On rounding a high bluff, the reef of rocks which projects out of the water upstream of the cataract becomes visible. The channel gradually narrows like a funnel, between high cliffs from 60 to 70 metres above the water. The faces of these cliffs are densely covered by vegetation, and on their summits with bush and forest. The red soil of which they are composed gives a dash of brilliant colour to the generally sombre tints of the landscape. The sharp edged reefs stand out like grey sentinels above the surface of the water. The river glides down to the barrier in a glassy expanse until it thunders over the fall in three separate channels, parted by rocky ridges and breaks, below the leap, into a white and foaming expanse of raging and seething water. The whole scene is of singular beauty, and wild to an extreme degree. It is one of the most beautiful in the whole Protectorate, and indeed is one which would be hard to surpass anywhere. Looking down stream from the falls the picture is, if possible, even more beautiful. The Nile flows northward in a deep gorge formed by wooded cliffs on either side. Through this the river tears in a succession of swirling rapids. The colour of the water is a deep blue, almost approaching a purple, but its surface is broken into endless threads by the snow-white streaks of foam which indicate the existence of the rocks. Occasional small islands separate it into one or more channels, and the dark green outline of the wooded highlands forms an effective frame. No one who has visited the Ripon Falls is likely to forget them, as apart from the sentiment associated with the spot as being the source of the Nile, the landscape itself is so exceptionally beautiful that it must impress itself deeply on the memory."

Further on, Sir William Garstin gives some interesting calculations as to the effect upon the lake of the construction of a regulator at the falls. Taking the daily discharge of the Nile at 49,680,000 metres cube, he comes to the conclusion that it would require 1,370 days, or 3 years 275 days, to raise the lake level by 1 metre.

Dealing with the Albert Nyanza, with which the Upper Nile or Bahr el Jebel connects, Sir William Garstin discusses the relation of the Victoria Nile which flows into the lake to the question of storage, and gives a calculation which shows that in 1903 the amount of water stored over and above that lost by evaporation and discharge by the river was in seven months 3,735 millions of metres cube. The question of erecting a regulator to hold up the waters of the Albert Nyanza presents some difficulties, owing to the low swampy character of the country at the junction of the river with the lake. But a position is indicated near the Luri village of Otiak which the eminent engineer deems would serve the purposes of a site.

"This," he says, "is not an ideal position for a regulator, but it is far the best that can be found south of Dufile. The main difficulties of construction would be found in the absence of building materials, as there is no stone in the vicinity. It would probably have to be quarried on the shores of the Albert Lake and boated down to the site."

In treating fully of the question of providing these regulators, Sir William Garstin mentions with commendation a suggestion made by Sir William Willcocks that, instead of attempting to raise the level of the lake, the crest of the falls should be lowered so as to draw upon the immense store of water in the lake. The work, Sir William Garstin thinks, if undertaken, should proceed on these lines. "No object," he says, "would be attained by raising the water level of Lake Victoria, even were it possible to do so. This, taking into account the area of the water surface and the annual loss by evaporation, is extremely doubtful. On the other hand, there is an immense volume of water annually available upon which to draw. This volume, even after deducting the loss due to evaporation, is far more than sufficient to meet the wants both of Egypt and the Soudan. Should, however, such a work ever be undertaken, it would almost certainly be necessary to embank the 80 kilometres of its course through Lake Choga. If this were not done, the only result of an increased discharge at the outlet of the



THE BAHR EL GHAZAL BLOCKED BY GRASS SUDD.

river would be an increase of the area of this lake, and a corresponding increase in the loss caused by evaporation. Beyond the difficulties due to the remoteness of the locality, the scarcity of trained labour, and the cost of transport and supplies, it may be stated with confidence that there would be no special difficulties involved in the construction of a regulating work at the outlet of the Victoria Nile. Such a work would in all probability be far easier to construct than was either the dam at Assouan or the barrage at Assiout."

In regard to the Albert Lake, Sir William Garstin also thinks that no special difficulties would be likely to arise. There would, in fact, be nothing to execute that has not been frequently carried out by hydraulic engineers. The objection to any proposals for augmenting the discharge from the Equatorial lakes, is that under present conditions the increased volume would never reach the White Nile. As Sir William Garstin shows in the portion of his report dealing with the marshes through which the Bahr el Jebel passes, barely 50 per cent. of the water which now leaves the Albert Lake in summer ever reaches the White Nile, while in the flood the proportion of loss is very much greater. Until some measures have been found whereby the water passing Lado during the dry season of the year can be brought down to Khartoum in undiminished volume, it is needless to consider, Sir William Garstin thinks, the question of the regulation of the Albert and the Victoria Lakes.

We now come to the most interesting of all Sir William Garstin's proposals for utilising the waters of the upper basin of the Nile—the construction of a new channel for the Bahr el Jebel, by which the water of the river in summer will be passed on in undiminished volume to the north. He introduces his project by an examination of the existing conditions of the supply. First he demonstrates by a reference to known facts bearing upon the discharges of the river, that while it is of the highest importance so to train and embank the river as to enable the entire summer discharge to be saved, it is the reverse of desirable that the same result should be effected in the case of the flood water, for an attempt to hold up the flood water might lead to disastrous flooding in the White Nile and the Bahr el Jebel marshes, and to setting adrift of large areas of sudd grasses, which would float down stream and possibly block the channel most seriously. Bearing in mind these possibilities, Sir William Garstin concludes that the object of any works undertaken must be to preserve the regulating power of the marshes for the flood water, at the same time to find some means of preventing the present wastage in the river during the dry season of the year. How is this end to be attained? The eminent author of the report answers this question in several intensely interesting pages. In the first place he shows that by closing the channels of the numerous little side streams through which a considerable quantity of water is lost in the section of the river between Ghaba, Shambe, and Gondokoro, the Nile south of the Bahr el Zaref outlet might be confined in summer to a single channel, and by that means to ensure the delivery of water at the head of that river without any serious reduction of the volume passing Lado. But there still remained the problem of how best to pass on the summer water through the great marshes north of Bor, and deliver it into the channel of the White Nile without any serious diminution of the discharge. The most natural way to effect this would be to select one of the two main branches, namely, the Bahr el Jebel, or the Bahr el Zaref, and to improve its section so as to render it capable of carrying a discharge of from 600 to 700 metres cube per second. This would be the most natural method to adopt, and probably the cheapest. But there was another plan which, if it should prove upon examination to be feasible, would undoubtedly improve the river to an extent far beyond any result that could be attained by merely remodelling one or other of the existing channels. Sir William Garstin proceeds: "It will be seen that a line drawn through Bor, on the Upper Bahr el Jebel, and running due north and south, would cut the White Nile at or near the point where the Sobat joins this river. The distance between these two points in a straight line is approximately 340 kilometres. Were it possible to excavate an entirely new channel for the river, following this line, and to bring down its waters by this means from the Upper Nile at Bor, direct to the White Nile, at the Sobat junction, the advantages that would be secured are so great and so obvious as to outweigh almost every objection that could be made to the proposal, short of the fact that further knowledge might prove that its execution was a sheer impossibility—owing to the levels or to the conformation of the intervening country."

These advantages may be briefly recounted. The entire swamp region would be avoided altogether; the floods in the river might cover these marshes unchecked, as at present, and the channels might be allowed to be blocked by "sudd" without exercising the slightest effect upon the discharge in the new channel; the distance to be travelled by the water would be largely reduced, and navigation would be immensely facilitated by following a direct and straight line; the training works upon the Upper Nile would stop short at Bor, and a distance of some 200 kilometres of such work would be thus economised. As the highland touches the Nile on the east at Bor, the new channel would take off in excavation, and much banking would be avoided.

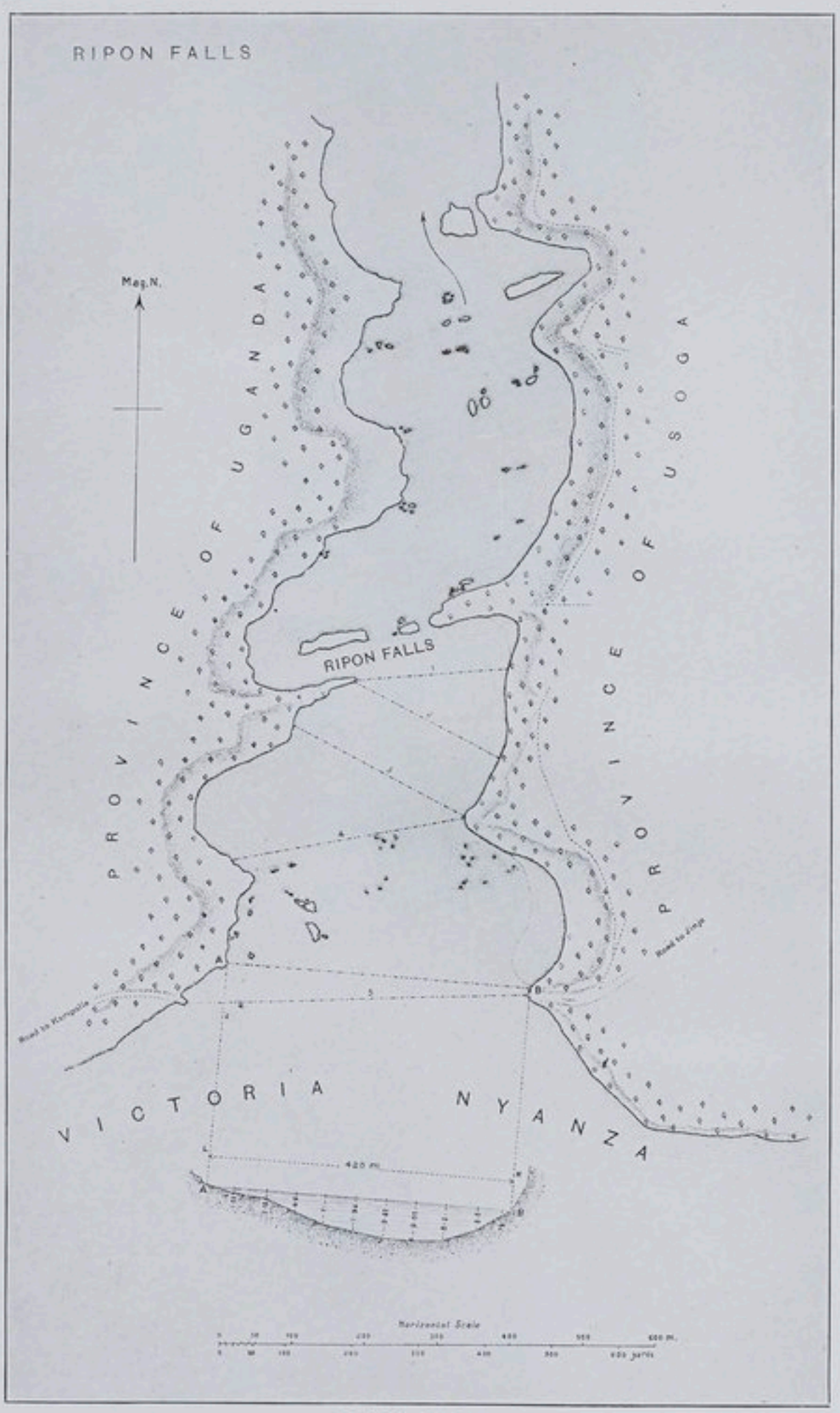
Lastly, the discharge would be under complete control, as a regulated head, with a lock, would be built at the point where it left the main river. Another and larger regulator would be built across the Nile at Bor, connected with the western highland by an embankment. With these two works the control of the discharge at all seasons would be complete.

Were a channel constructed of this capacity it would then be most advisable to carry out the proposed scheme for the control of the Equatorial lakes, by constructing regulators at the Ripon Falls and down-stream of the outlet of the Bahr el Jebel from the Albert Lake. In fact, the one project would be a complement of the other. The proposal might seem to be so drastic a remedy for the loss of water as to be unacceptable to some. But in reality it was not so drastic as at first sight it might appear to be. There is no question of turning the entire Nile flood down an artificial channel. What is proposed amounts to nothing more than the construction of an entirely new channel (not much larger than one of the great canals of Egypt) which would afford a means of delivering the summer water by the shortest and most direct route to the point where it was required, and, by avoiding the great swamps, reducing the difficulties of maintenance and loss of water which is caused by their presence. At the same time these swamps would act as an effective regulating force to the flood water, and would supplement the supply in the water in the same proportion as they do at present. The new channel from Bor to the Sobat would be 340 kilometres as compared with 710 kilometres *viâ* the Bahr el Jebel, Lake No, and the White Nile, and 650 kilometres *viâ* the Bahr el Zaref and the White Nile from one point to the other. The nature of the country which would have to be traversed by the canal is practically unknown, and it might prove that the project for various reasons is not a feasible one. In any event, owing to the scarcity of labour, the excavation of the canal could only be carried out by machinery. Powerful excavators would be indispensable, and work, Sir William Garstin suggests, might be commenced at both ends simultaneously.

In the event of surveys proving the scheme to be impossible, the question of selecting either the Bahr el Jebel or the Bahr el Zaref would have to be seriously considered as being the only possible alternative. The Bahr el Jebel, Sir William Garstin says, is undoubtedly the true river, with a depth of from 5 to 5·6 metres of water even at its lowest, a strong stream, and an average width of from 70 to 80 metres. The Bahr el Zaref is in every way very much smaller. Its depth rarely exceeds 2 to 3 metres, its current is feeble, and its average width is between 40 and 50 metres. It more resembles a winding canal or drainage line than a great river. Whichever of these channels may be selected eventually, the Bahr el Jebel should always be maintained as the line for navigation and kept open for this purpose. With proper dredging plant it would be possible to enlarge this channel as to render it capable of carrying the entire summer discharge of 600 to 700 metres per second. Were this to be done, however, it seems almost that the largely increased flood discharge would follow, and that much of the loss caused by the marshes would disappear, while a very probable result would be the setting adrift of large areas of sudd vegetation. On the whole, Sir William Garstin thinks that it would be advisable to disturb the existing conditions of this portion of the Bahr el Jebel as little as possible. The Bahr el Zaref, on the contrary, might be adapted for the purposes of the summer supply with advantage, and various measures which would be necessary to permit of this being done are discussed at length in the report. As to the cost of this remodelling of the Bahr el Zaref, Sir William Garstin declines to commit himself. But he is of opinion that the estimate given in the report of 1900, which amounted to £E1,250,000, would be largely exceeded. Sir William Garstin sounds a note of warning as to the possible effect of interfering with Nature on the large scale contemplated, and insists that the work should be undertaken with great caution, and its progressive effect carefully watched. If, however, either of the schemes he outlines can be successfully carried out, the problem of preventing the present wastage of the Upper Nile discharge in summer, he thinks, should be satisfactorily saved.

The possible utilisation of the Blue Nile as a means of increasing the water supply in summer is discussed at considerable length by Sir William Garstin in the light of the report of Mr. Dupuis, of the Egyptian Irrigation Service, who in December, 1902, visited Lake Tsana, making a complete circuit of its shores, and carrying through an elaborate series of scientific investigations bearing upon the problem in hand. Reviewing the whole question after an exhaustive analysis of the facts, Sir William Garstin expresses the view that the best and most complete project in connection with the Blue Nile is beyond all question

that of constructing a regulator at the outlet of the river at Lake Tsana, whereby this lake may be converted into a storage reservoir of large size. The fact that Lake Tsana is beyond the Soudan frontier, however, renders the scheme for political reasons impracticable, and it is



RIPON FALLS.
(Plan showing proposed Works).

necessary to look elsewhere for the relief sought. Several alternative proposals are put forward for examination and consideration, amongst them being the selection of a site for an open barrage in the vicinity of Wad Medani; the construction of a storage reservoir of limited capacity within Soudan territory by means of a dam constructed at or south of the Rosaires Rapids, the improvement of the irrigation of the River Gash by means of a basin for controlling floods with its subsidiary canals, and the construction of a dam and storage reservoir in the Atbara River, near Kashim el Gerba.

One outcome of the investigations made in the Upper Nile Basin was the establishment of a regular Irrigation Department for the Soudan. In his 1904 report Sir William Garstin pointed out the need that existed for the creation of a regular official organisation in the newly commenced province to carry forward the work of investigation in the country between the Great Lakes and Khartoum, with a view to the preparation of projects for execution when the state of the finances of the country and other circumstances permitted of their being undertaken. Sir William Garstin said that in nearly every instance the proposals he had made had been subordinate to the results that might be obtained afterwards by actual levelling of the country. "This want of levels," he proceeded, "is a crying one. One of the very first duties of the irrigation officers in that country will be to run lines of levels up either branch of the Nile with cross lines across the Gezireh and to the east of the Blue Nile. Until this has been done all proposals regarding works to be carried out or estimates of their cost must be mere guesswork founded upon nothing better than general probabilities. Another necessity is the continuation of the series of river discharges which has been commenced and its extension upon a larger and more complete scale. The erection of good and permanent river gauges and their supervision when erected is also urgently required. . . . These three instances have been mentioned among those which must early engage the attention of the staff, but their number could easily be multiplied, as, for instance, experiments in river training and prevention of wastage of water on the Upper Nile."

The scheme which Sir William Garstin outlined for the Soudan Irrigation Service embraced the appointment of an Inspector-General of Irrigation with headquarters at Khartoum, with two chief assistants, one for the White Nile and one for the Blue Nile, and the appointment of a third and junior officer to act as a reserve man and to be employed upon official works and studies. In addition to these principal officials he pointed out that there would be required a large staff of native engineers and levellers, together with the requisite office establishment. Two steamers, he added, would be required for inspection work, one for the White Nile and one of very shallow draught especially designed for work on the Blue Nile. The cost of starting such a service as he proposed he estimated would amount to £E24,000 for the first year.

These proposals were accepted by the Government, and the Soudan branch of the Egyptian Irrigation came into existence on December 21, 1904. Mr. Dupuis, an able member of Sir William Garstin's staff, being appointed Inspector-General. An excellent start was made by the new department, though their operations were greatly handicapped by the sinking of the barge containing the different portions of the two steamers intended for the use of the officers in the manner suggested in Sir William Garstin's report. Survey operations on an extensive scale were carried out in several directions. Thus one party was engaged in the neighbourhood of Kassala with the object of studying a project for improving the irrigation of the lands bordering upon the River Gash. Three other parties were at work surveying and levelling the Gezireh, *i.e.*, the tract lying between the White and the Blue Niles. A fifth party was occupied in carrying a line of levels and a rough survey across the country lying between the Sobat junction and the Bor, in

connection with the proposal to cut a new channel for the Upper Nile between those two points and thus to avoid the great swamps. Mr. Dupuis himself, accompanied by Captain Wilson of the Soudan Civil Service, rode across this country in February, 1905. Owing to the exhaustion of supplies Mr. Dupuis and his companion were compelled to turn back after having completed only one-third of the distance. The country is described as a level grass and bush covered plain, sparsely inhabited, and though liable to inundations in the rains, entirely free from swamps and almost waterless during the dry months of the year.

The work of 1905 of the Soudan Irrigation Department in the Gezireh consisted of two lines of levels—one up the Blue Nile to Famaka on the Abyssinian frontier, and the other up the White Nile to Goz Abu-Goma. From this last place a check-line connecting the two was run across to Sennaar. These two lines, in Mr. Dupuis's opinion, prove that the construction of a great canal for the irrigation of the Gezireh is a feasible work. It would, however, be a costly one, as the canal would have to "take off" the river very far south, probably somewhere in the vicinity of Karkoj, and a barrage would have to be constructed in the Blue Nile itself. Amongst the other work carried through by the department was the erection of substantial masonry gauges at important points upon both rivers. In the autumn of 1905 Mr. Dupuis visited America to study the different types of hydraulic dredgers there in use, with a view to the introduction of such machinery in the Upper Nile Basin. Subsequently the Government sanctioned the expenditure of £E150,000 on the purchase of three large dredgers of different types, together with a subsidiary fleet of tugs and coal barges for employment on the White Nile.

By the season of 1906 the Soudan Irrigation Service had got thoroughly to work, and surveys were pushed forward in all directions. Such was the progress made that Sir William Garstin was able to report that the department "had advanced many steps further forward in the direction of solving the problems connected with the water supply of Egypt and the Soudan." The difficulties encountered by the officials, however, were very considerable. The climate in particular was a serious obstacle, "as it is precisely in these regions where the greatest amount of study is required that the diseases which prostrate the explorer and paralyze his efforts flourish most abundantly." In the latter months of the year Sir William Garstin travelled with Mr. Dupuis up the Blue Nile as far as Roseires, and the two officials discussed the question of the construction of the proposed canal from the Blue Nile in considerable detail. As a result of his investigations, Sir William Garstin came to the conclusion that the scheme for a large flood canal taking off the Blue Nile and watering the Gezireh should be abandoned in favour of a project for giving irrigation water after the flood has passed away, *i.e.* during the months of October to March. To render such a canal possible a barrage in the Blue Nile to hold up water to the requisite height would be indispensable. The barrage, however, could not be commenced until a railway was carried up from Halfaya to the site decided upon, which would certainly be south of Sennaar. The cost of the canal and barrage, Sir William Garstin estimates, would be approximately £E3,000,000. This is an enormous sum, but the benefits conferred by the work would be commensurate with the expenditure, and he anticipates that there would be a return of 8 per cent. on the outlay. The area that could be eventually irrigated in the Gezireh is immense. Mr. Dupuis estimates it to be from 3,000,000 to 4,000,000 acres, north of Wad Medani alone. Such a canal as that contemplated would permit of wheat cultivation over this entire area, and undoubtedly cotton would be grown as well. The work carried out in the season of 1907 only strengthened the views held by Sir William Garstin as to the necessity of the construction of the works on the Blue Nile. Until they are executed he does not think it will be possible for the Soudan to increase its revenues. There should, he points out, always be a sufficient supply of water in the Blue Nile in winter to permit of the irrigation of 500,000 acres in the Gezireh during that season without detriment to the interests of Egyptian irrigation. The only difficulty that might arise would, in a year of low Nile, be the filling of the Assouan Reservoir, which might have to be spread over a longer period than at present. No works of the magnitude of those contemplated can, however, be undertaken until the railway is extended to beyond Sennaar. In the view of the remoteness of the locality and of the scarcity of labour, it is probable that several years must elapse before the commencement of operations. Even after the scheme has been completed, the development of irrigation in these scantily populated tracts cannot, says Sir Eldon Gorst in his administration report for 1907, be expected to progress otherwise than slowly.

One of Lord Cromer's last official acts in Egypt was to pen a despatch reviewing the most recent developments of irrigation policy with special reference to the project for the heightening of the As-ouan Dam, which had just been sanctioned. The despatch in question, which was dated March 15, 1907, was accompanied by an exhaustive memorandum by Sir William Garstin upon the Egyptian water supply. In this document, the head of the Irrigation Department dealt in his lucid and interesting way with the question of water storage in the Nile Valley, and showed the results which have followed from the works which have been undertaken by the department, and the advantages which might be expected to flow from the further schemes contemplated. He estimated that the sale value of lands already provided with perennial irrigation had been increased by no less than £E24,510,000, and that when the canal now in course of construction is completed, the figure will rise to no less than £E28,312,900. The increased rental value is already £E1,465,000, and will eventually amount to £E2,022,350. In addition to this, the cotton crop, which in 1906 was estimated at £E28,000,000, has been secured. It is rarely in the history of modern administration that there has been a more brilliant vindication of the methods of a body of officials than are supplied by these figures. Whatever may be the future course of history in Egypt, the work of the Irrigation Department will stand out in bold relief as one of the most remarkable features of the development of modern civilisation on the banks of the Nile.



PLOUGH BUFFALOES.

AGRICULTURE.

IN Egypt, as in other countries, the character of its agriculture is determined chiefly by the following factors :—

1. Meteorology.
2. Soil.
3. Character of its people.

The first-named factor is dealt with elsewhere, while, with regard to the last, it need here only be said that the cultivator (fellah) is forced, by the pressure of the population on the land, to the strenuous life for which his physical strength fits him, but is in general not of a saving disposition—hence his heavy indebtedness to the money lender.

It is the character of the soil and the method of treating it that will be dealt with in this article.

The soil of Egypt may be briefly described as a rich black loam with variations in character on the one hand towards a black clay ("ard soda"), on the other to almost pure sand ("ard safra"). The black loam which forms some 90 per cent. of the cultivated area in Egypt is, when sweet, extremely fertile, and even the lighter sandy areas found generally on the edge of the desert will, in the neighbourhood of a large town like Cairo, rent for about £E12 per feddan and give a net profit to the occupier of £E40 owing to the luxuriant growth of table vegetables that it produces.

There are still large tracts of otherwise good soil in Egypt that are not sweet owing to their containing salt. These tracts lie principally in the north of the Delta and in Fayoum, but their area is rapidly decreasing owing to their reclamation at the hands often of European companies by means of drainage and washing.

The depth of the soil in Egypt is very great in many parts, *e.g.*, at Benha (in mid Delta) it is 56 feet thick, while at Tantah, 25 miles away, it is only half this thickness. Underneath are sands of gravels of an ancient sea.

The soil is the result of the deposition of Nile mud, brought down from Abyssinia by the Atbara and Blue Nile, which settles down when the flow of the water is checked owing to the river at the time of inundation spreading out over the land. The amount of suspended matter in this flood water is given in the following table :—

SUSPENDED MATTER IN NILE FLOOD WATER IN PARTS BY WEIGHT PER 100,000.

	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
July 15 ...	9·6	9·8	20·1	13·1
August 15 ...	96·0	163·7	186·2	112·2
September 15 ...	156·2	155·2	128·8	120·2
October 15 ...	128·3	96·6	90.8	63·4
November 15 ...	85·9	57·5	58·0	32·8
December 15 ...	58·2	32·7	42·9	13·8

On an average, then, the water as it flows into the basins contains about 160 parts by weight of suspended matter to every 100,000 parts by weight of water, and it has been found that after remaining in the basins for a couple of months this water contains only about 40 parts per 100,000 as it flows back into the Nile. As the water basins are covered to a depth of about 1½ yards it follows that about six tons of mud are deposited on each feddan* and this forms an annual layer about $\frac{1}{25}$th of an inch in thickness. Since, therefore, the time of the Pharaohs a layer of Nile mud about 10 feet thick has been deposited in the valley, and this forms the present soil.

This layer is not of the same consistency throughout, being more sandy in some parts than in others. This mixture of mud and sand may actually form the soil at the surface, in which case the soil is a sandy loam in character. In the best districts, however, the surface soil is composed of real Nile mud, which forms a stiffish loam or even in parts a clay. In these districts differences in productiveness of the soil occur owing to the fact that this upper layer of excellent soil may be underlain in some places at a depth of a foot or two by a more sandy layer, while in other places we do not get a sandy layer for 4 to 10 feet. The subsoil in Egypt may in fact differ from place to place without there being any difference in the surface soil, and this often explains why one district is more fertile than another.

The agricultural seasons in Egypt are determined by the combined effect of the meteorological conditions and the water supply; the latter term is, in the almost entire absence of rain, synonymous with the Nile. This stately river is indeed the "Maker of Egypt." Of its two main tributaries, the White Nile flows from the Victoria Nyanza through a distance of over 2,000 miles to Khartoum to join the Blue Nile, which has come some 800 miles from Lake Tsana in Abyssinia. Then together the united Nile continues its course for about 2,000 miles to join the Mediterranean, taking for the journey about fifteen days in flood and forty when low, and being joined on the way by the Atbara (also rising in Abyssinia), which, though dry in summer, adds when in flood about one-third of the volume of the river already carrying past Khartoum some 8,000 tons of water per second; at low Nile this amount is reduced to about one-fifteenth.

It is to the Atbara and the Blue Nile that Egypt owes its annual supply of "red water," brought down by the Nile in flood, from which is deposited on the inundated plain the thin sheet of fertilising mud. Now that perennial canal irrigation has almost entirely superseded the inundation system introduced by the Pharaohs, this valuable mud is largely lost by deposition in the canals themselves instead of on the land. It remains to be seen whether this transformation now being completed will prove the unmixed blessing that some suppose it to be.

The Nile at Assouan is lowest at the end of May, rises slowly to the middle of July, then rapidly to the end of August, and reaches its maximum in the first half of September, after which it falls slowly during October and November. At Cairo the rise is rapid during July and the first half of August, the height is then nearly constant for two months, and a fall, more gradual than the rise, sets in in the middle of October. The difference between the level of the water at high and low Nile is about 24 feet at Cairo.

We see, then, that the period during which the water supply is most abundant is from August to December. This has an important agricultural bearing, since, for instance, it is forbidden to sow maize, which requires much

* Practically an acre.

water, before the supply for the cotton crop is assured. The "Sharaki* decree" forbids the sowing of land (which, after a crop of clover or wheat, is dry or unirrigated) with maize or seed until notice of permission is given; the date of the permission is as soon after July 15 as possible.

The second factor in determining the agricultural seasons of Egypt, viz., the meteorological conditions, is of a simple nature, owing to the almost entire absence of rain except in the belt along the coast in the north of the Delta. The country is subject to a high day temperature, which sinks rapidly at night, especially near the desert. At Cairo the mean temperature is 53° F. in January and 84° in July; near the sea these extremes are respectively 4° higher and 3° lower. It is only rarely that the temperature in the valley itself sinks to freezing point.

With regard to rain and humidity the following table shows the rainfall and humidity at Cairo and Alexandria :—

	Cairo (Gizeh).		Alexandria.	
	Mean Rainfall in Millimetres.*	Mean Humidity per cent	Mean Rainfall in Millimetres.*	Mean Humidity per cent.
January ...	4·4	68	62	—
February	3·6	63	20	—
March ...	4·5	59	14	61
April ...	7·1	51	2	62
May ...	·8	47	1	65
June ...	0	47	0	69
July ...	0	50	0	70
August ...	0	56	0	68
September	0	62	1	65
October ...	1·1	66	9	66
November	·8	68	35	—
December	4·9	69	79	—
Total	27·2		223	

* 25 millimetres = 1 inch (approx.).

From this it is seen that only in the north of the Delta is there sufficient rain to be of any assistance in growing crops. There, while the canals are closed for a couple of months in the winter for the purpose of clearing them of deposited mud, the farmers hope for a few showers to enable the newly-sown barley and wheat to tide over the interval. Elsewhere rain is rather harmful than otherwise, especially if, as occasionally happens, it falls late, *e.g.*, in March, when it may cause the surface of the soil to cake, and thus prevent the cotton seedlings from forcing their way to the surface.

Given the above data we can see how the agricultural seasons are determined by them. The seasons are :

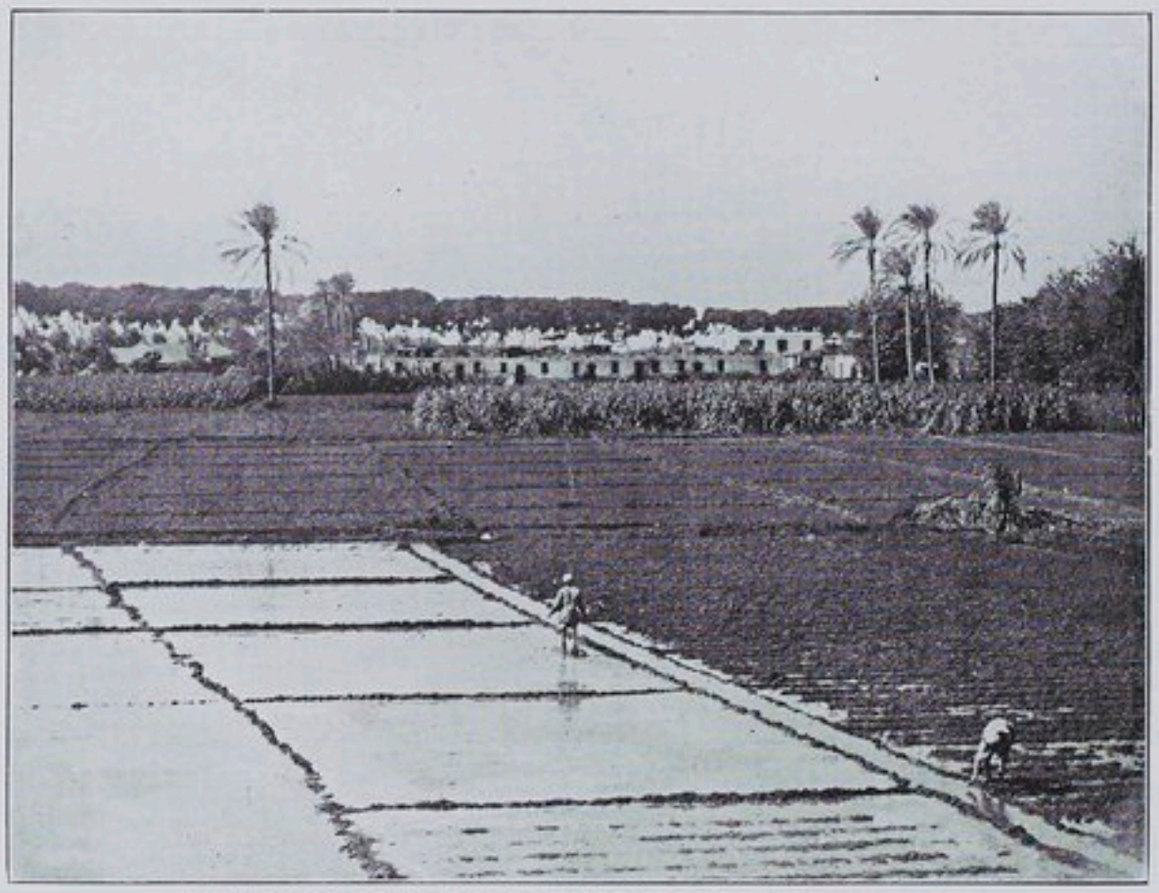
1. Winter season ("shitwa")—October to June.
2. Summer season ("sef")—March to November.
3. Nile season ("nil")—August to December.

The winter season is characterised by abundant water at the time of sowing, the supply gradually falling off until we reach the period when water is scarcest in June. The principal winter crops are wheat, barley, beans, "bersim," lentils, and chick peas, all of which except "bersim" (Egyptian clover) require very little water after they have once got a start. For this reason they are the only crops that can be grown in the basins of Upper Egypt owing to the character of the water supply.

* "Sharaki" means dry land.

The summer season is characterised by comparative scarcity of water at the commencement, great scarcity in the middle, and an abundant supply at the end. The chief "sefi" crops are cotton, sugar-cane, and rice; these crops require water throughout their period of growth.

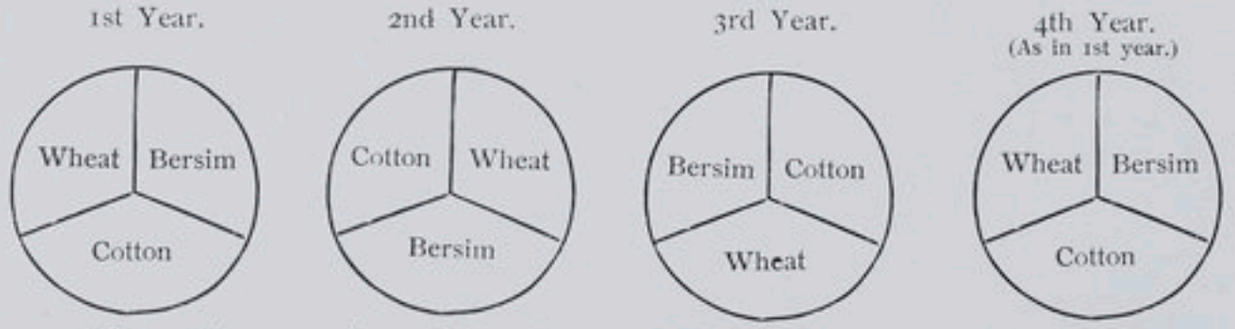
The Nile season is characterised throughout by an abundant supply of water, as is indicated by the name. The chief "Nili" crops are maize, millet, and rice, which all require very heavy and frequent doses of water.



WATERING LAND PREVIOUSLY TO SOWING BERSIM.

The characteristics of the above seasons with regard to temperature will be obvious from the statement of the months over which they extend. It will be seen that the seasons overlap one another; this is simply due to the fact that the seasons are considered as periods during which the principal crops are grown. Thus the summer season is the season for the cotton crop which is sown in March and picked in November.

The way in which the different crops follow



one another on the same piece of ground, *i.e.*, the rotation of crops, is as follows :—

1st year
1. *Bersim*, sown in September and ploughed up in December, is followed by
2. *Cotton*, sown in March and harvested in November; this is followed by

2nd year
3. *Bersim* (or beans), sown in September and ploughed up in June; this is followed by
4. *Maize*, sown in July and harvested in November; this is followed by

3rd year
5. *Wheat*, sown in November and harvested in April; this is followed by
6. *Maize*, sown in July and harvested in November; this is followed by

Bersim, sown in September, and so on.

Thus after three years we get the same cycle of events recurring. This succession of crops therefore constitutes what is known as a "three-year rotation" of crops.

Some of the catch crops, *e.g.*, bersim (1), maize (4) and (6) are sometimes omitted, in which case the land is allowed to lie fallow.

For many reasons no proprietor sows *all* his land the first year with cotton, the second with maize, and the third with wheat. He divides his land into three parts and sows one of them every year with each of the above-mentioned crops.

Represented graphically, therefore, the above "rotation of crops" is as follows :—

This diagram represents the crops on the ground in April. The cotton (2) has been preceded by bersim (1)*. The wheat (5) will be followed by maize (6). The bersim (3) will be followed by maize (4).

This three-year rotation of crops is what was practised until, some years ago, the cultivation of cotton became so profitable that farmers began to sow more than one-third of their land with this crop.

* The numbers in brackets refer to the crops in the list above.

At present a two-year rotation is more common. The succession of crops is as follows :—

1st Year { 1. Bersim. 2. Cotton.

2nd Year { 3. Wheat (or beans). 4. Maize (or fallow).

In parts of the Delta where rice-growing is allowed, this crop will take the place of maize (6) in our three-year rotation ; the wheat (5) being in this case generally replaced by barley.

The following table shows the crops that are grown in each of these seasons, and the area in feddans which was put under each in the years September, 1905–August, 1906 :—

LOWER EGYPT.

PROVINCES.	Total Area in Feddans.	Uncultiv. Area.	Cultivated Area.	Double Cropped Area.	NILI CROPS, IN FEDDANS				WINTER CROPS, IN FEDDANS.					
					Maize.	Millet.	Rice.	V'getables, &c.	Wheat.	Beans.	Barley.	Bersim, &c.	Onions.	Other Crops.
Kaliubieh.....	206,956	24,375	182,581	103,347	94,241	755	—	16	53,772	14,592	6,342	41,814	999	1,187
Sharkia	618,009	77,479	540,530	285,705	222,934	19,203	5,552	224	143,524	26,721	43,917	105,202	2,413	4,017
Dakahlieh	559,618	72,934	486,684	294,588	121,689	14,645	7,668	—	97,348	3,685	26,412	214,015	452	748
Gharbieh.....	1,526,921	575,458	951,463	389,083	220,875	55,761	38,341	77	163,223	31,740	90,564	292,512	1,414	1,515
Menufieh	349,988	4,398	345,590	209,679	159,073	50,606	—	65	111,896	20,773	13,718	70,868	1,594	801
Beheireh.....	765,620	145,334	620,286	219,195	142,128	10,199	11,266	—	63,070	21,243	81,446	182,460	1,018	3,217
TOTAL	4,027,112	899,978	3,127,134	1,501,597	960,940	151,170	62,827	382	632,833	118,754	262,399	906,871	7,890	11,485

PROVINCES.	SUMMER CROPS, IN FEDDANS.										Gardens (in Feddans).
	Rice.	Maize.	COTTON.						Sugar Cane.	Vegetables, &c.	
			Total.	Afifi.	Abasi.	Jannovitz.	Ashmouni.	Other Varieties.			
Kaliubieh	—	—	60,311	59,373	267	502	—	169	469	6,212	5,218
Sharkia	18,215	16,064	199,318	189,868	4,408	1,671	—	3,371	380	16,863	1,690
Dakahlieh	41,420	15,366	234,561	207,291	872	26,262	—	135	256	1,690	1,316
Gharbieh	45,171	4,730	387,925	327,910	8,148	50,206	427	1,234	878	4,343	1,477
Menufieh	—	131	119,275	112,907	3,830	855	374	1,310	846	3,940	1,682
Beheireh	38,435	14,759	258,707	245,345	7,252	4,976	944	190	913	9,401	1,210
TOTAL	143,242	51,050	1,260,097	1,142,694	24,777	84,472	1,745	6,409	3,742	42,449	12,593

UPPER EGYPT.

PROVINCES.	Total Area in Feddans.	Uncultiv. Area.	Cultivated Area.	Double Cropped Area.	NILI CROPS, IN FEDDANS.				WINTER CROPS, IN FEDDANS.					
					Maize.	Millet.	Rice.	Vegetables, &c.	Wheat.	Beans.	Barley.	Bersim, &c.	Onions.	Other Crops.
Gizeh	186,746	10,635	176,111	51,740	37,904	7,576	—	—	53,452	12,902	17,221	48,150	2,581	4,681
Beni Souef ...	238,913	2,721	236,191	49,361	41,323	2,127	—	—	73,204	59,955	11,534	37,652	1,087	1,744
Fayoum	345,419	45,147	300,271	234,335	70,916	85,777	16,054	3,432	77,565	66,493	30,247	94,731	891	1,079
Minieh	299,788	14,316	385,471	114,564	55,336	31,097	—	—	62,448	114,319	10,921	78,579	6,203	16,907
Assiout	416,252	6,925	409,326	65,405	7,138	31,934	12	—	115,097	118,848	10,447	91,022	3,792	16,475
Girgeh	313,175	1,878	311,296	50,369	15,157	9,178	—	333	97,937	55,669	40,967	87,470	6,039	10,943
Keneh	346,961	18,052	328,909	63,183	28,589	23,896	—	81	92,406	32,163	55,865	52,447	895	67,316
Assouan	73,323	13,798	59,524	5,774	26	20,387	—	—	14,142	3,003	14,873	1,151	242	5,527
TOTAL	2,220,577	113,472	2,216,999	635,231	256,389	211,972	16,066	3,846	586,251	463,352	192,075	491,202	21,730	124,672

PROVINCES.	SUMMER CROPS, IN FEDDANS.										Gardens (in Feddans).
	Rice.	Maize.	COTTON.						Sugar Cane.	Vegetables, &c.	
			Total.	Afifi.	Abasi.	Jannovitz.	Ashmouni.	Other Varieties.			
Gizeh	—	12,198	17,443	14,520	—	—	2,302	620	338	12,600	807
Beni Souef	—	9,523	42,950	170	223	—	42,557	—	2,476	1,710	265
Fayoum.....	—	27	76,561	2,142	—	—	74,419	—	652	6,671	3,512
Minieh	—	18,460	87,295	709	—	—	86,586	—	13,808	4,107	555
Assiout	—	41,911	18,988	2,193	480	—	16,086	230	14,352	2,885	1,830
Girgeh	—	31,999	145	—	80	10	54	—	3,220	870	2,238
Keneh	—	21,471	2,616	1,403	274	—	938	—	11,935	1,106	1,306
Assouan.....	—	1,806	186	—	—	—	—	186	113	1,976	1,868
TOTAL	—	137,395	246,184	21,137	1,057	10	222,942	1,036	46,894	31,925	12,381

Taking the crops separately we will indicate the times of sowing and harvesting and also the method of cultivation. But first we must describe the agricultural implements the "fellah" employs.

TILLAGE IMPLEMENTS.

The country plough is of very primitive construction, but does very efficient work in the friable soil of Egypt. It consists essentially of (*a*) a piece of wood shod with an iron share and running horizontally through the soil, (*b*) a long pole to which the yoke is attached, (*c*) a handle by which the "fellah" guides the implement.

The whole costs about 60 piastres tariff, and stirs, but does not invert, the soil to a depth of about 5 inches at the first ploughing and deeper the second, until after several ploughings the surface soil is broken up to a depth of as much as a foot. It is drawn by a pair of oxen.

The present plough differs from that shown on the walls of the tombs at Sakkara and elsewhere, which was in use some six thousand years ago, almost solely in that the latter had two handles instead of one.

The native "roller" or "zahaffa" consists simply of a straight piece of wood drawn broadside-on over the ploughed land by a pair of oxen. To add to the weight the driver stands on the wood.

The "fass" and "maazaka" are hand hoes with short handles (about 3 feet long); the former is the common type in use, while the latter, with less surface but a longer cutting edge, is used in working wet soil, which would stick persistently to the deep blade of the fass.

The "norag" or native threshing machine consists of a wooden or iron frame about 6 feet long and 3 feet broad (with a seat above for the driver), carrying four to six axles on which are fixed a number of thin steel discs (about six on each). These discs act as wheels as the machine is drawn by a pair of oxen over the cut corn spread out in a circle on the threshing floor; they cut and bruise the straw into small pieces and at the same time knock out the grain. The chaffed straw is then separated from the heavier grain by means of a five-pronged fork ("midrah") made of wood, the grain passing between the prongs and remaining in place while the straw is removed a few feet. A similar three-pronged fork is shown being used for the same purpose on the walls of the tombs.



1. HAY MERCHANTS. 2. "ZAHAFFA" (SOIL-LEVELLER). 3. DRIVING SHEEP.

The "kassabieh" is another very primitive instrument. It is used for levelling the soil, an operation which is very necessary in Egypt, since if the soil is not level the irrigation water will not spread evenly over the part to be watered. The kassabieh consists of a wooden scoop drawn by a pair of bullocks. The open end is shod with iron, and a thin layer of soil is thus scraped off where the land is high and dragged in the scoop to lower parts where, by means of the handles, the scoop is tipped up; as the bullocks continue onwards the implement is thus dragged over the soil it has thus transported.

IRRIGATION IMPLEMENTS.

The following are the chief native implements for raising water from the canals on to the land in districts where the water level in the canals is lower than the surface of the ground:—

The "Persian wheel" or "sakieh" consists of a wooden wheel on a horizontal axle bearing an endless rope to which are attached earthen pots at intervals of 2 or 3 feet. On the same axle is a second wooden wheel bearing twenty-four to thirty-six cogs which is actuated by a large cog-wheel (also of wood) lying in a horizontal plane with its axle vertical. This large wheel is turned by a bullock which is attached to it by a pole rigidly fastened to the wheel at one end and placed on the animal's neck at the other. The animal walks round in a circle, often being blindfolded to prevent giddiness, and thus raises the pots on the rope.

This rope is of such a length as to dip under the surface of the water in the well, and the pots are thus filled; as they are inverted at the highest point of the wheel, they empty themselves into a wooden trough placed horizontally as a diameter of the wheel, but not, of course, attached to it.

This machine is used for raising water from 10 to 25 feet, or even more. It costs about £E30 complete.

The "taboot" is a modification of the Persian wheel, in which the string of pots is replaced by divisions in the ordinary circumference of the wheel. The whole is thus rigid, and in consequence, as the wheel must dip below the surface of the water to be raised, the depth of the latter from the surface of the ground must be less than the diameter of the wheel. The wheel is generally about 13 feet in diameter, and is used for raising water from depths varying from 3 to 10 feet. It costs about £E30 complete.

In the Fayoum, where the canals run faster than elsewhere in Egypt, large wheels of the "sakieh" and "taboot" pattern are

driven by the current itself, paddles being attached to the wheel for this purpose.

The Archimedean screw, or "tamboor," consists of a hollow wooden cylinder, inside which is a screw made of a large number of small pieces of wood and an iron axle. The length of the cylinder is about 8 feet, and its diameter about 15 inches. A man can carry it on his shoulder, and easily fix it in position by driving one post into the water in the canal on which to pivot the lower end of the axle, and a second post on the land to be irrigated for the other end of the axle. Turned vigorously, they will irrigate almost as much as a Persian wheel, but cannot raise the water from the same depth.

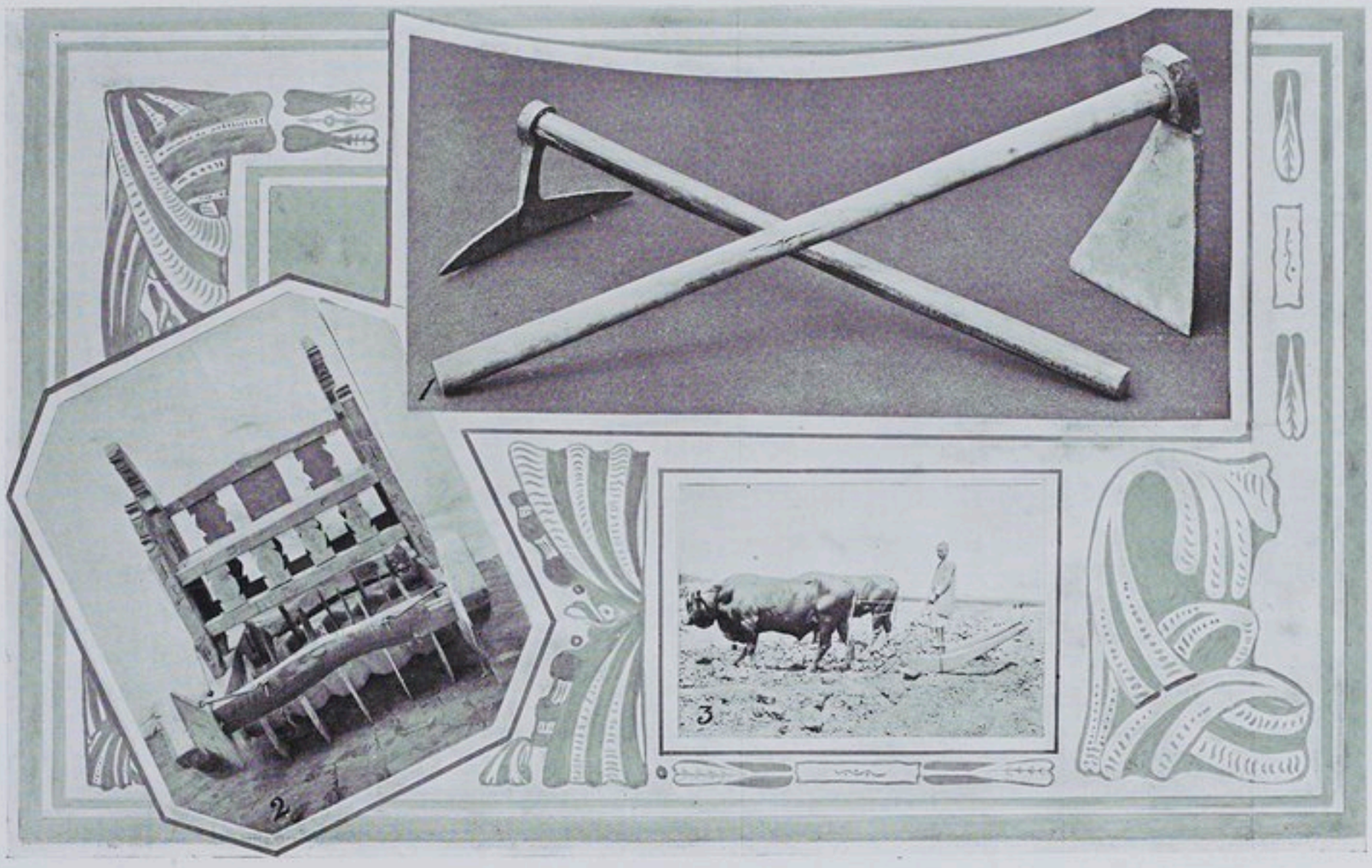
The cost is about 60 piastres tariff.

The "nattala" is a straw-mat bucket swung by two men by means of four cords. It can raise water only 3 or 4 feet.

On large properties many of the above primitive instruments are no longer used, the place of the native plough and zahaffa being taken by steam tackle (costing £E3,000 to £E4,000), of the "norag" by the European threshing machine, and of the water-raising implements by centrifugal pumps driven by oil or coal.

Egypt being the country of paradoxes, there is no intermediate step between the native plough, costing 60 piastres tariff, and steam tackle for ploughing costing £E3,000 to £E4,000, the ordinary horse-drawn European plough not being used.

The canal land comprises* the whole of the Delta, the Fayoum, and a thin strip of land, watered by the only perennial canal, the Ibrahimieh, of Upper Egypt, that extends from Deirout to Ashmant. In this land arrangements must be made for dividing the fields into small plots by means of ridges of soil about a foot high into which water can be led from a canal. When one plot has been thus evenly watered the stream is turned into the next, and so on. The size of the plots varies with the crop grown, *e.g.*, in the case of vegetables they may contain only three or four square yards, while for "bersim" they may be half an acre or more in extent. The amount of water applied at each watering varies with the



1. "FASS," AND "MAAZAKA." 2. "NORAG." 3. THE "KASSABIEH."

The "shadoof" consists of two posts of wood or earth bearing a cross piece, at the top of which is pivoted a long lever. The long arm of this lever is attached to a wooden pole, 10 to 12 feet long, bearing at the other end a bucket of skin or iron—a kerosene tin is often used; the short arm of the lever has as a counterpoise a lump of earth or a stone. The instrument is worked by a man pulling down on the rod bearing the bucket, and thus lowering the latter into the water to be raised; when the bucket is full the rod is released, and the water is raised by the counterpoise with but little assistance from the man. Water can thus be raised 6 to 8 feet; where a greater lift is necessary two or three shadoofs can be employed at different levels, one supplying water to the next above, and in this way water can be raised 22 feet or more.

METHODS OF CULTIVATION.

Naturally, the methods of cultivation in Egypt are modified by the fact that the crops receive practically no rain, and that water is supplied to them from irrigation channels, except in the "basins" of Upper Egypt, now almost completely converted into canal land. In this basin land the water soaked up by the soil during the period of inundation is sufficient to bring to maturity the crops grown on such land, *e.g.*, wheat, beans, lentils, chick peas, &c. The only subsequent water available in these "basins" is that raised from shallow wells, dug afresh every year, by means of the "sakieh" or "shadoof." Water thus raised is often used to raise a crop of vegetables, *e.g.*, water melons, tomatoes, &c., after the crops above mentioned have been harvested.

crop, but on an average is about 350 tons per feddan.

CROPS.

The crops will now be treated separately (for cotton cultivation, see the special notice of this crop).

Wheat is grown both in basin and canal land. In the former case the seed is broadcasted on the wet mud as soon as the water of inundation has been run off, and is covered by simply dragging over it a native harrow (called "ramroum") composed of a couple of date leaves; or the mud may be allowed to get drier, in which case the seed is dug in by means of the "maazaka." On canal land the seed may be sown in the dry soil

* The basin land now being converted into canal land is not included here as most of it has not yet borne a crop with canal water.

previously ploughed and then covered by the plough or "zahaffa," after which the land is watered; or the land may first be watered, the seed then broadcasted and ploughed in, and the "zahaffa" finally drawn over the soil.

Sowing takes place in November in canal land; in the basins it may be earlier or later than this according as the water of inundation is run off early or late. Little is done to the crop afterwards except in canal lands where two or three waterings are given. Manure is applied when the plants are about a foot high if a supply is available. The kind of manure used is that known as "coufri"; this consists of the debris of houses made of sun-burnt bricks that rise as mounds throughout the whole of Egypt and mark the sites of deserted villages.

Ordinary farm-yard manure is also sometimes used for wheat, in which case it is applied before sowing. This manure is generally reserved, however, for the cotton crop. This manure is not made with straw as in Europe, but with soil which is carted from the fields, generally on donkey back, to the stable, spread under the animals, and later taken back to the fields as manure.

In addition to these two kinds of manure the "fellah" now often uses artificial manures. Of these 100 to 200 lbs. of nitrate of soda may be applied to an acre of wheat as a top-dressing.

The crop ripens in April and is cut by means of small sickles; a man can cut about one-fifth of an acre per day, and receives either money (say 4 P.T.) or about one-twentieth of the crop he cuts in payment.

Threshing is done by "norag," which threshes about one-third of an acre per day. The chaffed straw is separated from the grain by means of the "midrah" and is cleaned by means of a series of riddles from the particles of soil that have got into it in the process of threshing. The man who does this generally gets as payment about one-twenty-fourth of the grain he cleans.

Naturally neither grain nor straw is as clean as if dealt with by an European thresher.

The yield on good canal land with liberal manuring is about 7 ardebs = 38 bushels. Egyptian wheats belong to the class that have a "beard" like barley, and at first sight a field would be taken as consisting of the latter crop to one acquainted only with the agriculture of England.

Barley is cultivated in much the same way as wheat, and therefore needs no special mention. It is generally grown on the poorer soils, *i.e.*, in sandy or slightly salty districts.

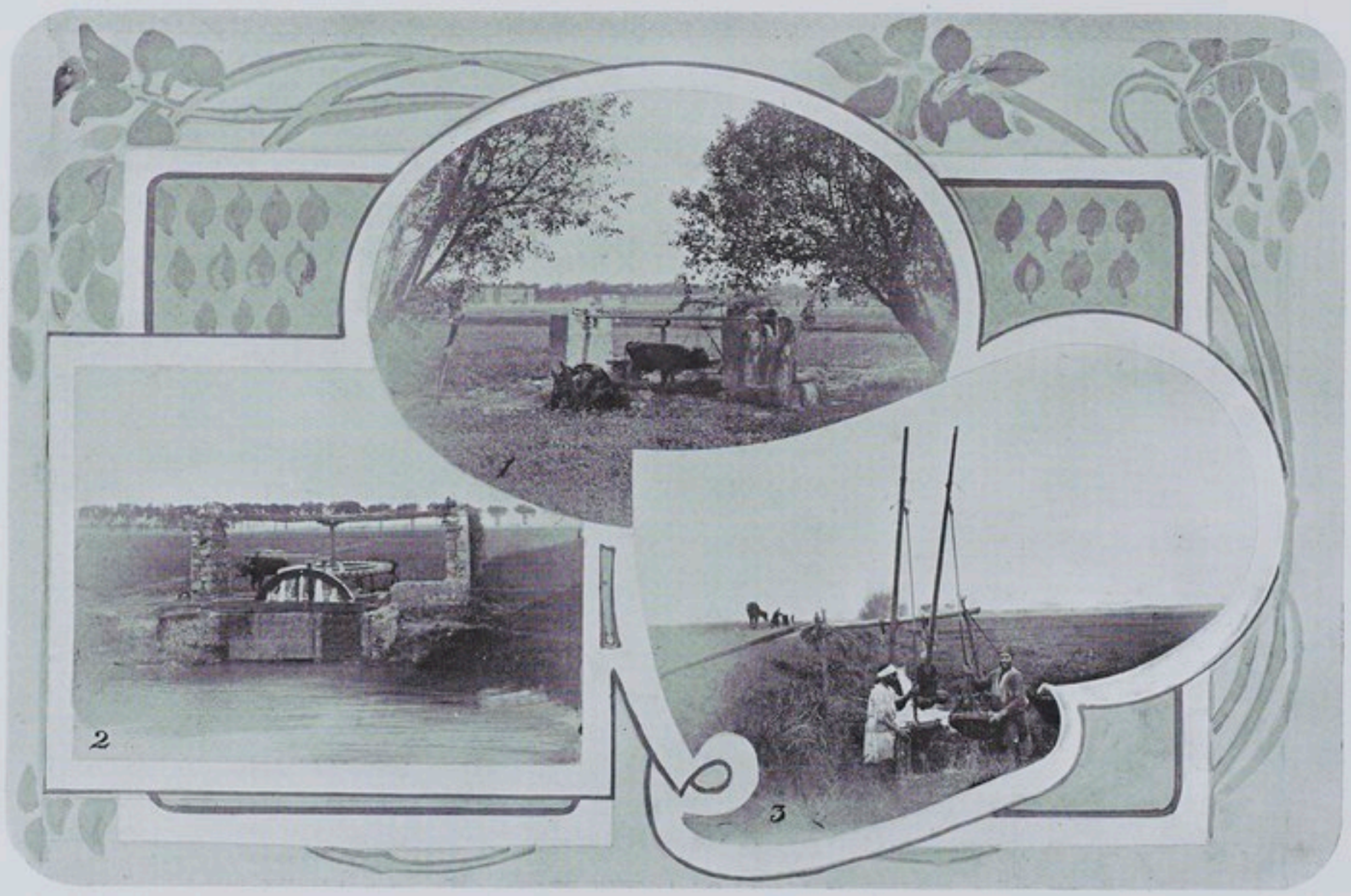
"*Bersim*," or Egyptian clover, is the great fodder crop of Egypt from December to June. After this the cattle exist on chaffed wheat or barley straw with a little beans, green maize, &c.

Bersim, being a leguminous crop, enriches the soil in nitrogen, and its growth is thus of the utmost importance to the Egyptian farmer in two ways, viz.: (1) as *the* fodder of the country, and (2) as the cheapest way of manuring the soil. Its importance will be seen from the table of areas put under the different crops. Its value as a manure is increased by the fact that as a rule it is not cut and removed from the land, but is eaten off by the cattle tethered on the field.

There are several varieties, *e.g.*, "Fahl" and "Saidi," which require little water and are therefore grown in the basins; "Miscawi" is the variety most commonly grown on canal land, and its cultivation is as given below.

The seed is sown from September to December. Before sowing, the land is heavily watered and the seed is immediately broadcasted by a man who walks through the water. As the water sinks into the soil, the seed which has fallen through the water on to the surface of the ground begins to germinate. Sometimes the seed is sown while the previous crop—cotton or maize—is still standing on the land; this implies that sowing can be done without even previously ploughing the land; a better crop is naturally obtained, however, if the land is first broken up.

The crop grows very rapidly in good weather, and after about six weeks is a foot high and ready for feeding off; if cold weather occurs after sowing it may take two months to get to this stage. It will have received water three times, that is, about every fifteen days. A second crop will be ready for grazing in about a month; this grows from the roots of the previous one—no new seed being sown—which receive water a few days after the removal of each crop and again about fifteen days later. In this way as many as four or even five crops can be obtained. The last one is in part left to ripen seed for the following year.



1. "TABOOT."
(High-level Water-wheel.)

2. PERSIAN WATER-WHEEL.

3. "SHADOOFS."
(For raising mud or water.)

Sold near large towns, the first crop brings in as much as £E3 per feddan and the others £E2½. To eat off a feddan of "bersim" in one day it requires about eighty cattle.

Maize, or "durra," forms the staple food crop of the fellah, who as a rule cannot afford to eat wheat bread.

The crop is sown as soon as permission is given by the irrigation service, say in the middle of July. The land which has just grown wheat or bersim is watered to soften it, then ploughed, the seed, previously soaked for about twenty hours in water, being dropped in behind the plough. The "zahaffa" then covers the seed, and twenty days later the first watering is given ; watering is repeated every fifteen or twenty days until the crop ripens in November. The plants are thinned out when about a foot high, and each watering is followed by a hoeing or "fassing" until the crop is too high to allow of this. Harvesting is accomplished by a man with a small sickle, with which the plants are cut close to the ground. The cobs are later twisted off by women and dried in the sun. After about three weeks the cobs are beaten with sticks, and the grains thus knocked off. The stalks are used only for burning, being too hard for use as cattle food.

The yield of grain is on an average about 7 ardebs, but this depends largely upon the quantity of manure applied. The fellah gives his maize crop whatever manure he has, as he knows that it responds well to such treatment, whether the manure be farm-yard, "coufri," or nitrate of soda.

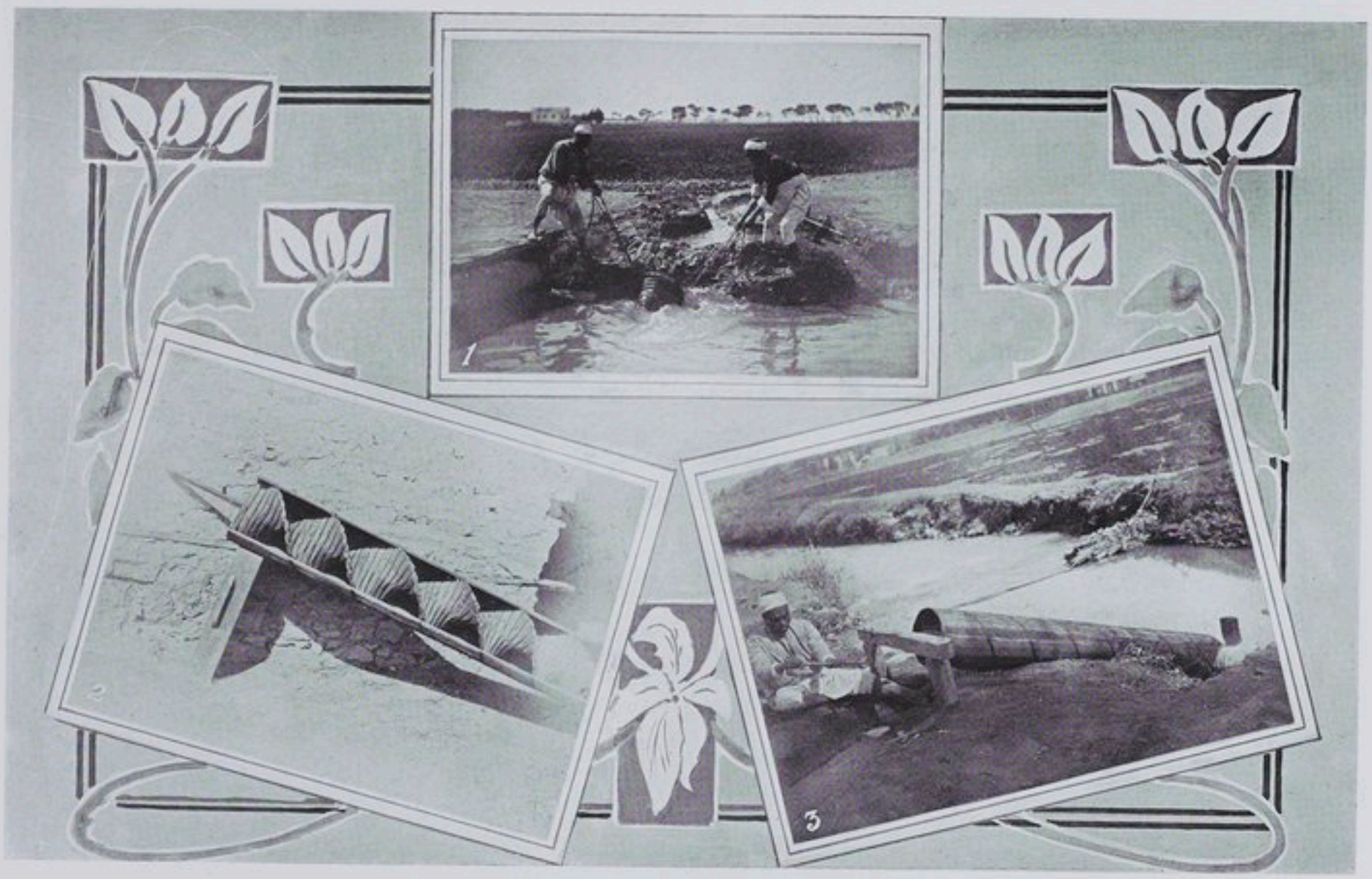
Millet (Andropogon sorghum) takes the place of maize in Upper Egypt. Its treatment is very similar.

Sugar-cane is grown only on the Ibrahimieh Canal in Upper Egypt, and even there its cultivation is giving place to that of cotton. Its cultivation is costly, large quantities of manure being necessary. The land is prepared in the same way as for cotton, with ridges about a yard apart. The "seed" consists of pieces of the canes of the previous crop cut into lengths, each containing three or four nods. These pieces are placed end to end in the bottoms of the furrows, the ridge between being then split by the plough so as to cover the canes. Water is then applied, and again every twenty days until the crop is ready for cutting.

Another method of sowing is to water the land first and then press the pieces of cane into the mud with the foot.

Sowing takes place in February or March, and harvesting in October or November, the canes being then cut and conveyed to the factory to be crushed. New seed may be sown every year, or the first year's plants may be allowed to grow for a second or even a third year.

Rice is cultivated only on the poorer kinds of land, often salt, for example, in Beheireh, and round Damietta in the Delta, and also in the Fayoum. It requires large quantities of water, and in most districts sufficient for its growth is not available. It is often grown as the first crop on salt land that is being reclaimed by washing, since it resists salt better than almost any other cultivated plant. There are several varieties, some of which, *e.g.*, "Sultani," are sown in May as a summer crop, while others, *e.g.*, "Sabeini," in August as a "Nili" crop. Since rice fields must be flooded, the divisions of the fields (about half a feddan in area) are separated from one another by ridges that are much higher and stronger than in the case of ordinary crops. The land is ploughed and watered ; while the water is still on the surface the latter is made level by dragging a plank over it. The seed is then sown. Before sowing, the seed is subjected to a curious process of germination, lasting about a fort-night. This consists in putting the seed into baskets and submerging the whole in a canal for about ten days. This causes the young rootlet to appear. The germinated seed is then washed by pouring water through it while still in baskets. A day later it is spread on a floor to a depth of about 5 inches, and covered with green bersim, over which are placed empty sacks. This completes the germination, the rootlet being now about an inch long. It is taken out and sown on the flooded fields, where it falls through the water on to the soil. It is kept covered by water in this way for a week to allow the rootlets to enter the soil. The water is then run off, but within a day or two the field must be covered with water again for a period of three or four days. For the first month this four-day submergence, with a two-days' dry interval, continues. The sub-mergence is then increased to eight days for a second month, after which the water is left to flow continuously on to the field



1. "NATTALA."
(Straw Bucket tor raising water.)

2. VIEW OF INSIDE OF ARCHIMEDEAN SCREW.

3. ARCHIMEDEAN SCREW.

at one end and off at the other, so that the plants stand in about 6 inches of water.

The grain is separated from the straw by the norag, or by the flail. The husk is removed from the grain either by modern machinery, as at Damietta, or by pounding with an iron-shod pestle in a wooden mortar. About 6 ardebs of grain is an average crop. The straw is useless, except for making bricks and paper.

Beans are cultivated more south of Cairo than in the Delta. In the basins the seed is broadcasted on the wet mud, and covered by drawing a light "zahaffa" over them, or by treading them in with the foot. On canal land the seed may be sown like wheat or maize. Sowing takes place as soon after September as possible, after which in the basins no more water is given, the crop, like wheat, being deep rooted, and capable of drawing water from depths of 3 or 4 feet. In canal lands, again, like wheat, it receives a couple of waterings.

The harvest takes place in March and April, cutting and threshing being carried out in the manner described for wheat. About 6 ardebs of beans is a fair crop, but the "Khamseens" of March may considerably lessen this amount.

Lentils is a crop that provides the fellaheen with one of his principal articles of food. Like beans, it is mostly grown in the basins of Upper Egypt, and its cultivation is very similar to that described for that crop. As the seed is smaller, and requires therefore to be buried less deeply in the mud, a couple of date leaves are drawn over them instead of a plank. Four or five ardebs of grain is an average crop.

Vetches take the place of bersim as a fodder crop in the extreme south of Egypt from Luxor onwards, the latter crop not doing so well in the south. The cultivation is similar to that of lentils.

Fenugreek is grown, mixed with bersim, &c., as a fodder crop in Upper Egypt. It receives the same treatment as vetches. Near large towns it is also eaten as a salad, while the seed is used in Europe as a spice in cattle foods and in Egypt in a similar capacity in the maize bread of the fellah.

"*Dineba*" (Panicum crus-galli), a small millet grown as a fodder crop on saltish land.

Onion, grown largely in Upper Egypt on light soils.



DATE MARKET.



NATIVE SHEEP (MERAISE BREED).

The following are some of the commoner minor crops of Egypt:—

"*Samar*" (Cyperus alopecuroides), a reed cultivated on saltish land and used for making mats.

Sesame or gingelly, an oil seed grown on sandy soil in the Delta.

Chick Pea (Cicer arietinum), grown chiefly in basin land.

Lupine, grown on sandy soil throughout the country.

Earth-nut or Pea-nut, grown on sandy soil in the Delta. The plant has the peculiar habit of burying its developing fruit in the ground, which it penetrates to a depth of as much as 3 inches.

Indigo is only cultivated to a very small extent.

Safflower (Carthamus tinctorius) is grown in a few places, sometimes for its seed, from which an edible oil is expressed, and sometimes for the flowers, from the petals of which a dye is obtained.

Henna (Lawsonia alba) is grown on sandy land in the east of the Delta. The plant grows for as many as twenty years forming a bush. It is sometimes called the Egyptian privet, since it resembles the privet of European hedges. From the leaves a red dye is obtained with which the natives, especially the women, dye their nails.

Fruits of various kinds are grown in Egypt, the commonest being grapes, apricots, bananas, oranges, figs, custard apples, pomegranates, water melons, &c., besides the date, of which the cultivation is briefly described below.

The *date palm* is the fruit, par excellence, of desert regions. Unless desert conditions prevail at the time of flowering and fruiting

no fruit is produced. This palm is the commonest tree in Egypt, increasing in numbers as we proceed southwards. The production of dates does not suffice, however, to meet the local consumption, for the imports of this fruit exceed the exports. The total number of trees, taxed in 1906 on the 1901 census, and their distribution is given in the following table :—

LOWER EGYPT.

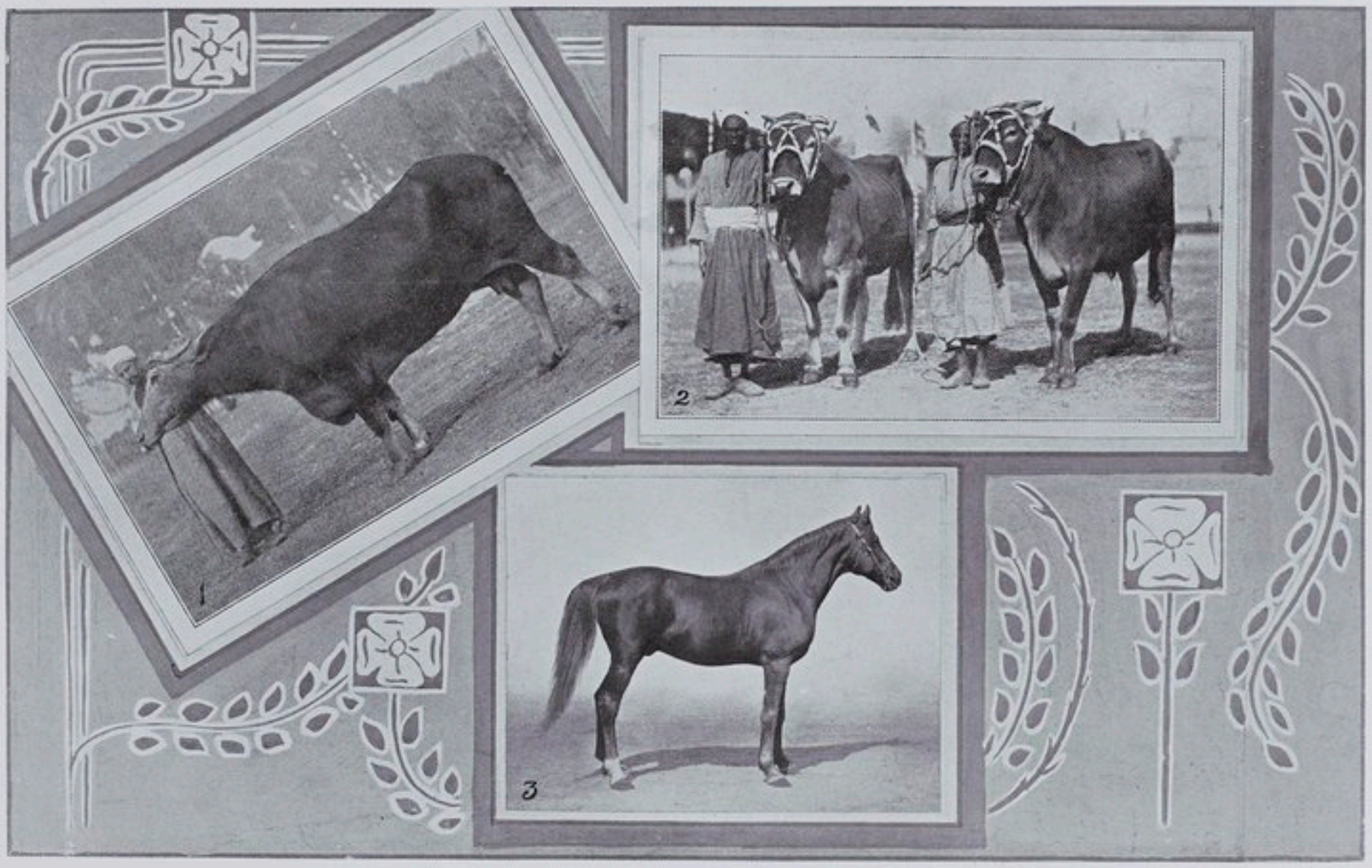
	Number.	
Kaliubieh	177,544	
Sharkia	732,906	
Dakahlieh	114,544	
Gharbieh	299,807	
Menufieh	38,610	
Beheireh	174,806	
		1,538,217

UPPER EGYPT.

	Number.	
Gizeh	404,043	
Beni Souef	168,731	
Fayoum	367,160	
Minieh	445,846	
Assiout	636,728	
Girgeh	459,294	
Keneh	447,305	
Assouan	634,343	
		3,563,450
Ariche	39,402	
Suez Canal (Neficheé)	2,542	
		41,944
TOTAL		5,143,611

Each tree (male or female) of flowering age bears a tax of 2½ P.T., except in the oases and the district of Halfa, where the tax is 1½ P.T. There are many varieties that differ in the character of the fruit, some bearing hard red dates, others soft dark brown ones, and so on. The palm will grow on all kinds of soil, and will moreover withstand a considerable amount of salt. It is not generally propagated by seed, since we can never say whether a seed will produce a male or a female tree, and, if female, what the quality of the fruit will be. Instead, the suckers that grow up round the bottom of the stem are cut out when three or four years old and transplanted. They give rise to the same kind of tree exactly both in sex and quality as their parent.

There should be about 20 feet distance between two neighbouring trees. Crops of fruit and vegetables are often grown in the shade of the palm groves.



1. GAMOOSE (BUFFALO COW). 2. NATIVE WORKING OXEN. 3. ARAB HORSE.

The suckers will flower about five years after transplanting, and will continue in bearing for over a century. Each tree produces up to 160 lbs. of fruit. The trees being either male or female, and not like ordinary trees bearing hermaphrodite flowers, fertilisation is carried out by hand so as to minimise the number of male trees to be grown. In this way one male is sufficient to set the fruit on about fifty to a hundred female trees. This operation of artificial pollination is carried out by a man climbing the trees and tying a sprig of a male inflorescence in each female inflorescence. This is done in April. The fruit ripens from September to December according to the variety.

CATTLE.

Little need be said of the cattle of Egypt, since the art of breeding is almost entirely undeveloped. Almost all agricultural operations are performed by bullocks ; the water-buffalo and goat are the milk-producers ; the sheep is, together with the three former animals, the butcher's article, while the camel and donkey are the principal means of transport employed by the fellah.

In working land under water, however, as in rice cultivation especially, the male buffalo is often used ; he is slower and more unwieldy than the bullock, and takes naturally to walking in miry ground ; indeed if left loose he invariably seeks a mud-hole in which to wallow. Again, the camel may sometimes be seen, most frequently in Upper Egypt, yoked to the plough with, as companion, another camel, a bullock, or even a donkey.

The horse is never employed in agricultural operation, but, together with the mule, is used only as a beast of draught or burden on the roads.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

MEASURES OF AREA.

NAME.	Square Kassabas	Square Metres	Square Yards	Square Diraas Mimari
Feddan Misri ...	333⅓	4,200	5,024	7,468
Kirat Kamel ...	13·88	175	209	311
Sahm	·57	7·29	8·72	13
Square Kassaba...	1	12·60	15·07	22·4

N.B.—1 Feddan = 24 Kirats = 576 Sahms.
1 Kirat = 24 Sahms.

APPROXIMATE WEIGHT OF AN ARDEB OF VARIOUS SEEDS.

NAME OF SEED.	Weight of an ardeb in rotls.
*Wheat (Saidi ... ...)	310
*Wheat (Beheireh ... ...)	320
*Wheat (futures ... ...)	300
*Barley	250
*Maize (Spot ... ...)	310
*Maize (futures ... ...)	300
Millet	300
Rice (unhusked)	640
*Beans (Saidi ... ...)	327
*Beans (Beheireh Fayoumi ...)	330
*Beans (futures ... ...)	320
*Lentils	330
Chick peas	325
Lupins	305
Bersim	360
Fenugreek	335
Vetchling	360
Flax	290
Sesame	266
Earth nut	170
Safflower	250
Lucerne	360
*Cotton	270

* The figures are the equivalents used at Alexandria. The rest are from actual measurements.

MEASURES OF CAPACITY (DRY SUBSTANCES).

1 Malwa = 2 Kadahs.
1 Rob' = 4 Kadahs = 2 Malwas.
1 Kelah = 8 Kadahs = 4 Malwas = 2 Rob's.
1 Webah = 16 Kadahs = 8 Malwas = 4 Rob's = 2 Kelas.
1 Ardeb = 96 Kadahs = 48 Malwas = 24 Rob's = 12 Kelas = 6 Webahs.

N.B.—The ardeb is the volume of a cube, each of whose sides is one Diraa Baladi. ∴ It is therefore 58^3 cubic centimetres; and it is equal to—

(1) 43·57 gallons.
(2) 5·44 bushels.
(3) 198 litres.

1 Diriba (measure used in the case of Paddy rice).
= 8 Ardebs Misri of 12 Kelah each.
= 3·2 „ Rachidi „ 30 „ „
1 Ardeb of clean rice = 4 Fard = 28 Rob's = 14 Kelah.
1 Ardeb of unhusked rice = 30 Kelah.
1 Fard = 7 Rob's.
1 Kelah = 2 „

The accompanying tables show the exports of cotton, cotton seed, cotton cake, wheat, maize, and beans.

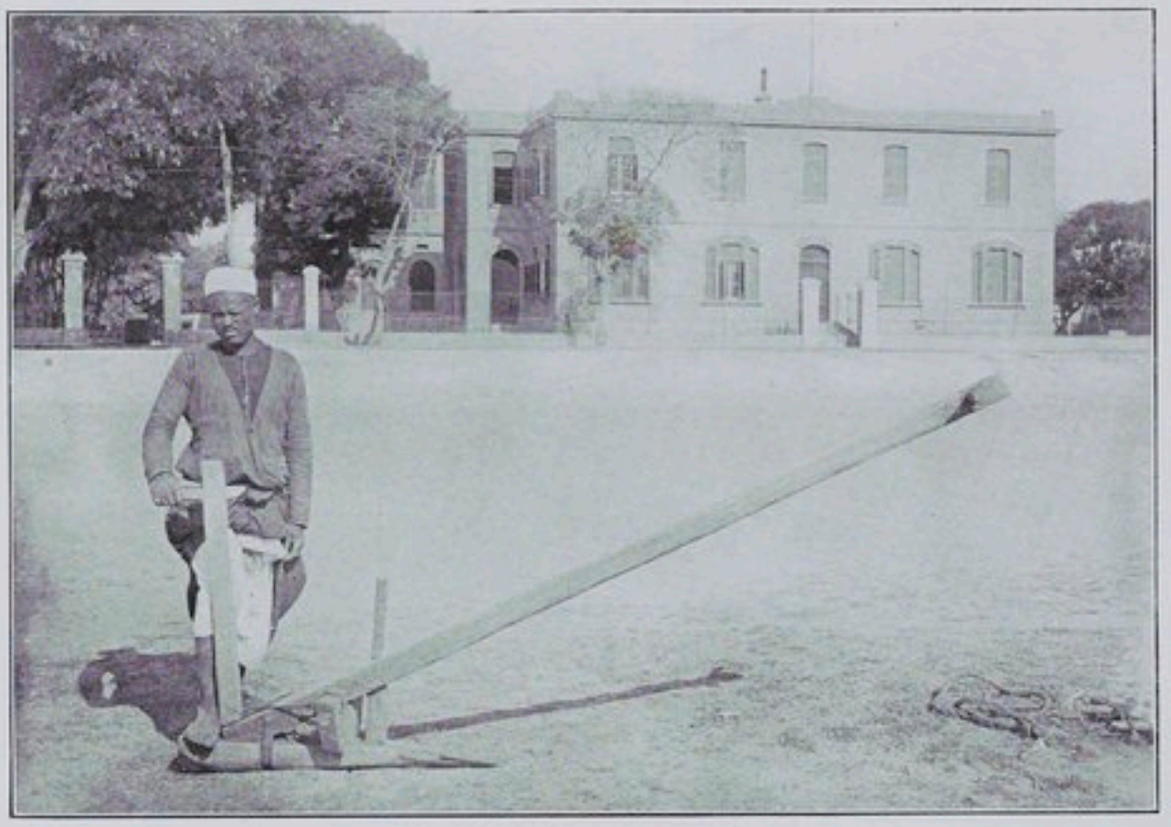
AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTIONS.

There are two institutions set apart for the promotion of agriculture—the School of Agriculture at Gizeh and the Khedivial Agricultural Society.

The former, established in 1890, possesses commodious buildings and about 100 feddans of land. The staff consists of some half-dozen Englishmen and the same number of natives. (Principal: F. Fletcher, M.A. (Camb.), B.Sc. (Lond.), &c.). From 100 to 150 students are given instruction in all branches of the science and practice of agriculture; each cultivates with his own hands ¼ feddan of land. Useful experiments, chiefly in the cultivation and breeding of cotton, are in progress.

The Khedivial Agricultural Society, since its inception some fifteen years ago, confined its attention until three or four years ago almost entirely to the distribution of artificial manures. It has now commenced, with the help of British experts, experiments of a useful character which have not, however, as yet given any practical results.

It will be seen from the above that properly conducted agricultural experiment in Egypt is only now in its infancy. Had this commenced fifteen years ago we should now have some data to indicate the real cause of the decrease in yield and quality of the cotton crop.



SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE.

YEAR.	COTTON. Kantars	Value in £E.	Value per kantar	COTTON SEED. Tons	Value in £E.	Value per ton
			£E.			£E.
Average during 1885-1888...	3,012,408	7,486,167	2·485	258,134	1,354,405	5·247
„ 1889-1893...	4,072,601	8,634,555	2·120	330,266	1,628,633	4·931
„ 1894-1898...	5,510,166	8,999,160	1·633	393,152	1,385,399	3·523
„ 1899-1903...	6,094,017	13,206,752	2·167	379,795	1,789,794	4·712
During 1904	5,912,953	16,702,722	3·824	352,757	1,520,145	4·309
„ 1905	6,527,082	15,806,440	2·421	420,015	1,714,011	4·080
„ 1906	6,696,567	20,528,002	3·064	445,154	2,180,632	4·898

YEAR.	COTTON CAKE. Tons	Value in £E.	Value per ton	WHEAT. Tons	Value in £E.	Value per ton
			£E.			£E.
Average during 1885-1888...	1,974	7,089	3·591	43,597	228,457	5·240
„ 1889-1893...	6,151	21,622	3·515	42,709	245,140	5·739
„ 1894-1898...	25,375	57,970	2·284	14,420	67,433	4·676
„ 1899-1903...	53,536	144,963	2·707	2,422	14,463	5·971
During 1904	72,935	224,296	3·075	3,829	22,048	5·758
„ 1905	67,114	214,764	3·200	3,657	24,106	6·591
„ 1906	74,454	238,293	3·200	3,388	23,165	6·837

YEAR.	MAIZE. Tons	Value in £E.	Value per ton	BEANS. Tons	Value in £E.	Value per ton
			£E.			£E.
Average during 1885-1888...	19,303	74,080	3·837	119,991	576,240	4·802
„ 1889-1893...	29,092	117,011	4·022	142,304	669,376	4·703
„ 1894-1898...	14,764	43,349	2·936	120,126	457,264	3·806
„ 1899-1903...	3,409	13,425	3·938	54,835	254,696	4·644
During 1904	2,063	8,136	3·943	59,930	253,204	4·225
„ 1905	746	3,434	4·603	35,397	159,842	4·515
„ 1906	558	3,022	5·415	1,869	11,462	6·132



A COTTON FIELD.

COTTON.

IT is interesting to trace the steps by which this area of some 2,000,000 acres has been attained, constituting as it does so large a proportion of the total cultivated area of Egypt, viz., 40 per cent. of the total cultivated area of Lower Egypt and 11 per cent. of that of Upper Egypt.

Egypt has known cotton from ancient times—a quantity of seed, reputed to be of cotton, has even been found in a mummy's tomb, though mummy wrappings always consist of linen. Pliny, who lived in the first century of our era, describes the cotton plant as growing in Egypt. The next positive reference to this is by Shems el Din Mohammed (born 1506), while in 1592 Alpinus describes one plant, and in 1638 Vesling another, though the former says that most of the cotton used was imported from Syria.

In 1800, Delile, one of the savants of Buonaparte's expedition, describes three species of cotton, two of which were somewhat similar to, if not identical with, some of the Indian cottons of to-day, while the third he names *Gossypium vitifolium* Cav. The two former have gone out of cultivation, but the last named is of special interest to us, as it has recently* been proved to be one of the parents of our present crop.



A COTTON FIELD IMMEDIATELY AFTER SOWING AND WATERING.

* F. FLETCHER—"Origin of Egyptian Cotton" (*Cairo Scientific Journal*, Nov., 1908).

We next hear of cotton when Mehemet Ali forced its cultivation on the people. This he did under the influence of Monsieur Jumel, a Frenchman, who in 1820 found a superior variety of the plant growing in the garden of a Turk, Maho Bey el Orfali, at Boulac, near Cairo. Maho was supposed to have brought the seed from India or the Soudan, but it was in fact the cotton described by Delile twenty years previously.

The amount exported in 1820 was 3 bales, next year it was 2,000 bales (of about 220 lbs. each), the next 5,000 to 6,000, and in 1823 the number of bales was 20,000, and in 1824 about 30,000. By the year 1860 this amount had increased threefold.

Up to 1850 Mehemet Ali had forced cultivators to grow the crop, and even had agents to point out what land should be used each year for this purpose. The Pasha then bought in the crop at low rates and sold it at enormous profits for export to Europe or for manufacture in the numerous mills he caused to be erected; for this latter purpose he introduced European workmen.

After the above date, the cultivation continued to spread under Said Pasha until the production came under the general impetus given to cotton cultivation throughout the world by the American civil war (1861–65). Owing to the suppression of the American supply and the subsequent "cotton famine" in Lancashire, prices rose enormously, and the area put under this crop naturally rose in Egypt as in other countries.

The following approximate figures illustrate this increase of the Egyptian cotton crop in kantars (of 99 lbs. each) :—

1860	...	...	...	501,415
1861	...	...	...	596,200
1862	...	...	...	721,052
1863	...	...	...	1,181,888
1864	...	...	...	1,718,791
1865	...	...	...	864,581
1866	...	...	...	1,127,895
1867	...	...	...	1,207,402

From this time on the crop increased in quantity until the present day, when it varies from 6½ to 7 million kantars.

It must not be thought, however, that our present crop is produced by the plant whose

cultivation was so vigorously propagated by Mehemet Ali. This plant was allowed to grow for three years, and would have grown for fifty if permitted. After three years, however, the yield diminished.

Mehemet Ali introduced seeds from all parts of the world so soon as he found that cotton cultivation paid. From 1828, for about forty years, Sea Island seed was, with other kinds, introduced at intervals. This, evidently interbred with the original Maho or Mako or Jumel cotton plant, as it was variously called,* produced our present varieties.

DETERIORATION OF EGYPTIAN COTTON.

The yield per feddan of the crop in Lower Egypt has in recent years diminished, as will be seen from the following table :—

PRODUCTION OF COTTON IN LOWER EGYPT.

Years.	Area (in Feddans).	Total Yield (in Kantars).	Yield per Feddan.
1895–96	977,735	5,256,128	5·27
1896–97	1,050,747	5,879,479	5·59
1897–98	1,128,804	6,543,628	5·80
1898–99	1,121,261	5,588,816	4·99
1899–1900	1,163,306	6,509,645	5·64
1900–01	1,230,320	5,435,488	4·42
1901–02	1,249,884	6,369,911	5·10
1902–03	1,275,680	5,838,790	4·59
1903–04	1,332,510	6,508,947	4·89
1904–05	1,436,708	6,313,370	4·40
1905–06	1,566,601	5,959,883	3·83
1906–07	1,506,290	6,949,383	4·62
1907–08	1,603,224	7,100,000	4·42

A commission was appointed last year (1908) to investigate the reason for this fall in yield per feddan. No definite decision was arrived at, but it seems probable that the fall is due largely to deficient drainage.

Accompanying this fall in productiveness per feddan, there has been a fall in the quality of the cotton produced. The explanation of this is that as stated above the crop consists of a series of cross-breeds or hybrids, some of which naturally produce cotton of a better quality than others. The absence of a system of selecting each year the seeds from the best plants has resulted in poorer varieties gaining the upper hand. In addition to this a "weed" cotton, *i.e.*, a cotton of very poor quality, differing considerably from the true Egyptian varieties, is found in large quantities in the field, and this again has interbred with the better kinds.

The method of improvement to be adopted is to eradicate from the field this "weed" cotton (called "hindi" by the natives), and all its progeny.



TWO COTTON PLANTS A MONTH AFTER SOWING (15 INCHES HIGH).
The Plants have been thinned out to two per hole.



A COTTON FIELD ABOUT A MONTH AFTER SOWING.
It has been Hoed.

COTTON PLANT.

The cotton plant of Egypt belongs to the species *Gossypium maritimum* Tod., to which species naturally also belongs the parent of Egyptian cotton, namely, Sea Island. This latter crop is grown commercially only in the West Indies and on the coast of Florida and neighbouring islands. Its quality is superior to that of any other variety, Egyptian being its nearest competitor.

Cotton is the rent-paying crop of the fellah and large landlord alike. Its annual value in hard cash to Egypt is something like twenty million pounds sterling, or nearly £2 per inhabitant. Its cultivation is, therefore, worthy of every care, and, as a matter of fact, an enormous amount of labour is expended on it. It may indeed be said to receive garden cultivation over the whole 2,000,000 feddans on which it is annually grown. If this cultivation were done by hired labour and not, as is generally the case, by small occupiers themselves, it would cost annually about ten million pounds sterling, that is, half the value of the crop.

As this crop occupies the land and requires water from March to November, it cannot obviously be grown in the basins which are flooded during September and October and receive no water during the rest of the year. Cotton can, in fact, only be grown on canal land, that is, in the Delta, on the Ibrahimieh Canal in Upper Egypt, and in the Fayoum. It is to improve the water supply on such land, and to supply basin land with this improved type of irrigation, that the Assouan Dam has been erected at a cost of about one and a half millions sterling, that this dam is being raised with a further expenditure of half a million, and that canals are now being cut at a cost of some five millions in basin land to carry this improved supply. It is, moreover, to the cotton crop that will be grown on these

* The commercial product of to-day is still known as Mako or Jumel cotton on the Continent.



COTTON FIELD SIX WEEKS AFTER SOWING.



COTTON PLANTS IN BLOOM.



PICKING COTTON.



PICKING COTTON.



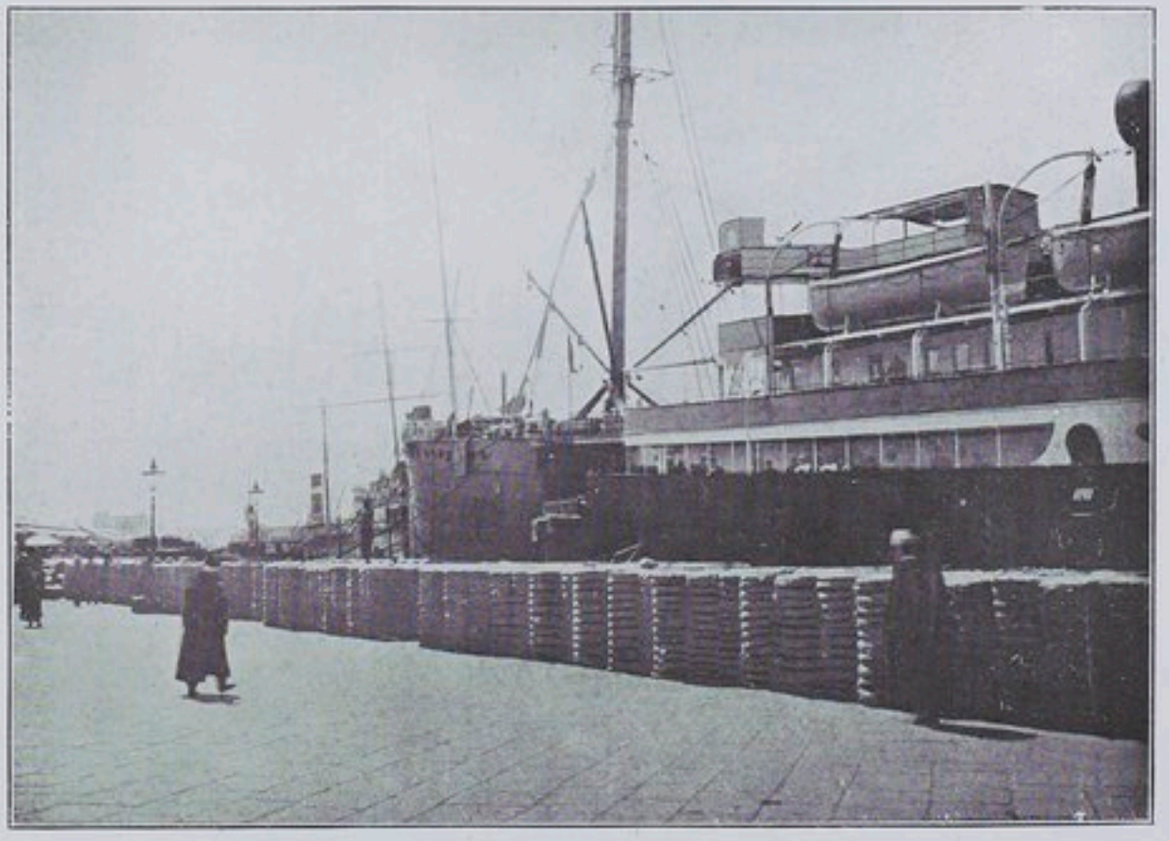
SHOWING METHOD OF COLLECTING AND CARRYING COTTON.



ARRIVING AT THE GINNING FACTORY.



FELUCCAS LOADING COTTON.



COTTON PRESSED AND READY FOR SHIPMENT.

converted lands that we must look for a return of the large sums expended.

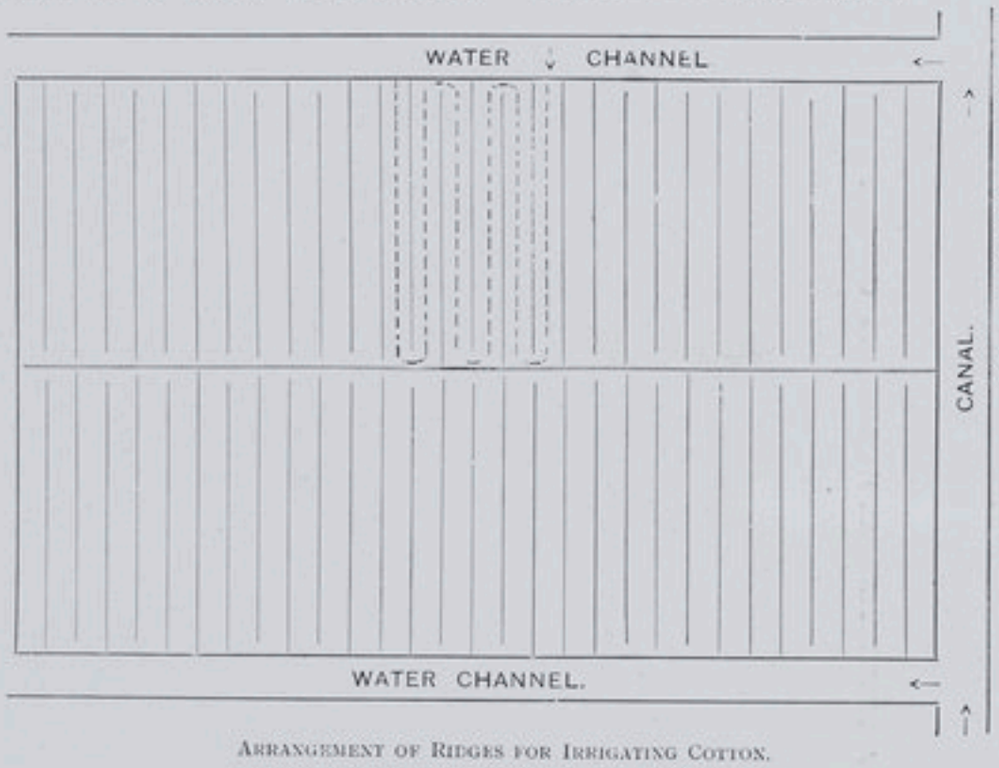
CULTIVATION.

The place taken by cotton in the rotation of crops has already been pointed out in the article on agriculture, that is, after a catch crop of bersim, or after a fallow. The preparation of the land consists in ploughing the land several times. This commences in December or January, and may be repeated as often as nine times. By this means the soil is completely broken up to a depth of about a foot. If steam tackle is used with a European grubber, this end is attained much more quickly of course than with the native bullock-drawn plough.

The loose soil thus produced is thrown into ridges about a yard apart. The fellah does this by placing a triangular board between the pole and sole of his plough; with steam tackle a European ridging plough is used. These ridges, which are about a foot high, are then gone over with the fass, and all clods broken and the ridges themselves evened up. Water channels are then made across the ridges at intervals of about 25 yards, while half way between two successive water channels a ridge is made parallel to them. By opening alternate ends of six or seven of the first formed ridges, the land is divided up into plots about 12 yards long and 6 or 7 wide. Into these plots the water is successively allowed to run in the process of irrigating the cotton. In this way it is only necessary that each small plot should be level in order to get even distribution of the water, while the various plots may not be all on exactly the same level.



DESTROYING WORMS.



Arrangement of Ridges for Irrigating Cotton.

After all the ridges and water channels have been made the land may be sown. This is done often by boys, who bury a handful of seeds about 2 inches deep every foot along the southern side of the ridges in a line running along the ridge rather higher than half way between its summit and base. If the seed is good eight or twelve seeds in each hole will suffice, but as only about 20 lbs. of seed is required per acre, costing only about a shilling, a greater quantity is used. The reason for sowing so many seeds in a hole is that if, say, only one seed were sown it would not be able to force its way to the surface through the caked crust that is formed on the surface of the soil after water has been applied. The seed having been sown, the land is watered very carefully, and in such a manner that the water reaches about half way up the ridges or rather less, that is, just below the line on which the seeds were sown. After a week or ten days the bunches of seedlings appear.

Another method of sowing is first to admit water to the ridges, allow the land to dry for a few days, and then sow the seed at the points indicated before. In order to do this the caked surface must be scraped at these points with a fass, and the moist soil underneath broken up a little with the same implement. Further, the seeds in this case must have been soaked in water for about a day before sowing. After the seedlings appear the blanks where the seed has not germinated must be filled up by sowing soaked seed at these points. About two weeks after sowing, or as soon as the bunches of seedlings are well established, a hoeing is given with the fass. In this process the soil is broken up on the southern sides of the ridges, that is, on the slope on which the seedlings appear, and a little soil is also shaved off from the northern side of the ridge next to the north, and drawn on to the side bearing the seedlings. This process prevents excessive drying of the soil by evaporation. About five weeks, sometimes longer, after sowing, the first watering is given, and just before this the plants in the bunches of seedlings are thinned out, only two being left in each hole. The water should not be run on in such quantities that it reaches the seedlings. Four or five days after this watering a second hoeing is given. About twenty-five days later a second watering is given, followed by another hoeing. As at each hoeing a quantity of soil is brought from the northern slope of one ridge on to the southern slope of the one immediately to the north of it, the position of the central line of the ridges gradually moves southwards until after the third hoeing the plants which were originally on the southern slope stand in the centre of the ridges. After this no more hoeing is done. This brings us to the beginning of June, after which water is applied every fifteen to twenty days, according to the quality of the land. In all, about a dozen waterings are given.

The *manure* applied by the fellah to cotton may be farm-yard manure, in which case it is spread broadcast over the field before the last ploughing previous to ridging the land. The amount put on varies with the quantity available, and is generally all that the fellah can find, say 15 tons per feddan.

Chemical manures are also often applied even by the fellaheen. Of these, 400 lbs. per feddan of superphosphate with 150 lbs. of nitrate of soda is a common dose. It is extremely doubtful if this mixture is the most suitable, since no reliable experiments to prove it have been carried out.

The picking of cotton begins in Upper Egypt at the end of August, and in the Delta about a fortnight later. The work is usually done by children, who place the cotton as they take it from the trees within their galabieh (loose robe); each of them will collect about 40 lbs. of seed-cotton, for which he receives about 3 piastres tariff. Three

pickings are made at intervals of about a month. The quality of the first two pickings is better than that of the third.

The cost of producing a feddan of cotton may be put down roughly as follows, though the figures can only be taken generally, since much of the labour is that of the fellah and his family :—

	P.T.
3 ploughings at P.T. 27 each ...	81
3 zahaffings at P.T. 2 each ...	6
Ridging at P.T. 10	10
Arranging ridges at P.T. 28 ...	28
Sowing and seed	35
Watering 13 times at P.T. 2 each	26
4 fassings at P.T. 24 each ...	96
Manure	200
Picking	80
Total	562

Against this, if the yield is 4 kantars, the receipts will be about £E11 or £E12. The difference, £E6 say, will about pay the rent and leave a little over.

The marketing of cotton is done by merchants, who send agents out into the villages to buy small lots. These collect and despatch to the ginning factories, where the seed is separated from the fibre. The seed-cotton as picked from the trees contains about 100 lbs. of cotton fibre to 215 lbs. of seed. The separation is done by machines, driven by steam power, in which the cotton is caught by a leather-covered roller and drawn between this and a fixed knife edge. The seed cannot pass, and is knocked off by a second knife which moved up over the first.

After being separated from the seed the cotton is encased in sacking and pressed into bales of about 800 lbs. each. It is then ready for export.

VARIETIES OF COTTON.

In Egypt there are four principal varieties of cotton grown, viz. : Ashmouni, Mitaffifi, Abassi, and Yannovitch. Of these, Mitaffifi is most largely grown. Other varieties appear from time to time, but after a year or two generally disappear ; they are almost always sports or crosses of the above-mentioned varieties. One produced about six years ago is known as "Nubari" and has become known as a commercial variety in England.



INSPECTING COTTON BEFORE PRESSING.



TRAIN LOADING COTTON.

Ashmouni is the oldest of the present varieties ; it originated in the Delta at a village called Ashmoun about the year 1873. It is now grown only in Upper Egypt and the Fayoum. The cotton is brown but lighter in colour, shorter in staple, and not so strong as Mitaffifi. It also yields less than the latter and the proportion of cotton to seed on ginning is lower.

Mitaffifi is the commonest variety in Egypt, constituting over 90 per cent. of the whole crop. It originated about ten years later than Ashmouni. It is brown in colour and yields well—about 4 to 5 kantars* per acre on an average.

Abassi is the only white cotton grown in Egypt ; it is more silky and also longer than Mitaffifi, though not so strong. It appeared about ten years after the latter.

Yannovitch was derived from Mitaffifi about 1896, probably by selection simply. It has a strong fibre, longer and more silky than Mitaffifi. The yield per feddan, however, is low.

The comparative value of the above varieties in tallaris (of P.T. 20) per kantar of 99 lbs. will be seen from the following quotations from the bulletin of the Alexandria General Produce Association for April 8, 1909 :—

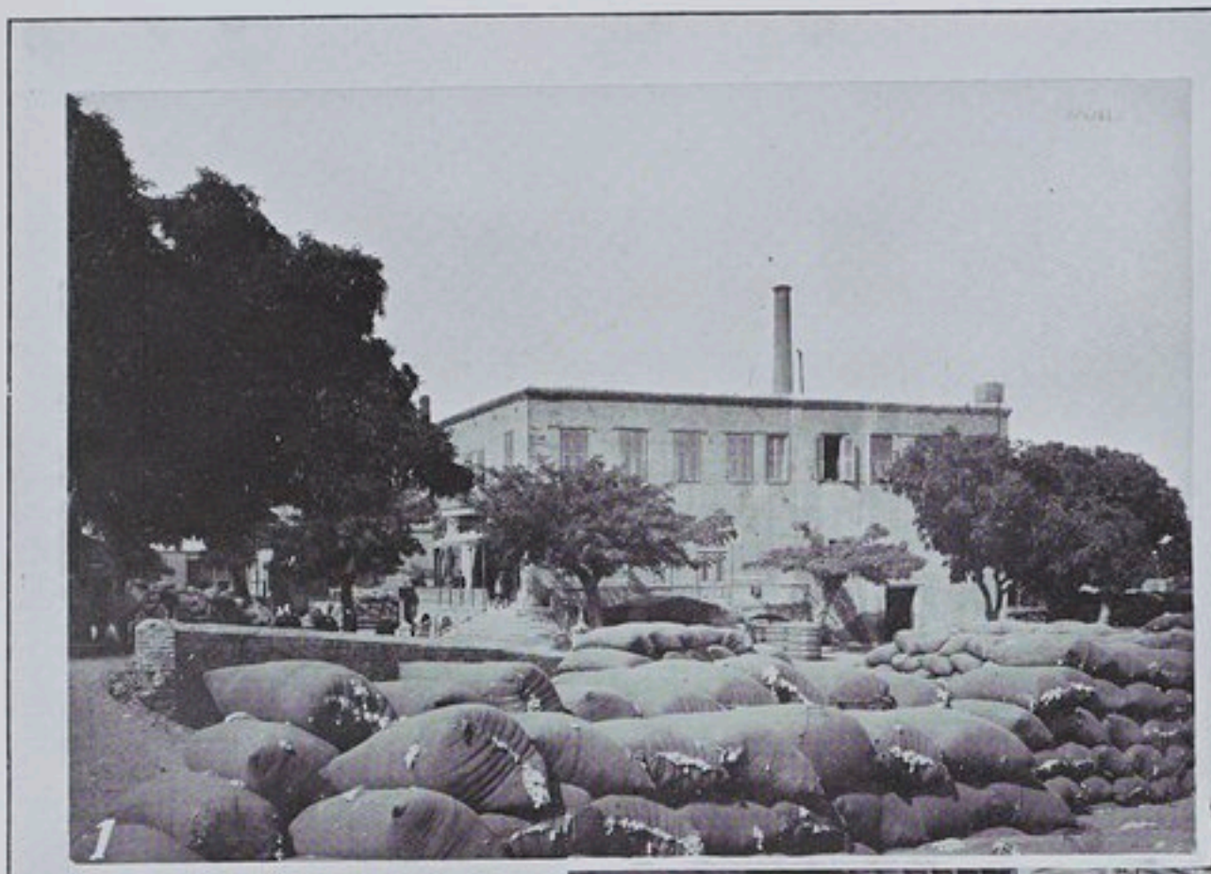
		Tallaris.
Brown*	Fair	11
	Fully fair	12⅜
	Good fair	14⅛
	Fully good fair ...	14⅝
	Good	16⅛
Upper Egypt and Fayoum †	Fair	10½
	Fully fair	11¼
	Good fair	12⅛
	Fully good fair ...	12⅝
	Good	13¾
Abassi	Fully good	14¼
	Good	15
	Extra	16½
Yannovitch	Fully good	15¾
	Good	16½ to 16¼
	Extra	17½
Nubari	Fully good	15½
	Good	16¼
	Extra	16¾

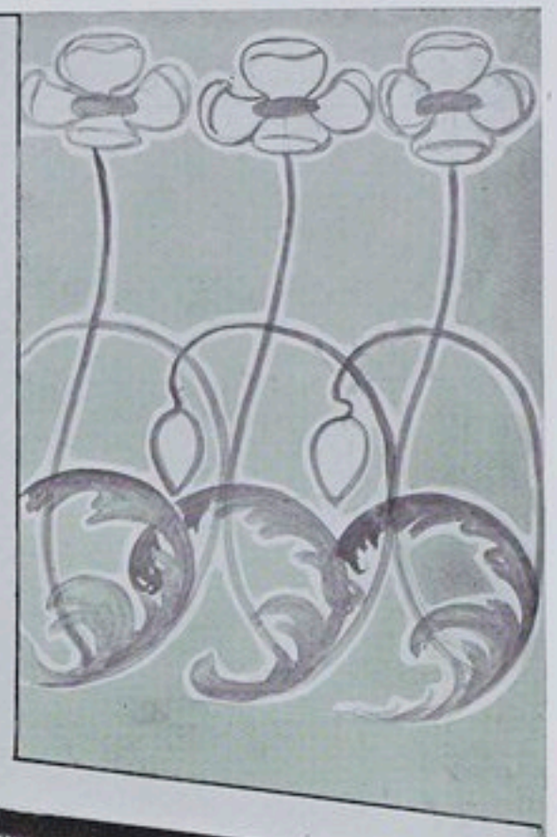
* *i.e.* Mitaffifi. † *i.e.* Ashmouni.

It should be mentioned these relative prices does not always hold, for Abassi sometimes brings a lower price than Mitaffifi, its value being influenced by that of American cotton, which is also white.

Compared with the prices of cotton from other countries we see that Egyptian stands

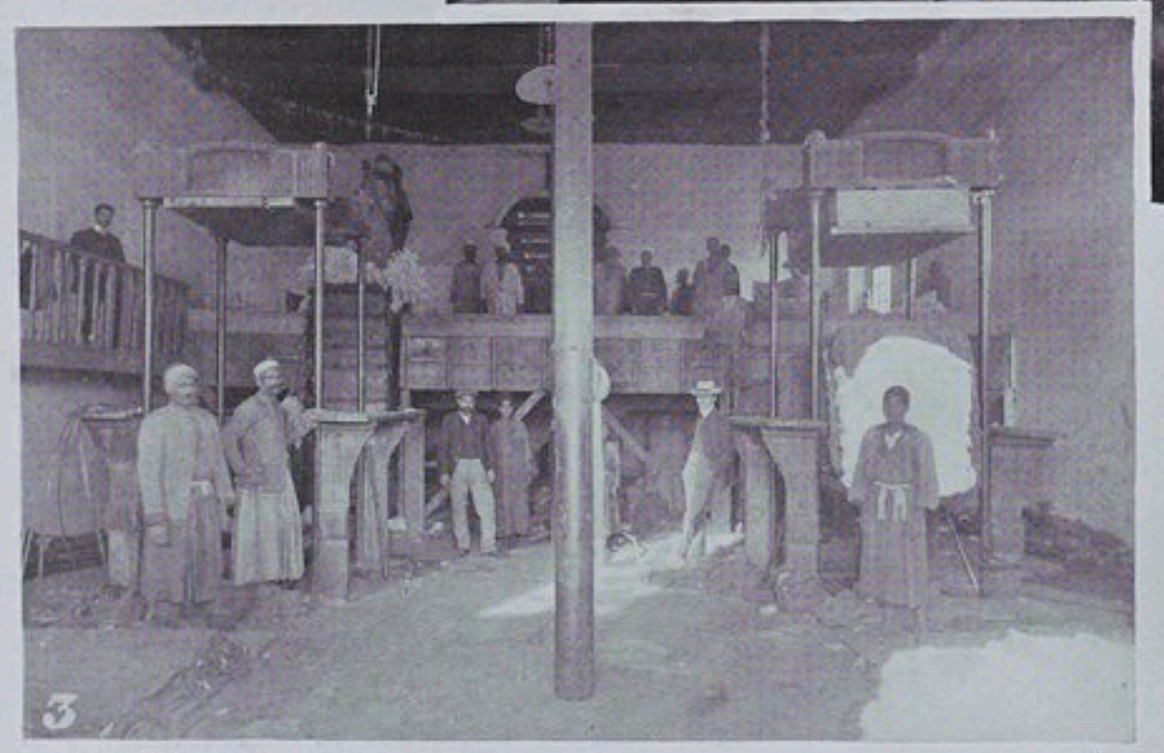
* A kantar of seed-cotton is 315 lbs.

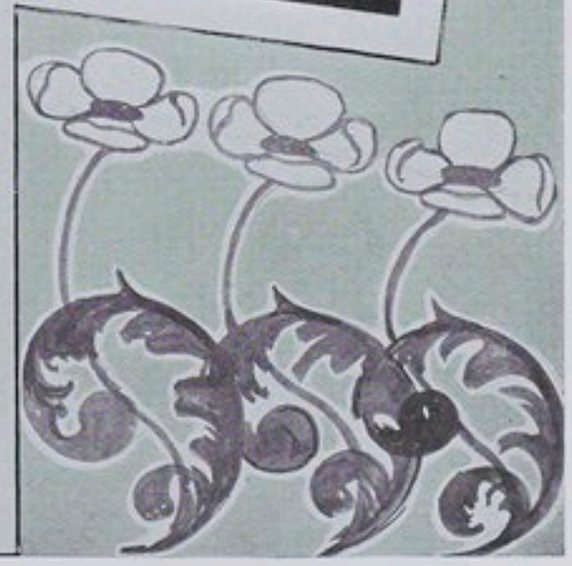






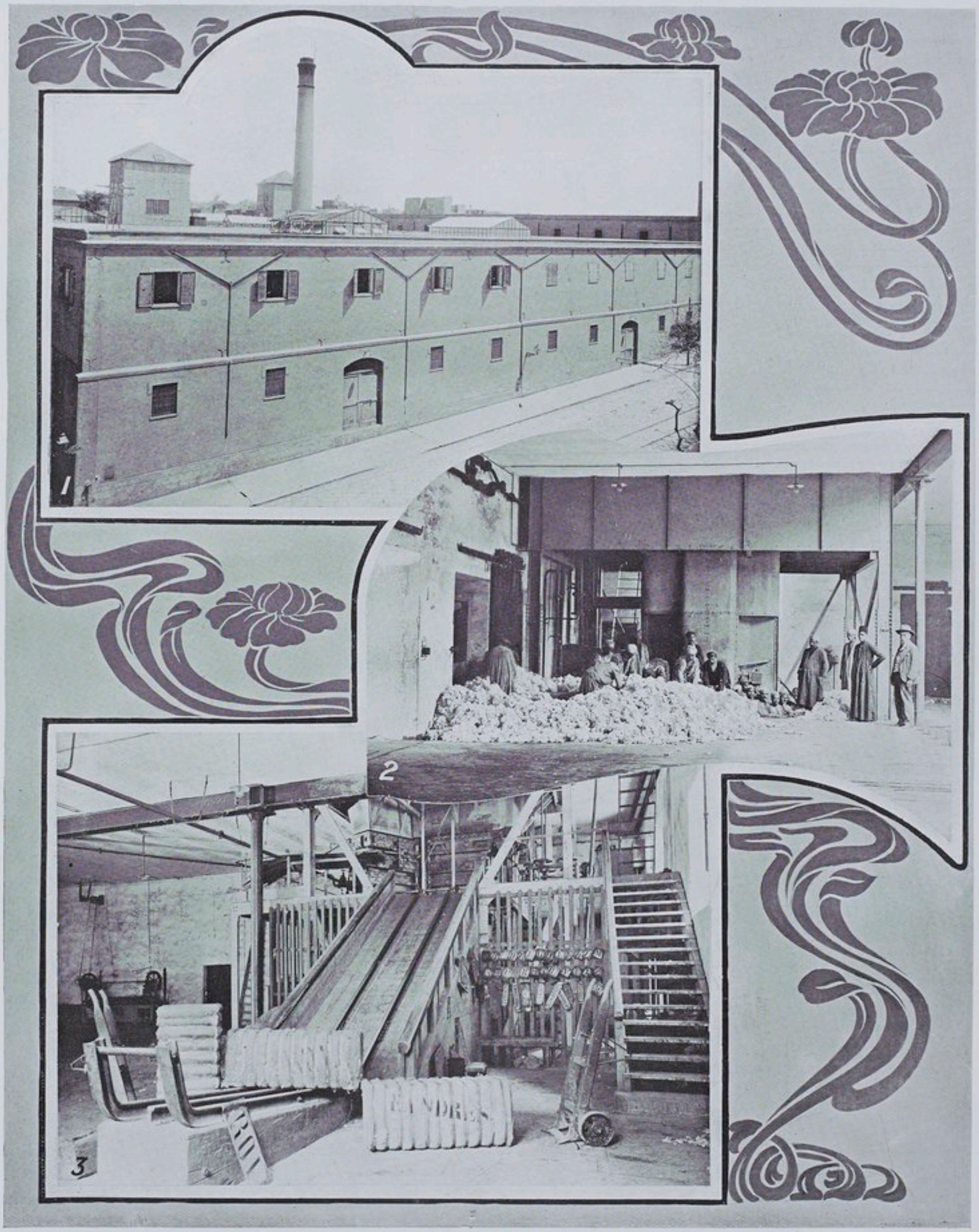






R. & O. LINDEMANN.

1. Factory at Kafr el Zayat.
2. Ginning Room.
3. Cotton Presses.



R. & O. LINDEMANN.

1. Factory at Alexandria.
2. Packing Room.
3. Cotton Presses.

high. The following quotation from the Liverpool market report for April 2, 1909, may be given in this connection :—

LIVERPOOL SPOT QUOTATIONS.

In pence and decimals of 1d. per lb.	G. O.	L. M.	Mid.	G. M.	F. G. M.	M. F. R.
American	4·60	4·93	5·13	5·33	5·43	5·69

In pence and decimals of 1d. per lb.	Mid. Fair.	Fair.	Gd. Fair.
Pernam	5·09 N	5·62 N	5·98 N
Ceara	5·09 N	5·62 N	5·93 N
Paraiba	5·09 N	5·62 N	5·93 N
Maceio	5·09 N	5·62 N	5·93 N

In pence and fractions of 1d. per lb.	Fair.	Gd. Fair.	Fy. Gd. Fair.	Good.	Fine.
Egyptian brown	6 13/16	7 1/2	7 7/8	8 3/16	8 5/8
,, upper	6 9/16	6 15/16	7 1/4	7 13/16	8

In pence and fractions of 1d. per lb.	G. F.	F. G. F.	G. D.	Fy. Gd.	Fine.	S'fine.
M. G. Broach	—	4 1/2	4 5/8	4 31/32	4 15/16	—
B'Nuggar	N 4 1/16	N 4 3/16	N 4 5/16	N 4 7/16	N 4 9/16	—
No. 1 Oomra	N 4 5/16	N 4 7/16	N 4 7/16	N 4 9/16	N 4 11/16	—
Bengal	N 3 9/16	N 3 11/16	N 3 13/16	N 3 15/16	N 4 1/16	N 4 3/16
Tinnivelly	4 5/8	4 3/4	4 7/8	—	—	—

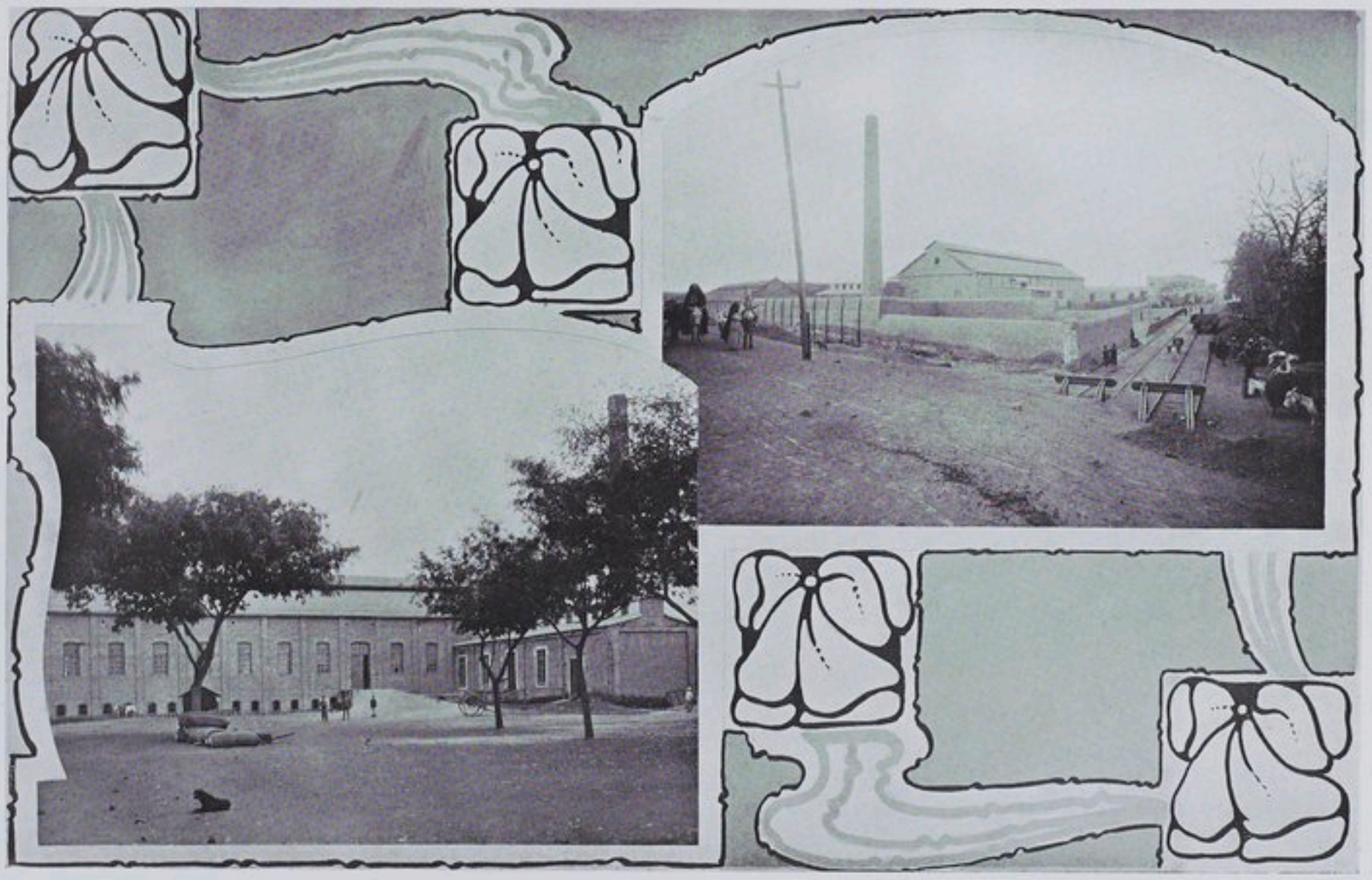
As to quantity, the following table gives roughly the world's production of cotton in bales of 500 lbs. each in the year 1906 :—

Country.	Bales.
United States	13,016,000
British India	3,708,000
Egypt	1,400,000
Russia	675,000
China	418,000
Brazil	275,000
Mexico	130,000
Peru	55,000
Turkey	107,000
Persia	47,000
Japan	11,000
Other countries	100,000
Total ...	19,942,000



WEIGHING COTTON.

In this connection it may be mentioned that the above crops are produced in the United States over an area of about 22,000,000 acres,



COTTON FACTORY AT MIT BERA. ANOTHER VIEW.

The Property of Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce.

in India of about 20,000,000, and in Egypt of rather less than 2,000,000.

DISEASES AND PESTS OF COTTON.

Cotton in Egypt is remarkably free from diseases, and none cause any appreciable damage. The same cannot, unfortunately, be said of insect pests. Of these, two do considerable damage. The first, the "Cotton Worm," is a caterpillar about an inch long, which feeds on the leaves, and later turns into a moth (*Prodenia littoralis*). The damage caused is in some years very great, and may easily decrease the value of the crop by one million pounds sterling. The moth lays its eggs in bunches on the undersides of the leaves, and this provides the only means of combating the pest, boys being sent through the fields to plûck the leaves on which eggs are found. This pest in some years is practically absent.

The second pest is present every year, though naturally in some years is more injurious than in others. It is a caterpillar, about half an inch long, which bores into the young fruit, and thus prevents it from producing cotton. Later the caterpillar changes into a moth of a bright green colour (*Aerias insulana*). No method of attacking this pest is as yet known.

R. & O. LINDEMANN.

THE business of this firm was founded at Alexandria in 1876 by Mr. Richard Lindemann, under the style of Rich. Lindemann. His eldest brother, Otto, joined him as a partner in 1889, and a branch office was established at Prague, but was transferred to Dresden in 1895. Steady progress has been made by the firm, their export of cotton in 1907–8 being over 108,000 bales as compared with about 12,000 bales in the year 1884–85. It is now one of the largest export houses doing business with Europe.

The firm owns a ginning factory at Kafr el Zayat, which is now being completely rebuilt, and will then, with 130 gins, be the largest factory in Egypt owned by any one private firm. Besides, the firm has an agency in Mansourah and the ginning factory there of the Banque Transatlantique is exclusively occupied with the ginning of Messrs. Lindemann's cotton.

In 1907, the firm founded, in conjunction with the Deutsche Orientbank Actiengesellschaft and firm of H. Bindernagel, which were later on joined by Fritz Andres & Co., the Société Anonyme Egyptienne des Presses Allemandes, the president of which is now Mr. H. Lindemann. This company has the most modern plant of steam presses, probably the best in the world. It turns out about fifty-five bales per press per hour, the highest record being seventy-eight bales per hour.

The partners of the firm of R. & O. Lindemann to-day are: Otto Lindemann, Dresden; Richard Lindemann, Dresden; Hugo Lindemann, Alexandria, and Heinrich Hoffmann, Alexandria.

CETTE maison a été fondée à Alexandrie en 1876 par M. Richard Lindemann sous la raison de Richard Lindemann. Son frère aîné, Otto, s'associa à lui en 1889 et une succursale s'établit à Prague, mais fut transférée à Dresde en 1895. De grands progrès ont été faits par la maison; l'exportation du coton de 1907–8 a surpassé 108.000 balles comparées avec les 12.000 balles de l'année 1884–5. C'est maintenant une des plus grandes maisons d'exportation travaillant avec l'Europe. La maison possède une manufacture pour l'égrenage à Kafr el-Zayat qui a été complètement reconstruite et sera donc avec 130 grues la plus grande manufacture en Egypte comme maison privée. A côté, la maison a une agence à Mansourah et la manufacture d'égrenage de la Banque Transatlantique est occupée spécialement avec l'égrenage du coton de MM. Lindemann.

En 1907 la maison s'associa et fonda avec la Orient Bank Actiengesellschaft et la maison de H. Bindernagel, qui plus tard fut associée avec Fritz Andres et Cie, la Société Anonyme Egyptienne des Presses allemandes. Le président est maintenant M. H. Lindemann. La Compagnie possède les presses à vapeur les plus modernes, probablement les meilleures au monde. Elle produit environ 55 balles par presse par heure. Le plus grand record ayant été 78 balles par heure.

Les associés de la maison R. et O. Lindemann sont aujourd'hui: Otto Lindemann, Dresde; Richard Lindemann, Dresde; Hugo Lindemann, Alexandrie, et Henri Hoffmann, Alexandrie.

CHOREMI, BENACHI & CO.

ONE of the largest firms interested in the export cotton trade in Egypt are Choremi, Benachi & Co. Their head offices are in Alexandria, and they have branches in Liverpool, Manchester, Frankfort-on-Main, and Boston. They have established agencies throughout Egypt, together with large factories at Kafr el Zayat, Birket el Sab, and Beni Souef. The business has been known under its present style since 1876, but had been in existence since 1864 as Choremi, Mellor & Co. The partners to-day are: Emmanuel E. Benachi, Constantin John Choremi, Antonio E. Benachi, and Alexander E. Benachi, in Alexandria; David M. Davies and William E. Moss, managers in Liverpool; Stephen Delta, manager of the Frankfort branch; and Antonio L. Benachi, manager of the Boston branch. At one time the firm were managers and chief shareholders of the Alexandria Cotton Pressing Company, Ltd., founded by their predecessors, and operating a large plant at Minat el Basal, but in 1889 that concern was sold to the Société Générale de Pressage et de Dépôts.

UNE des plus importantes maisons intéressées dans le commerce d'exportation du coton, en Egypte, est la maison Choremi, Benachi et Cie. Le bureau central est à Alexandrie, avec agences à Liverpool, Manchester, Francfort-s-Mein et Boston. Elle possède des succursales dans toute l'Egypte, en même temps que des domaines étendus à Kafr-Zayat, Zagazig, Birket-el-Sab, et Beni-Souef. La maison est connue sous la raison sociale actuelle depuis 1876, mais elle existait déjà en 1864 sous le nom Choremi, Mellor et Cie. Présentement les associés sont Emmanuel A. Benachi, Constantin John Choremi, Antonio E. Benachi, et Alexandre E. Benachi, à Alexandrie; David M. Davies et William E. Moss, Directeurs à Liverpool; Stephen Delta, Directeur de l'Agence de Francfort, et Antonio L. Benachi, Directeur de l'Agence de Boston. La maison dirigeait dans le temps, en tant que gros actionnaire, l'Alexandria Cotton Pressing Co., Ltd., fondée par ses prédécesseurs, et qui opérait sur une large échelle à Minet-el-Bassal, mais en 1889 cette dernière fut vendue à la Société Générale de Pressage et de Dépôts.

J. PLANTA & CO.

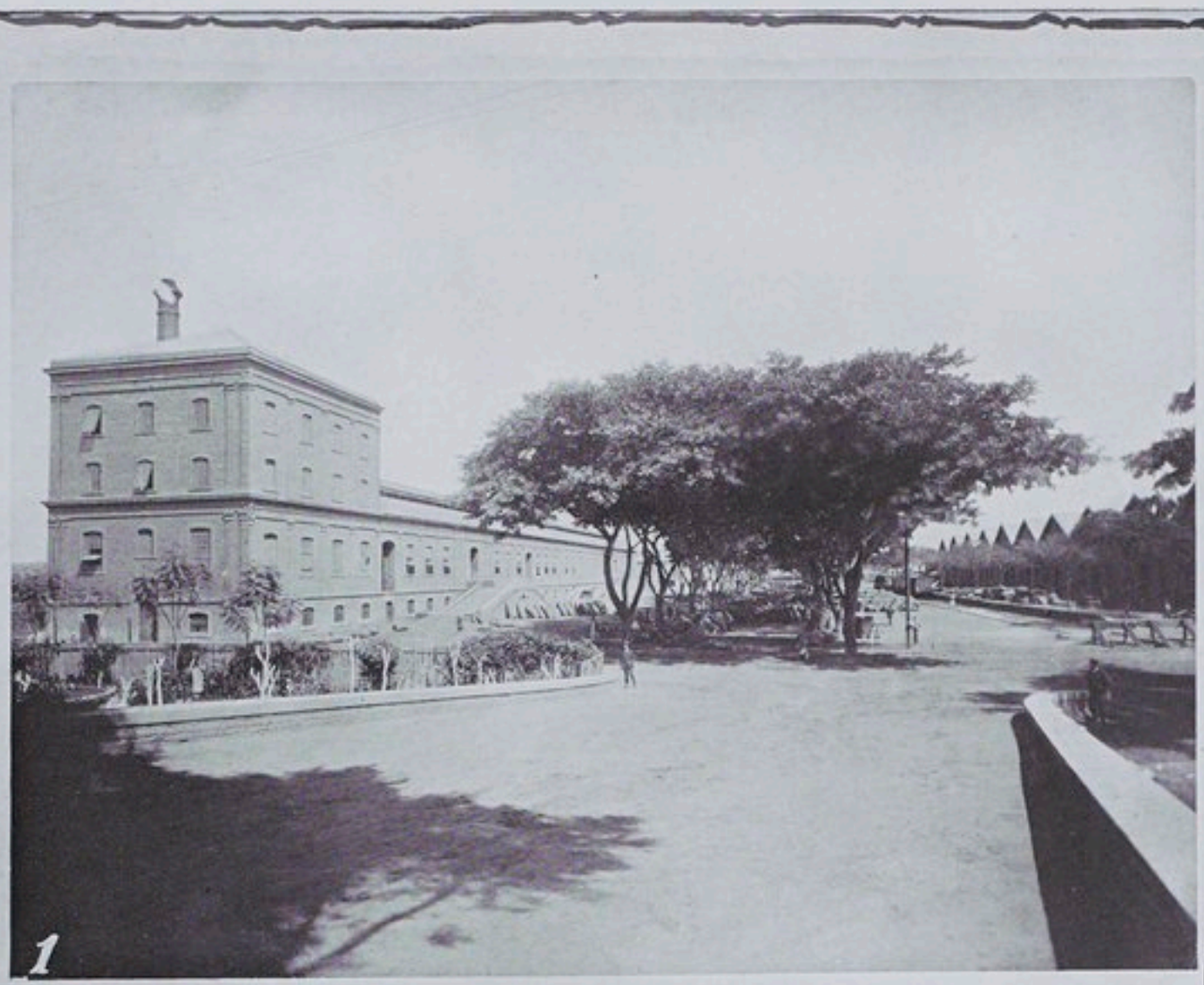
THE firm of J. Planta & Co., Alexandria and Liverpool, are cotton merchants, with buying agencies at Zagazig, Mansourah, Kafr el Zayat, Tamyeh, and Magaga, and sub-agencies all over the cotton-growing districts of Egypt. The founders were Jacques de Planta and Peter de Planta, who established themselves in Alexandria in 1853 under the style of J. & P. Planta, and extended their business to Liverpool in 1867.

Originally, they traded as general import and export merchants, but as the cotton-growing industry developed they turned their whole attention to the cotton export business, erecting ginning factories at Benha (transferred afterwards to Zagazig), at Tantah (transferred subsequently to Kafr el Zayat), and at Mansourah, and steam presses at Zagazig and Mansourah.

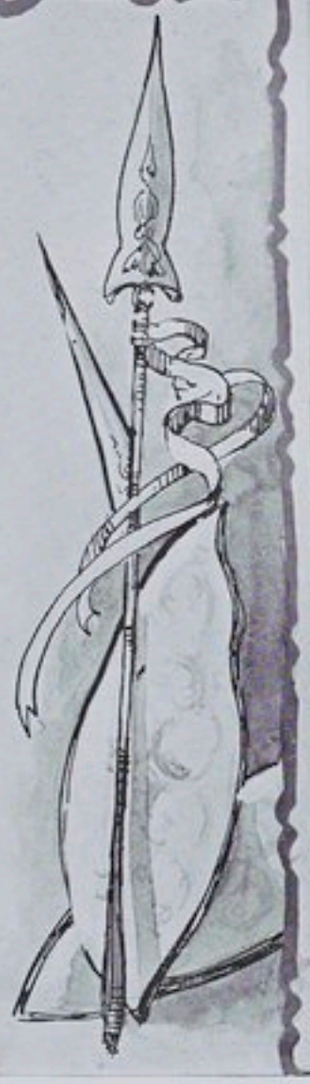
In the spring of 1905, they amalgamated their ginning and pressing business in Lower Egypt with that of the Associated Cotton Ginners of Egypt, Ltd., but continued the



ALEXANDRIA COTTON MARKET.


1



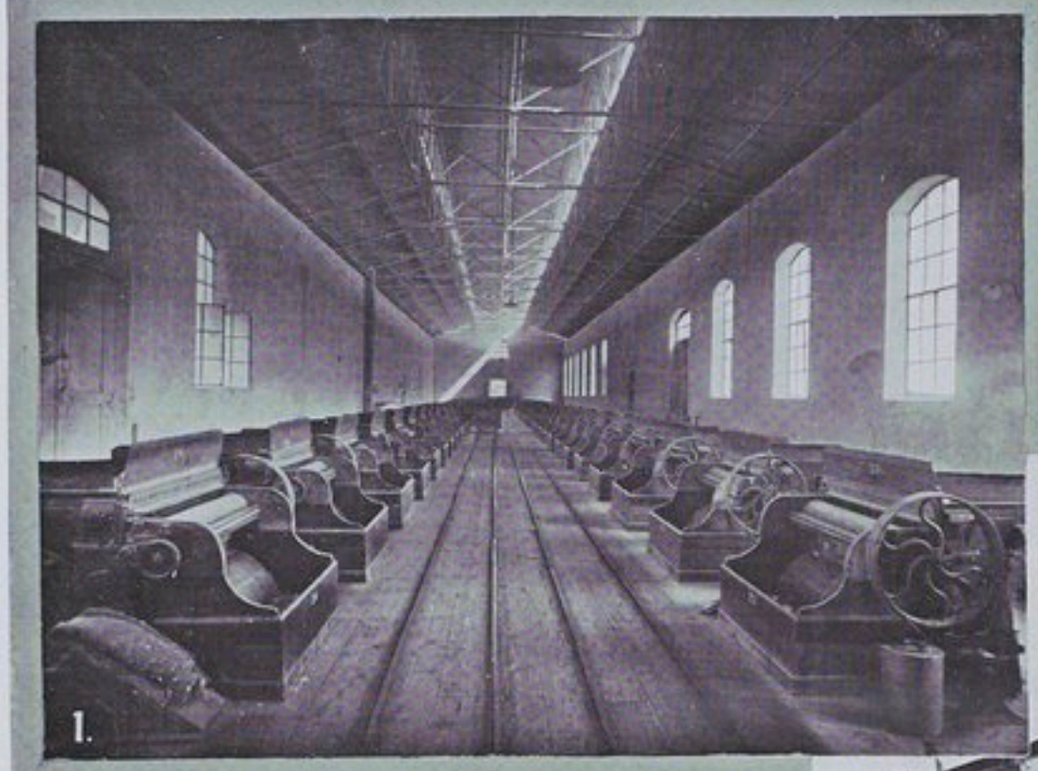



2

CHOREMI, BENACHI & CO.

1. Associated Cotton Ginner's Factory at Barrage.

2. Associated Cotton Ginner's Factory at Kafr el Zayat.



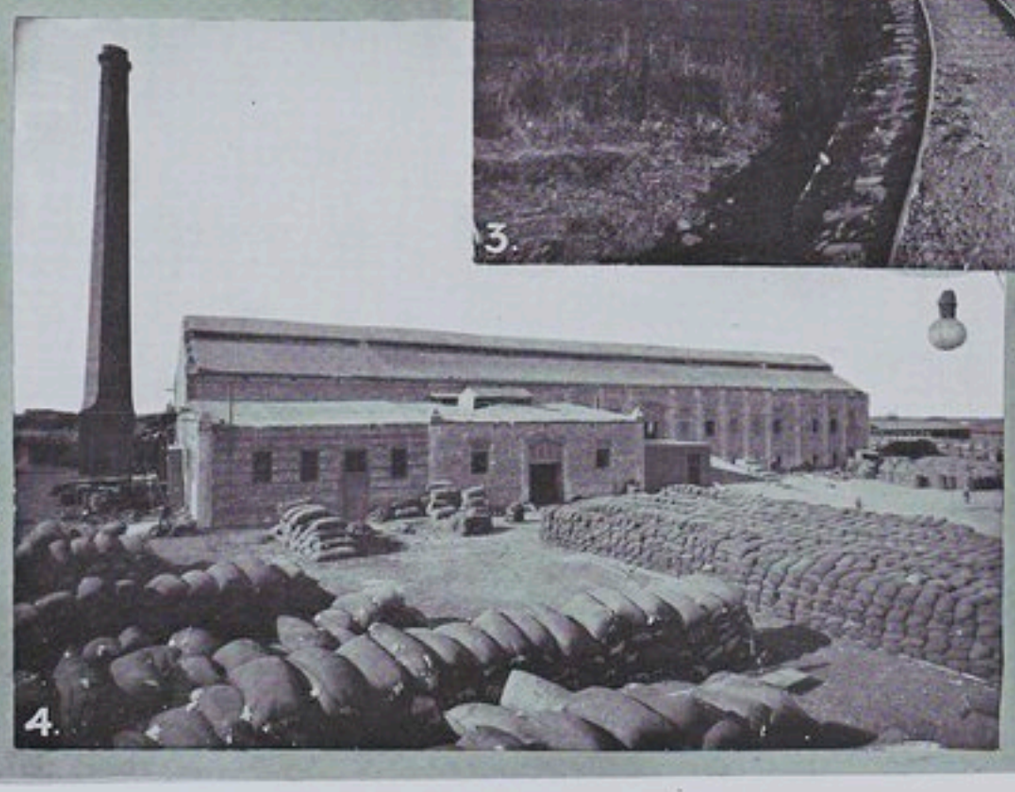












J. PLANTA & CO.

1. A Ginning Room. 2. The Factory at Tamieh. 3. General View of the Property at Magaga. 4. Factory at Magaga.

cotton-buying business in the same localities on their own account. For Upper Egypt, they have established and continue to conduct under their own management two ginning factories, one driven by water turbine and electric motor at Tamyeh, and the other by steam power at Magaga.

The present heads of the firm are Messrs. J. de Planta, & C. L. Allemann, Alexandria, and J. & A. Camenisch, Liverpool.

La maison J. Planta et Cie, Alexandrie et Liverpool, marchands de coton, avec agences marchandes à Zagazig, Mansourah, Kafr el-Zayat, Tamyeh et Magaga, ont d'autres agences dans les différents districts cotonniers de l'Egypte. A été fondée par Jacques de Planta et Pierre de Planta, qui se sont établis à Alexandrie en 1853, sous la raison sociale de J. et P. Planta. Ont donné de l'extension à leur maison à Liverpool en 1867. Premièrement ils importaient et exportaient, mais comme l'industrie du coton allait se développant ils se sont attachés davantage à l'exportation du coton ; ils ont fondé des manufactures pour l'égrenage à Benha, transférée plus tard à Zagazig, à Tantah, transférée à Kafr el-Zayat, et à Mansourah. Des presses à vapeur, à Zagazig et à Mansourah.

Au printemps de l'année 1905 ils ont associés l'égrenage à la presse, dans la Basse Egypte, en rapport avec l'Association des Egreneurs de Coton d'Egypte, Ltd., en continuant d'acheter du coton dans les mêmes localités pour leur maison.

Dans la Haute Egypte ils ont établi et continuent à diriger la manufacture de l'égrenage qui marche par des turbines et des moteurs électriques à Tamyeh, et à la vapeur à Magaga.

La raison sociale de la maison est aujourd'hui : MM. J. de Planta et C. L. Allemann, Alexandrie, et MM. J. et A. Camenisch, Liverpool.

STROUMZI BROTHERS.

Constantin N. Stroumzi, a partner in the firm of Stroumzi Brothers, cotton growers and merchants, is a member of the Committee of the Hellenic Society. He was born in Zagoras, Greece, in 1853, and he married, in 1886, Nariclia, a daughter of Mr. George Coletti, of Zagoras, Greece.

Constantin N. Stroumzi, associé dans la maison de Stroumzi Bros., cultivateurs et négociants de coton, est un membre du Comité de la Société Hellénique. Il est né à Zagoras en Grèce en 1853, et il épousa en 1886 Nariclia, la fille de M. Georges Coletti, de Zagoras, Grèce.

LA SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME DE COMMERCE.

The Société Anonyme de Commerce buys cotton extensively for exportation to the continent of Europe, and especially to France. The business was founded in 1865 by the late Mr. Gustave Frauger, who traded under the title of Frauger & Co. The present limited liability company was formed in 1898, with a capital of £E30,000 (afterwards increased to £E60,000), divided into shares of £E1,000 each. The president is Mr. J. R. Reeves, formerly director-general of the agencies of the Imperial Ottoman Bank in Egypt, and the other directors are : Ed. Tschopp, O. F. Waterfield, and H. W. Lander. The offices of the Company are situated in the Place Mohamed Ali, Alexandria. The Company has an agency at Manchester under the direction of Mr. O. F. Waterfield, agent-general for the United Kingdom.

ALEX. TH. KITROEFF is the general manager of the Associated Cotton Ginners of Egypt, Ltd., and does business as a cotton merchant. The Associated Cotton Ginners have large mills in Lower Egypt, and rank in the first flight of cotton ginners and exporters. Mr. Kitroeff's offices are at Rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, Alexandria.

GEOLOGY OF EGYPT.

By Dr. W. F. Hume, D.Sc., A.R.S.M., F.G.S. (Superintendent, Geological Survey of Egypt).

To the historian, Egypt is restricted to the Delta of the Nile, the long and narrow strip of cultivation bordering the river which, bounded by arid desert hills, has been the scene of human activity through so many centuries. To the geologist, the Egypt of importance is the vast waste of 500,000 square miles in extent, which spreads from the distant oases on the west to the blue waters of Akaba on the east, and from the Mediterranean expanse to the desolate regions of the Northern Soudan. In the greater Egypt of which we write, the narrow ravine of the Nile, and even the fertile Delta, are but incidents. It is among the wildernesses of Sinai and the Eastern Desert, on the broad and wind-swept plateaux of the Western Desert, and in the deep depressions of the oases, that the evidence has been obtained, on which our conclusions as to the geological history and origin of its present structure must be based.

There is a popular misconception that these deserts are vast stretches of sand extending from the Nile to the Atlantic on the one hand and the Red Sea on the other. Some support is given to this view by the large masses of golden sand filling the hollows of the western desert hills where they border the Nile Valley, but those who venture to ascend these slopes will find extending as far as eye can see either pebble-strewn plains or unbroken areas where limestone forms a solid floor. Sand can only accumulate in protected hollows and in dunes, which by their vertical height and length (often extending many miles in long lines) form striking features in the landscape, but are of little horizontal extent. The late Professor Zittel has calculated that at most one-ninth of the whole Libyan desert area is covered by drift of this nature, and if the mountain regions of the Eastern Desert of Egypt be taken into account, the proportion of the region thus covered represents a mere fraction of the whole.

There is a sharp topographical contrast between the regions east and west of the Nile, these differing in essential features from one another. To the east between the Nile and the Red Sea south of latitude 28° are a series of ranges of precipitous character, rising out of a confused wilderness of smaller hills of greenish tint and monotonous outline. The same features are repeated in Southern Sinai, and the studies made during the last ten years have shown that it is in these areas of topographical complexity that the oldest rocks of Egypt are to be sought. They represent, in fact, the core of the ancient African continent, the fundamental rocks being the gneisses which play an important part in the cataract regions of the Soudan and Eastern Desert of Egypt.

In many places these are overlaid by a series of highly metamorphosed schists, some of which, such as the emerald (beryl)—bearing schists of Sikait, have aroused interest from early historical periods. Mica-schists are the principal representatives, but calcareous schists which sometimes attain the character of true marbles, are well developed in the deserts of south-east Egypt, and still more strikingly in the Northern Soudan.

The greater part of the mountainous regions of Sinai are occupied by two types of rocks—the Dokhan volcanic rocks and schists—partly volcanic and partly sedimentary, and a series of granites and other igneous rocks, which have been intruded into the schists. No well-defined fossils have as yet been found in these schists. The visitor to the Nile Valley sees but little of these ancient rocks except in the picturesque neighbourhood of Assouan and the dark cataract region south of Wadi Halfa. Nevertheless, the mountain fastnesses of Egypt have been the source of ornamental rocks since the earliest period of civilisation, and from the mountains eastward of the Nile between latitudes 24° and 28° N. was obtained the diorite which has been effectively used by the pre-dynastic inhabitants of Upper Egypt; in Wadi Hammamat, on the Keneh-Kosseir road, are the quarries of the famous Breccia Verde Antico, a multicoloured conglomerate of rocks of the most varied description; while the Imperial Porphyry, situated north-east of Keneh, attracted the attention of the Roman Emperors Trajan, Hadrian, &c. Owing to the inclination of the strata displayed in the Nile Valley being markedly north-westward, a traveller from Assouan to Cairo passes in succession from older to younger beds, there being also a gradual change in the character of the rock, granites, &c., being succeeded and overlaid by sandstones at Assouan; these in their turn passing under clays and limestones near Esneh, while further to the north the limestones extend in unbroken sequence from Keneh to Cairo. Near this city a reverse movement takes place, the white limestones of the Mokattam hills and the Fayoum province being overlaid by sands and clays, and these in their turn by sands with silicified trees.

The succession of the rocks, indeed make it possible to trace the geological history of Egypt with a considerable degree of accuracy.

NUBIAN SANDSTONE.

The sandstone overlying the granites of Assouan, &c., is a formation of immense development, extending almost unbroken from Abyssinia to Central Sinai, and from the Western Oasis (where it forms the floors of the Khargeh, Dakhleh, and Baharieh depressions) to the borders of the Red Sea, near Kosseir. Owing to its special development in Nubia between Assouan and Wadi Halfa it has received the name of the Nubian Sandstone. In the Nile Valley it extends from Assouan to Mahamid, north of Edfu, and is of special interest to the archæological student as being the building material used in the more important temples constructed by the ancient Egyptians. The great quarries of Silsileh, near Kom Ombo, are witnesses to the extent of this industry.

The age and origin of the Nubian Sandstone has been the subject of much debate in the past, and the question has not yet been definitely settled. Thin beds of limestone, containing undoubted carboniferous fossils, have been studied both in Western Sinai and in Wadi Araba, these being overlaid and underlaid by deep-red sandstones, which are possibly of the same age.

The mass of the sandstone in Egypt is, however, unfossiliferous, such organic records, whether plant or animal, as have been found indicating fresh water or very shallow marine conditions. The oolitic iron ores of Wadi Halfa, and certain bivalves obtained in Nubia, point to freshwater conditions for certain of these beds, while in Upper Egypt and Sinai there is a gradual transition from the sands to highly fossiliferous marls of the Upper Cretaceous period. When examined in detail the evidence points to the gradual advance of the Cretaceous Sea over an older continental area which was undergoing depression.

There is at present no record of any

jurassic or triassic strata in Egypt, but during Upper Cretaceous times the change from continental to marine conditions in this country was accompanied by the appearance of a rich marine fauna, in which cephalopoda, sea-urchins, oysters, and fish remains are at times remarkably abundant. These Cretaceous beds form a comparatively narrow but highly curved belt lying between the areas occupied by the Eocene limestones and Nubian sandstone. This belt is displayed in the oasis, where its trend is as a whole north and south, and then sweeps east and west in about lat. 22° N. From the Oasis of Dungul it follows a north-eastward course, crossing the Nile between Keneh and Edfu, and being a conspicuous feature in the Gallala Hills, near the famous monasteries of St. Antony and St. Paul. It again reappears with a similar fauna in Northern and Central Sinai.

CRETACEOUS BEDS.

In the Nubian sandstone the alternation was between sandstone and clays; in the Cretaceous series limestones and clays succeed one another. Some of the Cretaceous strata are both of geological and economic importance, a bed near the base crowded with fish remains containing from 45 to over 70 per cent. of calcium phosphate, while the shaly clays which are developed in the upper part of the series are of fertilising value owing to the nitrates present in them. They are also characterised by a rich fauna of delicate corals, univalves, &c., composed of iron oxide, whose nature has led to the inclusion of the beds containing them in the Danian, or uppermost division of the Upper Cretaceous.

EOCENE BEDS.

It has been held by numerous careful students of Egyptian geology that the great gap which exists between the strata of the Eocene and Cretaceous periods in other countries is to a large extent filled in Egypt. In so far as the regular succession of the beds is concerned, the succession appears unbroken, but the great change in the dominant forms of life is just as marked in Egypt as it is elsewhere. Ammonites are abundant in the Cretaceous beds of this country, but there is a boundary beyond which they never pass; the coin-like Nummulites and delicate Operculines occur in thousands immediately above beds of acknowledged Cretaceous age, yet not a single individual of these genera have ever been noted in the Cretaceous rocks themselves. That the sea-urchins, and especially the oysters which abound in both divisions, present many points of similarity may be admitted, but these resemblances make the general contrast the more striking.

EOCENE STRATA.

There are strong reasons for believing that the Eocene sea covered the greater part, if not indeed the whole of Egypt. Strata of this age extend far south of the latitude of Assouan (22° N. lat.) in the western desert of Egypt, and on the eastern bank they have been recorded at no great distance north of Assouan. Their presence in faulted areas near Kosseir, &c., on the Red Sea, indicates a far greater extension than they display at present, and they re-appear on the western coast of Sinai. It may be said, indeed, that the Eocene limestones forming the steep-cliff wall on both banks of the Nile, from the Pyramids to Luxor, will be the natural feature most strikingly displayed to the average traveller in Egypt. The majority of these rocks are highly fossiliferous, sea-urchins and oysters being especially noticeable; in their form, character, and abundance they tend to indicate that the limestones containing them were deposited in comparatively shallow water but in a sea of wide horizontal extent.

Three main divisions have been recognised in the Eocene rocks of Egypt—the Upper Eocene, the Middle Eocene, also known as the Parisian or Mokattam formation, and the Lower Eocene, sometimes termed the Londinian or Libyan series. The two last divisions are again subdivided into Upper and Lower Mokattam and Libyan respectively, these divisions being marked by special groups of fossils not otherwise met with. The Lower Libyan, for instance, is characterised by the large conical sea-urchin Conoclypeus, the Lower Mokattam strata by the abundance of the large coin-like Nummulites Gizehensis. From the base of the Lower Libyan to the summit of the Lower Mokattam, Nummulites of varied species are present throughout the series, but with the coming in of the shallower-water conditions which mark the Upper Mokattam, this ubiquitous type stops abruptly. The lithological conditions undergo a change, limestones cease to be the dominant feature, clays and sands taking their place. The deeper-water forms such as the sea-urchins are either not present at all or much reduced in size, while shallow-water oysters, such as the characteristic Carolia and Exogyra Frassi, not only attain a great size but are present in extraordinary abundance. The change from marine to shallow-water conditions is especially marked in the desert to the north of the Fayoum, where brilliantly coloured sands of Upper Eocene age have yielded the great Mammalian remains which have made this portion of Egypt geologically world-famous. They have yielded remains of the giant Arsinoitherium, Mœritherium and Palæomastodon, the earliest of the elephants, and Saghatherium, the ancestor of the coneys, besides many other mammalian and reptilian species of deep interest. Silicified trees, scattered in large numbers over the area occupied by these beds further attest the transition from land to sea.

OLIGOCENE BEDS.

The uppermost strata in the north-western desert of Egypt are of wide extent and peculiar character, the region in the triangle between the Fayoum, Mogareh, and Baharieh being largely occupied by a series of loose gravels of white vein quartz and unfossiliferous chert pebbles which appear to have been derived from the wearing down of soft sands in which these harder materials were once embedded.

These strata, which have been regarded as of Oligocene age, also extend to the eastern desert near Cairo, and are especially characterised by the "petrified forests" of silicified trees, which are one of the geological features in the neighbourhood of the capital of Egypt. To this period, too, may belong the volcanic eruptions which have given rise to exposures of basalt in many parts of Northern Egypt; that of Abu Zabel, 16 miles to the north of Cairo, being valuable economically as supplying the paving stone for the city.

MIOCENE BEDS.

The close of the Oligocene period marks the establishment of the general continental condition of Egypt as we now know it; but during Miocene times the greater Mediterranean, of which the present sea is but a reduced remnant, extended to the line of the Mokattam and Ataka Hills between Cairo and Suez, fossiliferous strata of this age being well developed in the desert area north of those ranges. The rich fauna of the Miocene has been traced in the regions bordering the Gulf of Suez, both on its western and its eastern shores in Sinai, and has even been recorded from the mouth of the gulf of Akaba.

The closing phases of Egyptian geological history reveal changes of the greatest significance on which depends the essential character of the country as we know it to-day. The folding and fractures which during the Pliocene period determined the formation of such gigantic earth features as the Alps and Himalayas have a counterpart in the folds and fractures which have given rise to the depressions of the Oases, the Nile Valley, the Gulfs of Suez and Akaba. Minor elevations and depressions have also had their effect, a tongue of the sea having invaded the Nile Valley as far as Fashn. Still more widely developed are the traces of the existence of lakes in portions of the Nile Valley, and the conglomeratic beds of re-assorted limestone, &c., found both in the Nile Valley, many of its tributaries, and near the Red Sea, have been regarded as indicating a greater rainfall probably coincident with the prevalence of glacial conditions in Europe.

A study of the coral reefs of the Red Sea also indicates that there has been a prevalence of elevation over depression in the eastern desert of Egypt, such a movement tending to increase the erosive power of the Nile. The formation of the rich Nile mud, obtained by rain-action on the decomposing volcanic sheets of Abyssinia, obviously belongs to recent times, speaking geologically. This deposit is at most 30 feet thick, and in general much less so.

SUMMARY.

Briefly summarised, the following appears to have been the geological sequence of events in Egypt.

The earlier chapters are very obscure, but the schists and slates extending over wide areas bear evidence of extensive formation of sediments, accompanied by volcanic activity on a large scale. These ancient rocks were subsequently invaded by masses of igneous character, notably granites, which have produced far-reaching changes in their structure, removing all evidence of the former presence of life. These, in their turn, are unconformably overlaid by masses of sandstone, sometimes over 1,000 feet thick, which are evidently derived from the denudation of the underlying rocks, and especially the granites. Part of this sandstone, commonly known as the Desert or Nubian sandstone, was of Carboniferous age, but the latter is, so far as known at present, restricted to the northern parts of Egypt, viz., Wadi Araba, near the Gulf of Suez, and Western Sinai. The greater part may represent the transition from continental to marine conditions during the Cretaceous period, some of the few organic remains hitherto recorded being marine, and others fresh-water. The advance of the Cretaceous sea is well marked in Egypt, shallow water limestones rich in oysters, small sea-urchins, and fish remains being replaced in the upward succession by chalky limestones with forms typical of our English chalk or by clays with a minute univalve, &c., fauna.

This is followed by the strange transition from the Cretaceous to the Eocene, without any evidence of change from deep sea to continental conditions. The strata of the two periods are in conformable relation as a rule, but the fossil contents are widely distinct both

as regards individual species and assemblages of marine life. Nummulites are a most conspicuous feature throughout the Lower Eocene and greater part of the Middle Eocene.

With the advent of the Upper Mokattam beds, the reverse movement is clearly taking place, limestones giving place to sands and clays, especially in the Fayoum, and the Nummulites disappearing from the life series. These are succeeded by the sands and sandy limestones of the Upper Eocene and the gravel beds of the Oligocene, which mark the outlining of the Continent as we now know it. The Mediterranean has during Miocene times a local development which affects a band in Northern Egypt and along the Gulf of Suez, while in the Pliocene occur the final changes of fold and fracture which have produced the Egypt of to-day.

The chief interest in the more recent times, geologically speaking, are the interplay of sea, lake, and torrent in the Nile Valley itself, and the echo of the effects of the Glacial Period in the pebble conglomerates of the Nile and its tributaries. Elevation and desiccation have given the final touches necessary to complete the Egypt with which we are acquainted.

SPECULATION.

Such in dogmatic form is the history suggested by the facts known to us. It remains only to point out how the characteristic features of Egypt may have been called into existence. The whole of this portion of north-east Africa seems to form part of a giant earthfold, of which the anticlinal portion occupies the eastern half of Egypt, while the syncline is largely represented by the Western desert. A shallower anticline to the west of the main syncline has given rise to the depression of the oases.

It must be remembered that the whole of Egypt was apparently under the sea during the Eocene period, and it was only at its close that the change to continental conditions began, in all probability due to the formation of the fold above-mentioned. The arches, or anticlines would be more readily denuded than the synclinal or basin region, because the strata as they rose from under the sea would be under tension, and consequently tend to fracture, then being easily broken up and removed by the waves. In this way we may account for the removal of the vast masses of limestone, which, from their presence in a few faulted areas near the Red Sea, must once have covered the whole of the Red Sea Hill granites, &c.

The Eastern Egypt and Sinai areas, though very complicated topographically and geologically, nevertheless reveal the presence of this fundamental arch which has been intensely fractured and denuded. As a result, the oldest rocks forming its core remain as the serrated crests of the Red Sea Hills and Sinai, the forms of the hills being determined by the dykes and veins seaming the more friable granites and schists. This region has been justly described as "one of the most mountainous and intricate regions on the face of the earth. Sand is a feature seldom met with, plains are rather the exception than the rule, the roads are often steep and rugged, and wind for the most part through a labyrinth of narrow rock-bound valleys. It is a desert, certainly, in the fullest sense of the word, but a desert of rock, gravel, and boulder, of giant peaks, dreary ridges, and arid valleys and plateaux, the whole forming a scene of stern desolation which fully merits its description as the great and terrible wilderness. Yet here and there, where, after sudden thunderstorms, the storm waters rush down the main valleys, are found some fertile spots, oases of palms, acacia trees and rushes, producing pictures full of life and beauty in the midst of the stern hills that surround them."

Yet the very dislocations which have formed these wild and inhospitable hills have opened roads for the world's commerce. Minor anticlines have been formed in the folded and fractured crest of the main earth-arch, and have themselves become centres of denudation, yielding passage to the Red Sea waters up the narrow arms of the Gulf of Suez and Akaba, if not also determining the deep groove of the Red Sea itself.

WESTERN DESERT.

What a contrast is presented when we turn to the great area of compression, the concave portion of the Egyptian earth-fold, the Western Desert of Egypt. Here, wandering over the vast plain which separates the Nile Valley from the depressions of the Oases, there is no break in the monotony, where the solid limestone rock-floor reflects back the rays of the burning sun, and every little elevation becomes exaggerated by mirage to a mountain-peak. But even here there is variation depending on the underlying geological structure. The Oligocene gravels give rise to undulating brown-tinted plains, unbroken by any outstanding feature, while from the Fayoum to Baharieh extends a belt of broken country, El Bahr (or The Sea, probably so named from its confused outlines), where the easily denuded yellow-brown beds of the Upper Mokattam have been worn down to table-hills and cones rising abruptly from plains of white limestone strewn with the remains of thousands of Nummulites. To the south, where the crystalline limestones of the Libyan series predominate, the waste remains desolate and unbroken, no vegetation cheers the eye, and except along a few necessary tracts the arid surface of the desert is shunned alike by man and beast. Yet day by day these shadeless expanses are traversed by caravans bearing food and store from the fertile valley of the Nile, for beyond lies the narrow belt of the Oases, where a few inhabitants have found a home far from the densely populated land of Egypt. Here on a small scale is repeated the history of the Eastern Desert. The same arching of the strata, the same wearing away of the limestone; but here, in general, only exposing the softer sandstone, which has then been worn away into long depressions by wind-borne sand and water, while from the same formation comes the life-bringing water through faults or following impervious clays.

One problem remains, and that is the origin of the Nile Valley itself, which in its lower reach from Keneh to Luxor, is in part a deep ravine bounded by steep limestone walls. Whether here also has been the arching of a weak fold producing far-reaching geographical results is unknown, for hitherto no curious seeker has attempted to sound the rock-depths hidden beneath the thin layer of sands and clays, some 100 feet thick, which record the varying character of the great river.

The Egypt as we know it is, therefore, a land owing its essential features to earth-folding and fracture, to denudation following long periods of sedimentation, to the triumph of continental conditions over a once conquering sea.

During many centuries Egypt has been the home of a thriving agricultural population, but at the same time some of the mineral products of the desert have not been neglected in the past, and even to-day, from time to time, arouse much interest. Gold occurs in quartz veins seaming the schists of the Eastern Desert, and is at present being worked at the Baramieh mine, 80 miles east of Edfu. The copper ores of Sinai were once famous, and several ancient workings are scattered through the Red Sea Hills, the most notable being that of Absciel, in the desert to the south-east of Assouan, and nearly due east of Dakkeh, in Nubia. Iron and manganese ores, which in less isolated localities would be of economic importance, occur at the junction of the Carboniferous limestone and sandstone in Sinai, and also veining the granite or concentrated from basic rocks in various parts of the Eastern Desert. The Nubian sandstone of Nubia also contains ferruginous bands which often have over 50 per cent. of iron oxide, and in the north of Baharieh Oasis is a limonite deposit of much interest. Lead ore is known from a locality on the Red Sea, and has been recorded in small quantity in the granite of Assouan. Silver, tin, and zinc ores are unknown up to the present time.

The rocks of the hills bordering the desert are extensively used, the limestones from Cairo to Keneh supplying building material of every variety. The sands near Cairo are quarried on a large scale to the north of that town, and the clays of Assouan and Keneh are the main source of the pottery used throughout the length and breadth of Egypt. Gypsum is one of the chief products of the country, forming a surface layer or interbedded strata which are actively worked at Helouan and in the districts near the sea-border west of Alexandria. Its precise origin is still a matter for investigation, no theory satisfying all its features having been enunciated.

Salt is one of the staple articles produced on a large scale, the lakes of the Wadi Natroun and Mareotis producing vast quantities every year, while beds of rock-salt are known to the natives, and diligently worked by them in the districts bordering the Nile Valley. Thirteen years ago it was found that certain beds of the Cretaceous series were phosphatic in character, and these phosphates are now being worked at Sebaieh, south of Esneh. In the area between Keneh and Assouan, and also belonging to the Cretaceous period, are the nitrate shales, which are used by the natives in large quantities for supplying the needed extra nitrogenous material to their crops.

Egypt has long been famous for its ornamental stones, the monumental granite of Assouan, the Imperial Porphyry of Dokhan, and the Breccia Verde Antico having been already mentioned. There is also a good variety of marble in the Red Sea Hills east of Edfu, and the emerald (beryl) mines of Sikait, near the Red Sea, have long been famous, efforts having also been made of late years to re-open them. These stones are found in quartz veins penetrating mica schists or in the schists themselves. The beautiful green gem-stone Peridot is being worked by a company, and is apparently the essential constituent of a coarse basic rock occurring on an island in the Red Sea, not far distant from the conspicuous point of Ras Benas.

The presence of petroleum at Gebel Zeit and Ras Jemsa, and in Sinai on the shores of the Red Sea, at the mouth of the Gulf of Suez, has long been known, and is at present the object of an active investigation.

Amongst other products of interest are yellow and red ochres, occurring in connection with the water supply of some of the flowing wells in Khargeh and Baharieh Oases. They are of a durable nature, and were in all probability used by the ancient Egyptians to produce many of the colour effects which have been preserved for centuries without any apparent decay.

NOTES ON THE FAUNA OF EGYPT.

By Captain Stanley Smyth Flower (late 5th Fusiliers), Director, Government Zoological Gardens, Gizeh, Cairo.

THE time has not yet come for it to be possible to write a concise account of the fauna of Egypt.

During ten years residence in the Valley of the Nile, the present writer has become more and more impressed with the fact that the greater part of the necessary preliminary work of observation and collecting has yet to be done.

Until about twenty years ago, the collections in the museums of Europe (there was no collection in Egypt) gave little help towards forming a just conception of the Egyptian fauna; the specimens were not only numerically few, but also seldom had any more definite locality assigned to them than "Egypt," "Nubia," "Soudan," or "Sennaar"—all areas capable of very varied geographical interpretations.

The late Dr. John Anderson, after his retirement from the service of the Indian Government, formed the idea of placing the knowledge of the zoology of the Nile Valley on a satisfactory basis. This work was, most unfortunately, cut short by his untimely death on August 15, 1900.

The results of Dr. Anderson's energies, however, can be seen in the four published volumes of his magnificent "Zoology of Egypt," in the large series of well-preserved and accurately labelled specimens in the possession of the British Museum of Natural History and in the Museum of the Egyptian Government School of Medicine at Kasr-el-Aini, Cairo, and in the existence of the Zoological Gardens of Gizeh.

The object of this article is, first, briefly to indicate the travellers and naturalists by whom the present available information on the fauna of Egypt has been collected, and to whose published works the reader is referred for further details; and, secondly, to give an outline sketch of the more noticeable kinds of animals that are known to occur in the areas treated of.

It must be remembered that, for the proper study of the fauna of any district, it is absolutely necessary for the zoologist to think out his work in connection with that of other scientific investigators, especially the botanist, the geologist, and the meteorologist. The man who works out the topography and the climatic conditions of a country does as much, or more, service to an ultimate real knowledge of its zoology as the man who compiles lists of species and gives new names to every animal with which he himself is unfamiliar.

Future generations of students of the natural history of the Nile Valley will always be indebted to the late Dr. John Anderson, F.R.S., whose zoological work was always combined with geographical and historical research; to Captain H. G. Lyons, F.R.S., of the Royal Engineers, for the comprehensive scientific surveys carried out by himself and his capable assistants; and to Sir William Garstin, G.C.M.G., for his explorations of the water systems which combine to form the Nile, and for his practical encouragement to the formation of zoological collections and to the preservation of the wild animals of the Soudan.

PROBLEMS.

The zoology of Egypt is a peculiarly fascinating subject of study; among the many problems still waiting for solution which it presents, six may be specially mentioned here:—

1. **The Stability of Climate.**—Some authorities hold that the physical features of both sides of the Nile indicate the existence of a period in which considerable rainfall prevailed. They conclude that a material change in the character of the climate of North-Eastern Africa, so far as its rainfall is concerned, has taken place since the days when the ancient Egyptians represented on the monuments of Sakkara the various animals with which they were (or are supposed to have been) familiar.

Other authorities, including Mr. B. F. E. Keeling, Superintendent of the Egyptian Government Observatory at Helouan, produce evidence tending to show that the climate has apparently not altered, nor has the average rainfall (over a series of years) decreased, for a period of many thousands of years.

2. **The Stability of Animal Characteristics.**—The study of the domestic and sacred animals of the ancient Egyptians, as represented by their mummied remains and by the pictures on the monuments, in reference to, and in comparison with, their existing representatives, has engaged the attention of several eminent writers. This subject may be said to increase almost yearly in importance, as heredity, variation, and allied themes are found more worthy of detailed scientific research.

3. **The Origin of the Eocene Fauna of Egypt.**—The wonderful discoveries of fossil animals made in the Fayoum by Dr. Charles William Andrews, F.R.S., of the British Museum, and Mr. Hugh J. L. Beadnell, of the Egyptian Survey Department, have already thrown valuable and unexpected light on the origin of various important groups of animals—information affecting the faunistic history of not only Africa, but also Europe, Asia, and America.

It is greatly to be hoped that further research in North-Eastern Africa may eventually solve the problem of the origin of this Eocene fauna, and carry the history of these animals back to a still earlier geological horizon.

4. **The Origin of the existing Fauna of Egypt.**—Of the forms of vertebrated animals now living in a wild state in the Nile Valley, between the first cataract at Assouan and the Mediterranean Sea:—

The mammals are, generically, almost entirely Palaearctic,* the only important exception being the Hyrax.

The birds are also almost all of Palaearctic species (the resident forms are frequently subspecifically distinct from their European representatives), but a few Ethiopian† species occur (for instance, the sun-bird (*Nectarinia metallica*), which apparently just enters the southern portion of this area, and the lark-heeled cuckoo (*Centropus senegalensis*), which extends as far north as the Delta).

The reptiles and Batrachians present a

* **Palaearctic.**—The extent of the Palaearctic Region is the whole of the Eastern Hemisphere north of a line on the south of the Atlas, and running eastward through the south of Palestine and Persia, along the Himalayas, through Central Asia and the centre of China to the Pacific (see "Geography of Mammals" by W. L. & P. L. Sclater, 1899, page 7).

† **Ethiopian.**—The extent of the Ethiopian Region is Africa, south of the Atlas; Arabia up to the Persian Gulf, and Madagascar (op. cit., page 6).

curious mixture of northern and southern forms, and it may be mentioned that the herpetological fauna of Alexandria and the sea-coast district is markedly different from that of Cairo and other parts of Egypt.

The fish of the Nile are essentially Ethiopian, the only exceptions being such marine fish as the eel and grey mullet, which are able to live in fresh water, and ascend into the Nile from the Mediterranean.

Of the geographical affinities of the various groups of Invertebrated Animals which inhabit Egypt it is not possible to offer any opinions in this paper.

5. **The Origin of the existing Fauna of the Western Oases.**—"About 500 species of wild and cultivated plants were collected by Acherson in the oases of Farafra, Dakleh, and Khargeh. The greater proportion of these species have been found to be of European origin, whereas the majority of the wild and cultivated plants of Egypt are essentially African in their descent. The strong affinity which the flora of the oases presents to that of Europe sanctions the inference which has been put forward in explanation of it, viz., that the area of the Libyan desert in which the depressions lie had been directly continuous with the lands of the Western Mediterranean before it had formed part of Egypt. It remains yet to be ascertained whether the fauna of the oases will also favour a similar conclusion."—Anderson, Zoology of Egypt, vol. I. (1898), page 43.

6. The problem of the exchange of the marine faunas of the Mediterranean and Red Seas across the Isthmus of Suez, firstly in ancient times by possible natural sea connections, and secondly in modern times by means of the Suez Canal.

HISTORY.

The history of our knowledge of the Fauna of Egypt may be conveniently divided into eight periods :—

1. Ancient Egyptians.
2. Classical and Mediaeval times.
3. Hasselquist.
4. End of 18th Century.
5. French Expèdition.
6. Nineteenth Century.
7. Anderson.
8. Workers of the last decade.

1. **Ancient Egyptians.**—The fascinating study of the animal world as known to the ancient Egyptians has, for over a hundred years, interested not only zoologists but also artists, historians, and the general public. Most important work has been done by Dr. Louis Lortet and Monsieur Gaillard, and has been published in the Archives of the Lyons Museum. Mr. Richard Lydekker, F.R.S., has paid particular attention to this subject, and the researches of Mr. Howard Carter must also be specially mentioned.

2. **Classical and Mediaeval times.**—In the literature scattered over a period of some 2,300 years, the references to the Egyptian Fauna are numerous, but the authors were more interested in recording marvellous stories than in actual facts ; and the animals referred to are usually too vaguely described to be capable of correct identification, according to modern nomenclature.

The most important work of the classical period is that of Herodotus (born 484 B.C., died 424 B.C.).

The most important work of the mediaeval period is that of Prospero Alpini (born 1553, died 1617).

3. **Hasselquist.** — The founder of the modern scientific zoology of Egypt was the Swedish naturalist Frederick Hasselquist, who was born in East Gotha on Jauuary 3, 1722, who visited Egypt from May, 1750, to March, 1751, and who died at Smyrna on February 9, 1752. The results of his work, entitled "Iter Palaestinum," were edited after his death by his former instructor, the great Linnaeus, and published in 1757.

4. **End of 18th Century.**—The results of the work of three travellers are prominent at this period.

W. G. Browne, of Oxford, who journeyed in Egypt and the Soudan in the years 1792 to 1798.

Peter Forskål, naturalist to the Danish Expedition equipped by Frederick V. of Denmark for the scientific exploration of Egypt, Arabia, and Syria, which sailed from Europe in January, 1761. Forskål died at Jerim, in Arabia, on July 11, 1763, and so, unfortunately, as in the case of Hasselquist, his work had to be published posthumously in 1775.

Guillaume Antoine Olivier (born 1756, died 1814), the French Zoologist, who visited Lower Egypt in 1794–95.

5. **French Expedition.**—The great work "Description de l'Egypte, ou Recueil des observations et des recherches qui ont été faites en Egypte pendant l'expédition de l'armée française."

The zoologists of this expedition were : Etienne Geoffroy St. Hilaire (born 1772, died 1844) and Jules Savigny.

6. **Nineteenth Century.** — Among the many travellers and naturalists, by whose labours our knowledge of the zoology of North-Eastern Africa has been enriched during the Ninteenth Century, the following names may be here noted : P. Acherson, Antinori, d'Arnaud, Sir Samuel W. Baker, Baron von Barnim, Theodore Bent, W. T. Blanford, Johann Ludwig Burckhardt, Edward North Buxton, Frederic Cailliaud, A. J. Cholmley, Captain Hugh Clapperton, Colonel D. Denham, Dr. Christian Gottfried Ehrenberg, Theodore Erckel, E. A. Floyer, Francis Galton, J. H. Gurney, jun., Dr. R. Hartmann, Professor Hedenborg, Dr. S. F. Hemprich, Baron Theodor von Heuglin, Surgeon Michael Hey, W. Jordan, Dr. Klunzinger, Alexandre Lefèbre, J. Menges, J. Petherick, Gerard Rohlfs, Crown Prince Rudolf of Austria, Dr. Edouard Rueppell, Professor Georg Schweinfurth, Captain George Ernest Shelley, Rev. E. Cavendish Taylor, Sir J. G. Wilkinson and Karl A. Zittel.

7. **Anderson.**—As mentioned in the preface to this paper, it was the late Dr. John Anderson who formed the idea of placing the knowledge of the zoology of the Nile Valley on a satisfactory basis.

The four volumes of his "Zoology of Egypt" so far published are :

Vol. I. "Reptilia and Batrachia," by John Anderson, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. London : Bernard Quaritch, 15, Piccadilly. 1898.

Vol. II. "Mammalia," by the late John Anderson, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., revised and completed by W. E. de Winton, F.Z.S. London : Hugh Rees, Limited, 124, Pall Mall. 1902.

Vol. III. "The Fishes of the Nile," by G. A. Boulenger, F.R.S. *Text.* Published for the Egyptian Government by Hugh Rees, Limited, 119, Pall Mall, London, S.W. 1907.

Vol. IV. "The Fishes of the Nile." *Plates* (illustrating Vol. III.).

Another of Dr. Anderson's works, which is invaluable to the student of the fauna of this region, is "A contribution to the Herpetology of Arabia," published in London by R. H. Porter in 1896.

8. **Workers of the last decade.**—Among recent zoological workers the names of J. S. Budgett and N. R. Harrington will be remembered as martyrs of science. In each case a promising career was cut short by disease contracted while studying the fish fauna of Africa in its native haunts.

The Swedish Zoological Expedition, under the direction of Professor L. A. Jägerskiöld, to Egypt, the Peninsula of Sinai, and the White Nile, December, 1900, to July, 1901, accomplished important results, which are being published by the Government of Sweden.

Professor Jägerskiöld was accompanied from Sweden by Messrs. Th. Odhner and I. Trägårdh, and in Cairo the party was joined by Dr. F. Walter Innes Bey, who has published the following paper : "Voyage au Nil Blanc pour des recherches zoologiques." (Extrait du bulletin No. 12, série V., de la Société Khédiviale de Géographie.) Le Caire, Imprimerie Nationale, 1902.

Dr. G. Elliot Smith, F.R.S., has paid attention to the animal, as well as the human, remains of former inhabitants of Egypt.

For accounts of the Tertiary Vertebrata of Egypt the reader is referred to the works of Dr. C. W. Andrews, F.R.S., particularly the descriptive catalogue published by the Trustees of the British Museum in 1906, and to his summary of 1907 (Smithsonian publication No. 1757). Professor Henry Fairfield Osborn has written a popular account of the fossil animals of the Fayoum in the *Century Magazine* for October, 1907, and more technical articles in the publications of the American Museum of Natural History.

Papers on mammals occurring in Egypt and the Soudan have, during the last few years, been written by Dr. Knud Andersen, Mr. R. Lydekker, F.R.S., Professor Paul Matschie, Mr. Harold Schwann, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Professor E. L. Trouessart, Mr. W. E. de Winton, and Mr. R. C. Wroughton ; and an account of the mammals of Tripoli and Barka by Dr. Bruno Klaptocz, of Vienna, should also be mentioned.

Of particular importance are two publications of the Soudan Government, written by Mr. Arthur Lennox Butler, Superintendent of the Soudan Game Preservation Department :

(1) Circular Memorandum No. 43, of February 1, 1906, on the "Points for guidance in distinguishing tusks of male and female Elephants."

(2) "Brief notes for identifying the Game Animals of the Sudan." 1908.

Numerous papers on birds occurring in Egypt and the Soudan have lately been written, the authors to whose published works attention may be specially called are Mr. A. L. Butler, Mr. W. R. Ogilvie-Grant, Dr. E. Hartert, Mr R. McD. Hawker, Professor Alexander F. Koenig, Mr. W. Leonard S. Loat, Mr. Michael J. Nicoll, the Hon. N. Charles Rothschild, Mr. H. F. Witherby, and Mr. A. F. R. Wollaston.

Since the publication of Anderson's volume, the most important contributions to the herpetology of the Nile Valley have been those of Dr. Franz Werner, of Vienna. Herr Adolf Andres has also written two papers on the subject : "Die ägyptische Brillenschlange *Naja haje* in der Gefangenschaft" ("Natur und Haus," March 1, 1908, pages 168–170), and an annotated list of species (Publications de la Société d'Histoire Naturelle d'Alexandrie. 1908).

Finally the writings of Dr. Paul Kammerer, of Vienna, must be mentioned, including his illustrated book, "Eine Naturforscherfahrt

durch Aegypten und den Sudan," published in Brunswick in 1906.

List of institutions in Egypt and the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan more or less interested in zoology :—

ALEXANDRIA.
1. Municipal menagerie in Nouzha Garden.
2. Natural History Society.

CAIRO.
3. Gizeh Zoological Gardens.
4. Gezireh Aquarium.
5. Museum of Antiquities.
6. Geological Museum.
7. School of Medicine, Kasr-el-Aini.
8. Hygienic Institute.
9. Veterinary School.
10. Agricultural School.
11. Khedivial Agricultural Society.
12. Egyptian Institute.
13. Khedivial Geographical Society.
14. Cairo Scientific Society.
15. Entomological Society.

KHARTOUM.
16. Game Preservation Department and Zoological Gardens.
17. Gordon College Wellcome Laboratories and Museum.

PORT SOUDAN.
18. Pearl Fishery Service.

OUTLINE OF THE EXISTING VERTEBRATE FAUNA OF EGYPT.

To avoid confusing the reader by including animals which the ordinary resident in, or visitor to, this country is never likely to meet with, Egypt is here restricted to the Nile Valley itself, from the southern frontier near Wadi Halfa to the Mediterranean seaboard (from Alexandria to Port Said) on the north.

If the Sinai Peninsula and the Oases of the Libyan Desert were included, the list would have to be increased by various species of rare, or problematical, occurrence.

Certain noteworthy animals can no longer be included as "existing" in Egypt. The last records of hippopotamus in this country are nearly a century old, the crocodile was rare thirty years ago and has long since been completely exterminated, and the last wild boar was killed nearly ten years ago (but a single female representative of the race still survives in the Gizeh Zoological Gardens).

Of the bird so intimately associated by tradition with Egypt, the Sacred Ibis, the present writer has so far been unable to discover any unassailable evidence of its ever having lived in a wild state in Egypt, and the ostrich, which apparently was found on both sides of the Nile at the beginning of the nineteenth century, has now disappeared.

MAMMALS OF EGYPT.

Ten species of carnivora are common, all of which, with the possible exception of the Hyaena, are still to be found within a day's journey of Cairo. An eleventh species, the Red Lynx (*Felis caracal*) is very rare.

The common species are :—

1. **Jungle Cat** (*Felis chaus*).—A destructive, bloodthirsty animal which inhabits low marshy ground, reed-beds, sugar-cane fields, and other thick cover. Large specimens weigh 17½lbs. (8 kilos.) or even more.

2. **Libyan Cat** (*Felis ocreata* or *Felis libyca*).—Rather smaller than the ordinary domestic cat, of which it is probably the main origin ; inhabits dry situations.

3. **Mongoose** (*Herpestes ichneumon*).—Very numerous ; goes about in parties of two to four, hunting for its prey in marshy and cultivated ground. Adults measure from point of nose to end of tail, 3 feet 8 inches (1·11 metres), and weigh 7¾ lbs. (3·5 kilos.). Anderson, Vol. II., page 193, says : "At the present time the mongoose is frequently tamed and kept in the houses of the Egyptians to protect them from rats and snakes." The present writer has been unable to obtain any evidence to support this statement.

4. **Striped Hyaena** (*Hyaena striata* or *Hyaena hyaena*).—The hyaena appears to be found throughout the desert margins of the Nile Valley, but is seldom seen.

5. **Jackal** (*Canis lupaster*).—The so-called "Egyptian wolf," is intermediate in size between the real wolves of northern countries and the jackals of other parts of Africa and of Asia. It appears to be numerous throughout Lower and Middle Egypt, and is said to be destructive to the sugar-cane crop. Specimens in captivity greedily eat dates, grapes, and cherries, when they get the opportunity of doing so.

6. **Fox** (*Canis vulpes* or *Vulpes vulpes aegyptiaca*).—The red fox is numerous in both cultivated ground and on the desert margin.

7. **Sand Fox** (*Canis famelicus* or *Vulpes famelica*).—This is a beautiful species of fox, with very handsome fur.

8. **Fennec Fox** (*Canis zerda* or *Vulpes zerda*).—The fennec is a very small desert-dwelling fox, with very large ears.

9. **Weasel** (*Mustela subpalmata* or *Putorius africanus*).—The Egyptian weasel is practically the same as the European weasel, but grows to a larger size (about the size of the European stoat). Rueppell has stated that is not indigenous to Egypt, but was, at some former time, artifically introduced. In Cairo it lives in houses and gardens, and shows little fear of man.

10. **Striped Weasel**, or **Zorilla** (*Ictonyx libyca*).—The pretty, long-haired, black and white weasel of the desert parts of Egypt is locally known as "Father of the bad smell," as it resembles the American skunk, not only in colour, but also in possessing the power of producing an objectionable perfume. In captivity, however, it becomes tame, does not smell, and makes an interesting pet.

Bats (Chiroptera) are represented by one species of large fruit-eating bat (*Rousettus aegyptiacus*), and by a host of varied and interesting small insect-eating bats, whose affinities and distribution are at present being studied by Dr. Knud Andersen at the British Museum of Natural History.

Four species of Insectivora are recorded from Egypt. One, the Hedgehog (*Erinaceus auritus*) is common, the other three, all species of shrews (of the genus *Crocidura*), are rarely met with.

The Rodentia of Egypt belong to four families :—

First, the *Muridae*, represented by a large number of species, many still very imperfectly known, of Rats, Bandicoots, Mice, Spiny Mice, and Gerbils. Mr. J. L. Bonhote is now making a special study of these animals, and when the results of his work are published it is expected that this important subject (especially important as to the known, and supposed, results to mankind of rat-carried diseases) will be placed on a much better footing.

Second, the *Spalacidae*, represented by a single species of burrowing, blind Mole-Rat from the Mariout district.

Third, the *Jaculidae*, the jumping Jerboas *Jaculus* (or *Dipus*) of which a large species is found near Alexandria, and a small species is common further south.

Fourth, the *Leporidae*, or family of Hares and Rabbits. Three species of hare (the Egyptian Hare, Rothschild's Hare, and Innes Bey's Hare) are known from the neighbourhood of Cairo and the Fayoum.

Five species of Ungulata are found wild in Egypt :—

1. **Hyrax** (*Hyrax* or *Procavia*).—The hyrax is a stoutly built, but very agile, animal about the size of a large rabbit, with very short ears and a rudimentary tail. It is apparently not uncommon in certain localities on the east of the Nile. Possibly more than one species occurs in Egypt.

2. **Ibex** (*Capra nubiana*).—The Nubian ibex inhabits the hills on the east side of the Nile from Cairo and Suez southwards to the Soudan frontier. Owing to much persecution from men with fire-arms, this animal is now rare in all districts of easy access. The males carry magnificent gracefully sweeping horns, which may attain a length (on the curve) of 4 feet (1.21 metres).

3. **Wild Sheep** (*Ovis lervia*).—The Arui wild sheep are reported to occur on both sides of the Nile, but are much rarer than the ibex.

4. **Gazelle** (*Gazella dorcas*).—The common gazelle of Egypt, found in suitable localities on both sides of the Nile, much persecuted by trapping and shooting.

5. **Loder's Gazelle** (*Gazella leptoceros*).—A very handsome, pale-coloured, long-horned species, confined to desert tracts on the western side of the Nile.

Of the domestic animals of Egypt it should be noted that apparently both the Camel and the Buffalo have been introduced into the Nile valley, from Asia, within the historic period.

Before concluding this brief account of the mammals it should be mentioned that the Dugong (*Halicore hemprichi*) is recorded from the Egyptian coast of the Red Sea, and that certain species of Whales and Dolphins also occur. A Fin Whale (*Balaenoptera*) from the Gulf of Suez is mentioned in Anderson (Vol. II., page 361). The present writer has seen teeth of a Sperm Whale (*Physeter*) from an individual stranded on the Mediterranean coast of Egypt, and has also examined the skull of a Dolphin (*Tursiops tursio*) from the Damietta mouth of the Nile, which is probably the species so often seen at Port Said, where the Common Dolphin (*Delphinus delphis*) also occurs.

BIRDS OF EGYPT.

The standard work on the birds of this country is the "Handbook to the Birds of Egypt," by Captain G. E. Shelley, Grenadier Guards, published in London in 1872. The subject is now being studied *de novo* by Mr. Michael J. Nicoll, who has already been able to add several species to the list of birds known from this country, and to make important observations on such points as local distribution, migration, varieties, moulting, and breeding.

This subject of the birds of Egypt is so vast and so fascinating that it is quite impossible to do any justice to it within the limits of the present paper. A few of the most interesting birds can merely be mentioned by name :—

Mourning Chat (*Saxicola lugens*).
Rufous Warbler (*Aedon galactodes*).

Graceful Warbler (*Dymoeca gracilis*).
Crested Lark (*Galerita cristata*).
Pied Kingfisher (*Ceryle rudis*).
Green Bee-eater (*Merops viridis*).
Hoopoe (*Upupa epops*).
Egyptian Kite (*Milvus migrans aegyptius*).
Buff-backed Egret (*Ardea bubulcus*).

REPTILES OF EGYPT.

Only one species of land tortoise occurs in Egypt, called Leith's Tortoise (*Testudo leithi*) ; it is found only near the Mediterranean coast, and when adult weighs 8 to 9 ozs. (.25 kilos).

Sea Turtles are caught on the coast, as in all other subtropical and tropical countries, and a fresh-water Soft Turtle (*Trionyx triunguis*) inhabits the Nile and canals, but being in demand as an article of diet has now become rare, the largest specimen from the neighbourhood of Cairo that the present writer has examined weighed 33½ lbs. (15.25 kilos.).

Lizards form a characteristic feature of both the cultivated and desert parts of Egypt. It should be noted that, in spite of popular local belief to the contrary, they are all absolutely non-poisonous, and do an immense amount of good to mankind by devouring insects.

Representatives of five families occur :— Geckoes, Agamas, Warans, true Lizards, and Skinks.

The Basilisk and the Common Chameleon are very locally, and apparently fitfully distributed in the Nile Valley and Delta.

Snakes are seldom met with in Egypt, and deaths from snake-bite are almost unknown. Twenty-two species of harmless snakes have been recorded from Egypt, but only seventeen species are known for certain to occur, and five of these are very rare or local. Of the remaining twelve species, the smallest is the Cairo Earth-Snake (*Glauconia cairi*), which may be easily mistaken for a slender pinkish worm, and the largest is Clifford's Snake (*Zamenis diadema*), which reaches a length of just over 5 feet (1.545 metres).

Five species of poisonous snakes occur, the Uraeus Cobra (*Naia haie*), the largest Egyptian snake, reaching a length of 5 feet 11 inches (1.803 metres) ; the Black-necked Cobra (*Naia nigricollis*), which appears to be very rare, as Anderson only obtained a single specimen, and the present writer has never seen it ; the so-called "Cleopatra's Asp" (*Cerastes vipera*), the horned viper (*Cerastes cornutus*), and the carpet viper (*Echis carinatus*) are inhabitants of desert places, and do not appear to enter the cultivated lands, nor do they attain to a large size, *C. vipera* reaching rarely a length of 18¼ inches (.464 metres), *C. cornutus* 2 feet 5 inches (.735 metres), and *E. carinatus* 2 feet 8½ inches (.830 metres).

A sixth recorded poisonous snake (*Walterinnesia aegyptia*) has never been caught in Egypt, but appears to inhabit the Soudan.

BATRACHIANS OF EGYPT.

Only two species occur throughout the length of Egypt, one frog (*Rana mascareniensis*), and one toad (*Bufo regularis*). A few other species are found in the neighbourhood of Alexandria.

FISHES OF EGYPT.

For a most interesting account of the Fishes of this country, and the methods by which they are caught in the Nile and in the lakes, the reader is referred to the Report on the Nile Fish Survey, by Mr. W. Leonard S. Loat, in Anderson, Vol. III., pages xx. to li.

Boulenger has recorded seventy-three species of fishes from the fresh-waters of Egypt. Several of these species are, however, very much like each other superficially, and the fisherman or zoologist, without expert knowledge of ichthyology, is not likely to be able to discriminate more than about forty-five species as distinct.

The flesh of the Nile fish is better eating (especially during the flood season), and is of more marketable value, than would be supposed by reading many of the published statements on this subject.

In the Gezireh Aquarium individuals of all the principal kinds of fish from the neighbourhood of Cairo can be seen alive, including the curious long-snouted *Mormyrus* or "Oxyrhynchus," the predaceous voracious River-Dog (*Hydrocyon*), the Electric Cat-fish (*Malopterurus*), the great Nile Perch (*Lates*), and the Fahaka or Globe-fish (*Tetrodon*).

FAUNA OF THE SOUDAN.

The vast territories of the Anglo-Egyptian Soudan teem with an abundance and variety of animal life unequalled in any other part of the world. The more important forms can merely be mentioned here.

Mammals.—Chimpanzee, Guereza Monkey, Grivet Monkey, Hussar Monkey (of several varieties), Sacred Baboon, Anubis Baboon, Bush-baby Lemur, Lion, Leopard, Serval Cat, Caracal Lynz, Chita, Civet Cat, Genet Cat, White-tailed Mongoose, Zebra Mongoose, Aard Wolf, Spotted and Striped Hyaena, Jackal, Fox, Hunting Dog, Honey Badger, Golden Bat, Ethiopian Hedgehog, Porcupine, Ground Squirrel, Cane-Rat, Crested-Rat, Jerboa, Hare, Hyrax, Elephant, Zebra, Wild Donkey, Rhinoceros (two species), Buffalo, Hartebeast (several species), Northern Waterbuck, Mrs. Gray's Waterbuck, White-eared Waterbuck, Thomas's Waterbuck, Reedbuck, Oribi, Duiker, Dig-dig, Klipspringer, Dorcas Gazelle, Isabella Gazelle, Korin Gazelle, Ariel, Rŷl, Roan Antelope, Sabre-horned Antelope, Beisa Oryx, Addax, Greater Kudu (of at least two distinct races), Bushbuck, Eland (of two very distinct races), Ibex, Arui Wild Sheep, Giraffe, Hippopotamus, Wart-hog, Black Boar, Ant-bear.

The scaly Ant-eater (*Manis*) also probably occurs, but the present writer is unable personally to verify the fact.

Birds.—For information on the birds of the Soudan the reader is referred to the writings of Baron von Heuglin and Mr. A. L. Butler. Among the hundreds of beautiful and interesting forms which inhabit the Soudan, attention may here be called to the Bee-eaters, the Colies, the Hornbills, the Parrots, the black Crested Eagle, the white-headed noisy River Eagle, the handsome Bateleur Eagle, the Secretary Bird, the Goliath Heron, the *Scopus*, the Shoebill (*Balaeniceps*), the Senegal Stork, the Bustards, and the Ostrich.

Reptiles.—The Crocodile is excessively numerous in many parts, and yearly exacts heavy toll, not only on domestic animals, but also on human beings.

Land Tortoises occur ; one species (*Testudo calcarata*) of which grows to a great size, individuals weighing as much as 103 lbs. (47 kilos). Terrapins and Soft Turtles inhabit the rivers.

Lizards are numerous, a few species of Chameleon occur, but (for a tropical country) Snakes are comparatively rare, and poisonous Snakes particularly seldom met with. Of the non-poisonous Snakes, the largest is the African Python. The Royal Python has been found in the Bahr el Ghazal province by Mr. A. L. Butler. The most formidable of the poisonous Snakes are the Cobra and the Puff Adder.

Batrachians.—Several species of Frogs and Toads occur. Our knowledge of the Batrachian fauna of the Soudan has recently been largely augmented by the researches of Dr. F. Wernier and Mr. A. L. Butler.

Fishes.—Of the seventy-three species recorded from the fresh-waters of Egypt, all but some twelve or thirteen species are known to also occur in the Soudan, where many allied forms, which do not descend the Nile as far as Egypt, are also found.

Besides these, certain Ethiopian forms of particular interest must also be mentioned :— *Protopterus*, *Gymnarchus*, and *Heterotis*.

NOTES ON INVERTEBRATED ANIMALS.

The most important scientific work on the zoology of the Nile Valley that has yet been carried out is that of :—

(1) The members of the staff of the Egyptian Government School of Medicine at Cairo, under the direction of Dr. Henry Pottinger Keatinge, M.B., F.R.C.S., C.M.Z.S., especially the work of Professor Arthur Looss on the Ankylostoma worm (*Agchylostoma duodenale*—first discovered by Angelo Dubini at Milan in 1838), and the work of Dr. William H. Wilson on the poisons of Scorpions and other Arachnida.

(2) The members of the staff of the Wellcome Research Laboratories at the Gordon Memorial College, Khartoum, under the direction of Dr. Andrew Balfour, M.D., B.Sc., &c., including the work done in England, from material supplied from the Soudan ; on mosquitoes and other flies, by Mr. Ernest E. Austen and Mr. Frederick V. Theobald.

Important work has also been accomplished by the Khedivial Agricultural Society, under the direction of Mr. G. P. Foaden, B.Sc., especially in entomology by Mr. F. C. Willcocks.

The biological expedition to Lake Qurun, in the Fayoum, initiated by Captain H. G. Lyons, F.R.S., must also be specially mentioned. In March, April, and May, 1907, Dr. W. A. Cunnington and Mr. Charles L. Boulenger made careful collections in a number of different parts of the lake. In "Nature" for August 1, 1907 (page 316), these collectors write : "The lake seems to be remarkable more for the quantity of life which its waters contain than for the number of different species inhabiting it. The tow-net revealed immense swarms of entomostraca —mostly copepods and cladocerca—as well as vast numbers of rotifers, while the smaller organisms form the food supply of the fish, which occur in astonishing abundance. Although the tow nettings usually afforded a plentiful supply of the smaller animals, they contained relatively little in the way of phyto-plankton."

The Hydroid (*Cordylophora lacustris*—originally discovered by Allman in the docks of London and Dublin) was found by Cunnington and Boulenger to occur in great abundance in Lake Qurun. This genus had not previously been recorded from any part of Africa. As Mr. C. L. Boulenger says (Annals and Magazine of Natural History, Ser. 8, Vol. I. ; June, 1908 ; page 493) : "*Cordylophora lacustris* has not been recorded from the Nile ; its occurrence in the Birket el-Qurun is therefore of great interest ; the lake being nearly 150 miles inland, and at the present day without communication with the sea except by means

of that river. Geological evidence, however, shows that in late Pliocene times the depression in which Lake Qurun is situated must have been of the nature of a large brackish fjord in communication with the Mediterranean; it seems, therefore, possible that *Cordylophora* first established itself in the district at that period."

Other discoveries of Cunnington and Boulenger in Lake Qurun were a ctenostomatous Polyzoan, resembling *Victorella*, and a Hydromedusan, which has since been named *Mocrisia lyonsi*. With these exceptions the fauna of this lake seems to be essentially a fresh-water one, composed probably of such inhabitants of the Nile as can accommodate themselves to the salinity of the water.

Mollusca. — The land and fresh-water snails of the Nile Valley are of both popular and scientific interest. A few forms only can be mentioned within the limits of this paper.

The Desert Snail (*Helix desertorum*), which is often to be picked up in large quantities in apparently quite arid stretches of desert, is endowed with a remarkable tenacity of life. A specimen which had been sent to the British Museum, and was believed to be dead, was fixed to a tablet in March, 1846, and in March, 1850, was discovered to be alive! It had passed a period of four years in a dry museum case, without the smallest particle of food, but after being soaked in water it completely revived.

The Apple-Snails, which can breathe either water or air, attain to a great size in the Soudan. Some specimens of *Ampullaria werneri* from the White Nile measure nearly 5 inches (125 mm.) across in their largest diagonal diameter.

Limicolaria caillaudi is one of the most beautiful snails of the Soudan. In the wet season, it may be sometimes found crawling in the long grass, and in the dry season the tall, spiral, white shell, strongly marked with rich, reddish-brown lines, forms a conspicuous object when seen.

Dr. Francis Walter Innes Bey has paid considerable attention to the Egyptian mollusca, and in his Paper, "Recensement des Planorbes et des Valvées de l'Égypte" (Bull. Soc. Malac. de France, December 1884, I.), has enumerated twenty-two species of *Planorbis* and twelve of *Valvata*. Dr. Richard Hägg, of Upsala, has recently published a useful list of twenty species of Soudan Mollusca, with references to the literature on the subject.

The shell, commonly spoken of as the "White Nile Oyster," which forms large beds in many places in that river, is a species of *Aetheria*. The real Oysters of the Red Sea have been lately investigated by Mr. C. Crossland, Marine Biologist to the Soudan Government, who has also done important work among other groups of salt-water invertebrated animals.

Crustacea.—Both Dr. J. G. de Man, of Ierseke, Holland, and Dr. W. T. Calman, of the British Museum have lately worked at the fresh-water crabs and prawns of the Nile system, especially in relation to the allied forms that occur in other parts of Africa and in tropical Asia.

The Copepoda of the neighbourhood of Cairo have been studied by Dr. René La Roche and Dr. A. Graeter of Basle, and Dr. Sven Ekman, of Upsala, has recently published a list of seventeen species of Cladocera and Copepoda from Egypt and the Soudan, in which frequent reference is made to the collections formed in Egypt by Dr. Th. Barrois.

Arachnida.—Scorpions, which are excessively numerous in many places along the Nile, and Spiders and their allies, including the "Abu Shepherd" (*Galeodes arabs*) (frequently miscalled "Tarantula"), form a very interesting, and by no means exhausted subject of research. Much information may be obtained from the published writings of such authorities on these animals as R. I. Pocock, E. Simon, and A. A. Birula, but a complete catalogue of the species to be met with in Egypt and the Soudan is much wanted.

Myriopoda.—Centipedes are rarely, and Millipedes very rarely, as far as the present writer's experience goes, met with in the Nile valley, and there is a corresponding paucity on the literature of the subject.

Hexapoda.—The true insects form to-day the most important factor in the fauna of Egypt, and from all antiquity have been intimately associated with the history of the country, for good or bad. It is only necessary to mention the Sacred Beetle (*Scarabæus*), the Mosquito, the ubiquitous Fly, the Flea, the Locust, and the "Cotton Worm."

Amongst the recent literature on the Insects of Egypt and the Soudan, attention must be especially called to the beautifully illustrated "Rapport sur l'invasion du Criquet pèlerin *Acridium peregrinum* en Égypte 1904," by M. Maurice Boniteau Bey, published by the National Printing Department in Cairo in 1904, and to papers on various groups of insects by the specialists who worked out the collections of the Swedish Zoological Expedition of 1901, and to the work of Dr. Arthur G. Butler, Mr. P. P. Graves, Mr. Harold H. King, Mr. Reginald I. Pocock ("The Stridulating-organ in the Egyptian Beetle *Graphipterus variegatus*." "Annals and Mag. Nat. Hist. Ser. 7. Vol. X." August, 1902, pages 154–158), the Hon. N. Charles Rothschild, Mr. William Warren, Dr. Franz Werner, and Mr. F. C. Willcocks.

CAPTAIN STANLEY SMYTH FLOWER, the Director of the Egyptian Government Zoological Gardens at Gizeh and of the Aquarium at Ghezireh, was born in London on August 1, 1871. He is the second son of the late Sir William Flower, K.C.B., F.R.S., &c., and was educated at Wellington School and King's College (London). In February, 1890, he entered the Militia as 2nd Lieutenant, 3rd Battalion, Northumberland Fusiliers, and the Regular Army in April, 1893, as 2nd Lieutenant in the 5th Fusiliers. In October, 1896, he was seconded for special extra-regimental service under the Foreign Office. Attaining the rank of Captain in February, 1900, he retired from the service in September of the following year, after his appointment to the Egyptian Public Works Department. During the period he was seconded, he was Scientific Adviser to the Royal Siamese Museum at Bangkok. Captain Flower is a Fellow of the Zoological Society of London, member of the British Ornithological Union and the Royal Zoological Society of Ireland, life member of the Royal Asiatic Society (Straits Settlements Branch), member of the Bombay Natural History Society, Avicultural Society, Foreign Bird Club, &c., &c. He has contributed papers on the fauna of the Malay Peninsula, Siam, and the Nile Valley to the Proceedings of the Zoological Society, London, and to other journals.

THE FINANCES OF EGYPT AND THE SOUDAN.

IN considering the present financial condition of Egypt, it is necessary to take a glance backward over a rather long period. To understand how this country, with a population of 11¾ millions, and 41 per cent. of the male adults engaged in agricultural pursuits, mostly of a humble nature, while of the remainder few can be classed as wealthy, has come to be saddled with a debt of not far short of one hundred million pounds, it is essential to go back to the time of Ismael Pasha, grandson of the famous Mehemet Ali. Ismael succeeded Said Pasha as ruler of Egypt (under the suzerainty of Turkey) in 1863, and then initiated a career of waste and extravagance, of reckless borrowing, and incredibly wasteful expenditure—marked by utter disregard of economic laws and even the most common consideration for the good of his country. "If," says Lord Cromer in "Modern Egypt," "the general principles adopted by Mehemet Ali (who reigned as Khedive from 1811 to 1848) had continued to be applied, and especially if recourse had not been made to European credit, it is just possible that the Egyptian system of administration would have been gradually reformed in a manner suitable to the requirements of the country." But Mehemet Ali's successors, Ibrahim, Abbas I., and Said, were all incapable rulers. The two former were Oriental despots of the worst type; while Said was a man of excessive vanity and hopeless incapacity in the art of government. It was Said who was first responsible for the influx of European adventurers who came to prey upon Egypt; and when, after a reign of nine years, he died in 1863, the public debt of the country amounted to £E3,293,000. But this was a mere flea-bite to the enormous public burden created by his successor, Ismael. In thirteen years the latter added, on an average, about £E7,000,000 annually to the indebtedness of Egypt, the result being that in 1876 the funded debt amounted to over 68 millions (pounds Egyptian), and the floating debt to about 26 millions, making a total burden of 94 millions.

And what was there in the way of works of real utility to show for the expenditure of this vast sum of money? Practically one, and one only—the Suez Canal—the construction of which absorbed 16 millions. For all practical purposes the rest of the borrowed money—some 78 millions—had been squandered. The total revenue from 1864 to 1875 (inclusive) amounted to £E94,281,401, which was not quite sufficient to meet the total of the ordinary annual charges of administration, tribute to the Porte, together with some works of both questionable and unquestionable utility, amounting, for the eleven years, to £E97,240,966. The proceeds of the loan moneys over and above the cost of the Suez Canal had been absorbed in payment of interest and sinking funds, and there was nothing solid to show for the huge expenditure. Such a state of things could end only in complete disaster. To add to the seriousness of the situation, the country was being woefully misgoverned. When, towards the latter part of 1875, the Khedive raised money at ruinous rates of interest by means of Treasury bills, it was apparent that the *débâcle* was at hand. On April 8, 1876, the climax was reached. The Khedive suspended payment of his Treasury bills. Foreign intervention in the financial administration of Egypt then became imperative in the interests of the bondholders, who were mainly British and French. This intervention was the origin of the Egyptian question in its present phase. On May 2, 1876, a Commission of the Public Debt was instituted, the members of which were severally to represent the bondholders of the European countries mainly interested; and, after an investigation of the whole financial situation of the country by Mr. (subsequently Lord) Goschen on behalf of England, in association with M. Joubert, representing France, arrangements were made for classifying the various parts of the debt under different heads, the result being the reduction of the Unified Debt to £E59,000,000. The rate of interest was fixed at 6 per cent., with a sinking fund charge of 1 per cent. The sum of the older debts, incurred before the situation became serious, and amounting to £E4,293,000, as well as the loans, amounting to £E8,815,000, raised by Ismael on his ill-gotten Daira properties, were made subjects of separate arrangements; while a Preference Stock of £E17,000,000, bearing interest at 5 per cent. and secured on the revenues of the railways and the port of Alexandria, was created. Two European Controllers-General, one of the revenue and the other of the expenditure, were appointed; and General Marriott was placed at the head of the Railway Board. Just a year later, on May 2, 1877, Sir Evelyn Baring (now Lord Cromer), in the capacity of the English representative on the Commission of the Debt, began his notable connection with the administration of Egyptian affairs.

With the institution of the Commission of the Debt, with powers to deal with the assigned revenues in the interests of the bondholders, and to prevent the issue of further loans, the principle was established of foreign control over the finances of Egypt. But, as might have been foreseen, the practice and procedure of the Commission had to be considerably altered from time to time, for political as well as fiscal reasons, and owing to the varying needs of the changing circumstances of a country passing through many vicissitudes. At the present time, as the result of international negotiations in 1904, the functions of the Commission are strictly limited to acting as receivers for the bondholders. The Commissioners have now no administrative powers.

In 1879 the Government of Egypt declared itself insolvent, and a composition with its creditors became necessary in the following year. As the result of Arabi's rebellion and the Soudan trouble, the country again came perilously near financial chaos. What Lord Milner has aptly termed a "race against bankruptcy" began with the British Occupation. But with the finances under firm British control, the outlook, though dark, was not so hopelessly obscured as it would have been had the fiscal administration been entirely native. The arduous struggle to make ends meet continued for some six years. At last, in 1888, the corner was turned; the danger of another insolvency was averted; the "race against bankruptcy" was won. Financial equilibrium was assured, and the Egyptian Treasury actually found itself in the possession of a surplus. Meanwhile, considerable additions had been made to the Public Debt, which in 1883 amounted to £E96,457,000, the annual charge for interest and sinking fund then being £E4,268,000. Loans for public works, commutation of pensions, and allocations to the Khedivial family and other purposes, in all amounting to over £E18,000,000, had been issued. But, on the other side of the debt account, many loans, including the £E9,000,000 borrowed by Ismael on the Daira

properties, were paid off and others materially reduced.

On December 31, 1908, the total amount owing to bondholders was £E89,415,000, the annual charge for sinking fund and interest being £E3,364,000. During the year a sum of £E320,000 was discharged. There is also stock to the amount of some 6 millions held by the Government and the Commission of the Debt. This is gradually being sold, the proceeds of the sales being expended on remunerative public works. The total capital of the debt at the end of 1908 was, therefore, approximately 95¼ millions.

The original holders of Egyptian bonds naturally suffered from this re-arrangement of the finances which was found imperative in 1880 as the result of the exhaustive investigations of a special Commission of Inquiry into the whole financial administration of the country. This Commission, having discovered that the country could not meet its obligations to the public creditors in full, was followed by the appointment of a Commission of Liquidation, consisting of Europeans, with full powers to regulate the financial situation. On this latter Commission, which consisted of the members of the former body, with the single addition of a German representative, the interests of the bondholders were strongly represented. Meanwhile the troublesome Ismael, who had brought such disaster on his country by his reckless financial methods, had been deposed as the result of the foreign intervention, and Tewfik Pasha had been installed in his stead. The Dual Control was then instituted. The controllers—one English (the present Lord Cromer) and one French (M. de Blignières)—co-operating in thoroughly amicable accord, as Lord Cromer relates, took the recommendations of the Commissioners in hand. The financial re-arrangements then found necessary, included a reduction to 4 per cent. of the interest on the Unified Debt, also the recognition that a large sum owing for interest would never be paid, and involved a loss of 8½ per cent. to the ordinary creditors under the Floating Debt scheme on the capital of their claims. These contractive measures were rendered imperative by the necessity for bringing the heavy annual charge on account of the debt more into conformity than heretofore with the resources of the country. Even then, no less a proportion of the revenue than two-thirds was mortgaged to the bond-holders, leaving only one-third to meet the annual administrative expenditure of the country. The creditors obtained also the advantage of having their relations with the Government established on a sound and legal basis. In 1912 the Egyptian Government will be free to convert the whole of the Debt.

Coming now to a consideration of the annual revenue and expenditure of Egypt, as has been already stated, financial equilibrium was not assured from the beginning of the British Occupation in 1882 until the year 1888. During this period of anxious striving to establish the finances of the country on a basis of thorough stability, the result each year was either a deficit or a difficult adjustment of outgo to income. Caution was necessarily the order of the day, and a very tight hand was kept on the expenditure. Since the tide turned definitely in 1889, annual surpluses have been the rule under the careful administration of the Treasury with British guidance; and during the last twenty years the aggregate surplus has amounted to nearly £E30,000,000. The encouraging feature throughout has been the steady rise of the revenue, which has accompanied the gradual improvement in the general condition of the country under British sway. The revenue for 1883 was £E8,935,000; for 1908 it was £E15,522,000. And this increase in the national income has proceeded continuously despite large remissions and reductions of taxation. For instance, direct taxes to the amount of £E2,000,000, a year have been taken off; while indirect imposts which, like the salt tax, the octroi duties, and the taxes on river and sea boats, were harsh, vexatious, and restrictive of industry, have been abolished. Customs duties on necessaries of existence have been reduced, in some cases by one-half, and postal, telegraph, and railway rates have been lowered. The only increase has been in the tobacco duty, which has been raised by a little over one-quarter.

The revenue for 1908, given above, exceeded the budget estimate by nearly half a million; a result which evidenced the caution with which the forecast was made, but shows some falling off in comparison with the figure for the previous year, the natural consequence of diminished commercial activity due to the financial crisis of 1907. On this head, Sir Eldon Gorst, in his report on the progress of the various departments of the Egyptian Government during the year 1908, says:—"The economic situation is, in fact, essentially sounder now than it has been for some years past. The complaints which are heard are due in a measure to the comparison of the present situation with



H. M. CROOKSHANK PASHA

(Late Comptroller-General of the Daira Sanieh Debt, and Chairman of the Commercial Loans Bank).

times of abnormal and morbid commercial activity. The return of such times is not to be desired. A steady, if uneventful and unexciting, progress is more in the true interests of the community than intermittent periods of feverish activity, with their inevitable re-action." The recovery from the effects of the financial crisis in Egypt of 1907 has been slower than was anticipated. It is characteristic of the Oriental mind to run to extremes either of optimism or pessimism; and the Egyptians are slow to cast off the effects of a bad year. Meanwhile the British-controlled administration maintains ever the same steady course of prudent and economical expenditure of a fairly and justly raised revenue. The decline in the total public income during 1908, as compared with the preceding year, is accounted for in greater part by decreases under the following principal heads of receipts:—

	1907. £E.	1908. £E.
Customs Duty	2,142,844	1,982,232
Railways	3,565,040	3,463,948
Land Registration Fees...	898,512	606,514

Under these three heads taken together the decrease was £E553,702. On the other hand, the amount collected for tobacco duty rose from £E1,648,453 to £E1,688,321, a proof that the purchasing power of the mass of the people has not altogether diminished owing to the general depression through which Egypt was passing. There was also an increase of some £E40,000 in the receipts from the Native Tribunals.

The expenditure out of revenue for the year 1908 reached a total of £E14,408,000 (Ordinary, £E13,650,000; Special, £E758,000), which was £E322,000 less than the amount estimated. Deducting this total expenditure from the £E15,522,000 total revenue, the satisfactory surplus of £E1,114,000 is found to remain, whereas a credit balance of only £E300,000 was budgeted for. The budget for the current year (1909) is framed as follows:—

Estimated Revenue	15,100,000
„ Expenditure (ordinary, £E13,900,000; special or non-recurrent, £E950,000) ...	14,850,000
Estimated Surplus ...	£E250,000

It will be seen that the estimated revenue for the current year is a little less than the amount actually received during 1908. The Financial Adviser, Mr. Harvey, explains that allowance must be made for the reduced purchasing power of the Egyptian public consequent upon the diminished cotton crop, and that the same cause necessitates the anticipation of a slight decrease in railway receipts. Not yet is the country rebounding from the depression. The receipts, however, from tobacco and the Native Tribunals may be expected to show a continuous upward tendency. It will be noticed that the estimated expenditure for 1909 is some £E440,000 above the amount actually expended in 1908. The chief heads under which increases appear are: Public Works, £E46,000, for irrigation and repair of Government buildings; Education, £E35,849, for both literary and technical developments; Pensions, £E50,000, owing to changes in the Pensions Law; Army, £E18,000, for increases in pay to underpaid native officers; Hospitals and Prisons, £E17,340, owing to increase of inmates. On the *per contra* side of the account, a fall in the price of coal is estimated to reduce the cost of the Railway Service by £E40,000; and a saving of £E10,000, due to improved organization, is anticipated under the head of Ports and Lights. The credits for non-current expenditure brought forward from former years and carried into 1909, in all amounting to £E340,000, are allocated for the most part to certain public works and provisions including bridges, lunatic asylums, native tribunals, school buildings, and a new steamer for relieving the lighthouses in the Red Sea.

In accordance with the accepted practice, the surplus for 1908 of £E1,114,000 is transferred to the Reserve Fund. Including this amount and, on the other side, making allowance for payments to be made and depreciation of securities, there remained on December 31, 1908, a clear balance to the credit of this Fund of £E5,210,000. The further expenditure authorised on the Fund in 1909 is as follows:

	£E.
Irrigation works	1,550,000
Alexandria harbour	106,000
Railways	390,000
Municipal works	44,000
Cairo drainage scheme ...	70,000
Advances to Soudan Government for public works, &c.	380,000
Total	2,540,000

During 1908 the payments made out of the Fund amounted to £E3,601,000, and the amount of the credits opened for various works but not expended at the end of the year was £E1,985,000. In explanation and justification of the practice of building up, out of the annual surpluses, a Reserve Fund which shall provide money for the general development of the country, the Financial Adviser says: "National prosperity can only be secured, in so far as it lies with the Government to secure it, by the steady development of the country's natural resources and the prudent and economical expenditure of its revenue. . . . It is in pursuance of this policy that very large sums have been expended on great works of irrigation, and on the development of harbours and railways. In this way the accumulation of taxpayers' money, known by the somewhat misleading appellation of Reserve Fund, is being restored to the population which furnished it. This constitutes a just policy, and a safer and more lucrative employment of the country's surplus revenue than, as is sometimes advocated, the maintenance of that surplus intact in banks or investments." In addition to the Reserve Fund there exists a permanent reserve of £E3,050,000 in the hands of the Caisse de la Dette as a security for the payment of the coupon. On the point of the depreciation in value of the securities in which a considerable part of the Reserve Fund is invested, which on December 31, 1908, amounted to £E180,000, it should be pointed out that there is a marked improvement as regards this item, as on December 31, 1907, the total amount of depreciation was £E316,000. This improvement, of course, indicates a rise in the value of the securities.

In the above table of authorised expenditure out of the Reserve Fund during 1909 it will be seen that the considerable amount of £E380,000 (last item of the list) has been appropriated to the assistance of the Soudan Government in its task of developing the resources of the country in its charge. Inasmuch as Egypt also gives an annual subvention to the Soudan, this additional assistance in the shape of advances has been severely criticised. In reply the *Financial Adviser* says: "The criticism is, however, based on an incomplete understanding of a large political and economic problem. The wide prevalence of the feeling of dissatisfaction with the expenditure of Egyptian money in the Soudan justifies the brief restatement of considerations which, though obvious enough, are apt to be forgotten. The essence of Egypt's prosperity is the water of the Nile. The diminution of this supply, particularly in the critical summer months, would involve an incalculable loss to Egypt. But this would at once result if the Nile water were diverted, as it very well might be, to the irrigation of the Soudan. It is to maintain the supply intact at its source that Egypt holds the Soudan. Unfortunately the Soudan is not to be held without sacrifice. A vast country, almost entirely undeveloped, without communications, largely occupied by unruly tribes, needs expenditure on its administration considerably in excess of its annual revenue. To remedy this situation two objects must be pursued, the development of the country's resources, and internal security. For both these purposes capital expenditure is necessary. Fortunately, the extension of railway communication will in a great degree meet both requirements. Inasmuch as the effectiveness of measures of police depends largely on their promptitude, railway construction not only serves to develop the country, but constitutes an insurance against more onerous charges. It must be borne in mind that the restoration of order, in the event of any considerable disturbance, might involve very heavy expenditure. It is for these reasons that the Egyptian Government thinks it necessary to continue to devote a certain measure of its capital expenditure to the Soudan, being convinced that by such a policy alone can Egypt hope in due course to be relieved of the charge for an annual subsidy to the Soudanese budget. The soundness of this policy has been proved by the growth in eight years of the Soudan revenue from £E187,500 to £E1,000,000, and the reduction last year of the Egyptian annual subsidy from £E253,000 to £E208,000."

Of two principal public services of the State the Post Office returned a surplus of £E30,418 from a revenue of £E296,636 (as against £E305,956 for 1907), the expenditure having been £E266,218; while the net earnings from the State railways was £E1,611,843, the gross receipts having amounted to £E3,565,040, and the expenditure to £E1,964,000. Assessing the value of the State railways at 25 millions, the year's working gives a net return of 5.4 on the capital.

The expenditure on State buildings completed during 1908 or to be completed during the current year amounts to £E850,000; and a further sum of over £E50,000 was appropriated for repairs. In future the expenditure on new buildings is to be limited to £E200,000. During the year £E15,700 was expended on the restoration and repair of mosques and Arab and Coptic monuments.

This survey of the financial condition of Egypt, prefaced by a preliminary glance backward, may be fittingly concluded by the quotation of the concluding words of Lord Cromer's chapter on "Finance" in the second volume of his "Modern Egypt." He, who has a more intimate knowledge of the subject, gained at first hand and during many years of arduous service as British representative in the country, than any other, says of the work done in the financial field since Great Britain undertook the thankless and enormously difficult task of reforming the administration of Egypt: "The British and Egyptian financiers arrested bankruptcy, turned a deficit into a surplus, relieved taxation, increased the revenue, controlled the expenditure, and raised Egyptian credit to a level only second to that of France and England. All the other reforms which were effected flow from this one fact, that the financial administration of Egypt has been honest, and that the country, being by nature endowed with great recuperative power, and being inhabited by an industrious population, responded to the honesty of its rulers. 'It may be doubted whether in any other country such a remarkable transformation has been made in so short a time."

THE SOUDAN.

The financial position of the Soudan cannot, as Sir Eldon Gorst most truly says, be regarded as satisfactory. While large capital expenditure is urgently required for developing this country but so recently snatched from savagery, the only source from which any money for the purpose is obtainable is the Egyptian Treasury. As has been shown in the review above of the Egyptian Reserve Fund, the advance of £E380,000 to the Soudan has been authorised. This sum is allocated as follows:—Extension of railway south of Khartoum, £E75,000; improvement of existing railways, £E50,000; commencement of construction of White Nile Bridge, £E55,000; educational buildings, £E20,000; completion of Port Soudan town and harbour, £E180,000. Apart from this assistance from its neighbour, the Soudan possesses a small Reserve Fund of its own which, with the surplus on revenue account for 1908 included, amounts to £E131,500. During the present year it is proposed to expend £E111,000 of this sum in various works and services, leaving the small balance of £E20,000 for unforseen contingencies. It is evident that things have to be cut fine in this country where there is so much requiring to be done and so very little means for doing it. One of the most urgent requirements of the country is the continuation of the railway south through the Gezireh district so that the irrigation of this part may be carried out and agriculture on a large scale instituted. But the eternal want of pence that ever vexes public men stands in the way of this as well as other much needed improvements in the Soudan.

In 1908 the annual revenue did not meet the ordinary expenditure, the figures (as given "approximately" in the official report) are as follows:—

	£E.
Revenue	969,000
Expenditure	1,207,000
Deficit	238,000

How comes it, then, that there was a "surplus" of £E15,000 carried to the Reserve Fund, as stated above? The fact is that the annual subvention from the Egyptian Treasury is not taken into account in the above figures. This contribution amounted in 1908 to £E253,000, thus converting the deficit above into a surplus. "It seems clear," says Sir Eldon Gorst in his annual report for 1908 on Egypt and the Soudan, "that a long period must elapse before the ordinary revenue of the country will be sufficient for its annual needs, quite apart from the fact that large capital expenditure is necessary if the resources of the Soudan are to be developed." The principal heads of revenue are: Railways, total £E322,000 in 1908; steamer service, £E124,200 in 1908; land tax, £E99,100 in 1908; and customs, £E70,000 in 1908. The posts and telegraph receipts for the year amounted to £E47,000; while £E28,500 was collected on account of animal tax and £E19,000 on account of date tree tax.

The estimates for the current year (1909) are:—

	£E.
Revenue	1,014,000
Contribution by the Egyptian Government	208,000
	1,222,000
Expenditure...	1,222,000

So again the subvention from Egypt will be relied upon to bridge the gap between the revenue and expenditure, allowing an exceedingly nice equilibrium to be preserved. The one satisfactory element in the situation—and it is one that may be relied upon in time to effect better annual adjustments and to secure to the country the due fruits of the future development of its large natural resources—is that the government of the country is in safe and capable British hands, and the as yet slender resources of the Soudan budget are being employed to the very best advantage in providing for the needs of an administrative system yearly advancing with the growth of the people in civilisation and enlightenment.

BANKING.

In a review upon banking it is not out of place to consider what part preceding generations have played in the development of that science. In the science of economics, from which our modern banking system has evolved, European genius has triumphed, but it were ungrateful if the Occident failed to recognise how greatly the Orient, through Semitic and Mahomedan influences, contributed to that triumph. It is a pity that we are not able to arrive at a pre-Byzantine record of banking in Egypt, but there appears to have been a religious reluctance on the part of the ancients to commit to writing their knowledge of a subject of which they were undoubtedly well acquainted.

It is not improbable that with all the facts before us we could readily trace the principles underlying our present financial system back to Hindu origin. We do know that the Phœnicians, who were the conceptors of maritime commerce, children of Ham and Shem, had systematised their institutions, and that the trading houses of Tyre and Sidon had extended their influence to far distant countries; and there is no reason to doubt that Egypt, with Northern Africa generally, came under their influence. Extensive commerce presupposes some form of banking facilities, and it may well be that the Phœnicians, enjoying in their day a monopoly of the carrying trade, and becoming familiar with the multifarious currencies and mediums of exchange in the then known world, developed a financial system of some intricacy. The influence of Mahomedans (who derived their ideas from Babylonia) upon Europe may be traced through the governments which arose in Northern Africa. In the eleventh century there was great prosperity in Africa owing to the trade in grain, sugar, and oil, to the manufacture of wool and silk, and to the dealings in Soudan products; and though we can trace no records of the fact, it is reasonable to suppose that Cairo, being one of the few important trading centres of that day, must have had a comparatively well-defined banking system. Down to the present day it is said that nearly every one in Egypt is a money-lender; and, allowing for the elasticity of Eastern phraseology, the truth underlying the statement is evidenced by the number of private banks which exist. Before these were established, merchants used to send groups of gold and silver to European and other markets in exchange for merchandise. It is thus that Antonio speaks of "my argosies."

Early in the nineteenth century, the commerce of Egypt was small, and was confined to trade with France, Italy, and the Levant; and its subsequent expansion owed much to the stimulus given to it by the founders of such influential private banking houses as those of the Suares, Cattaui, and Menasce families.

The oldest public bank in Egypt is the Bank of Egypt, Ltd., which was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1856. It was followed by the Anglo-Egyptian Bank, the Imperial Ottoman Bank, the Crédit Lyonnais, the Industrial Bank (which, with the Cassa di Sconto, failed in the 1906–7 financial crisis), and the National Bank. Within the last four or five years, however, a number of banks — far more than the increase of business has justified— have sprung into existence, and at the present day there are five and twenty, if not more, financial institutions of various kinds operating in Egypt. In addition to those mentioned above, the more important include the Agricultural Bank, the Banco di Roma, the Bank of Abyssinia, the Banque d'Athenes, the Banque du Caire, the Banque d'Escompte et de Reports d'Egypte et du Soudan, the Banque d'Orient, the Caisse Hypothecaire d'Egypte, the Commercial Loans Bank and Warehouses (Egypt), Ltd., the Comptoir Financier et Commercial d'Egypte, the Comptoir National Escompte de Paris, the Credit Franco-Egyptien, the Credit Foncier Egyptien, the Deutsche Orientbank, the Ionian Bank, Ltd., the Land Bank of Egypt, the Land Mortgage Company of Egypt, Ltd., the New Mortgage Bank of Egypt, the Omnium Financier d'Egypte, Ltd., the Banque Egyptien de Commerce, the Société Anonyme des Monts de Piete Egyptiens, and the Société Générale Egyptienne pour l'Agricole et le Commerce. Some of these, as their names imply, are mortgage banks; and many of them were created solely for the purpose of carrying on land and stock operations during the recent boom. The latter, with many unenumerated, were sorely pressed when the crash came, and the next year or two will undoubtedly see a great diminution in their number, leaving the banking business of the country in the hands of the old-established houses who enjoy the confidence of the landed proprietors. The aggravating feature of the crisis was, indeed, that of the banking circle of many of the Jewish houses who control the Manchester goods trade in the Mousky. They succeeded in securing large credits, both secured and unsecured, from the various banks, and engaged extensively in the exchange of drafts, thus accruing to themselves large amounts of floating capital, which in many cases were diverted into purely speculative channels. While the fever was at its height, over-speculation, or, to speak more plainly, gambling in property and shares, was rife; the price of land was in some instances forced up to figures exceeding those for building lots in Regent Street; and in the end the buyers were found to be men of straw, paying an instalment of the purchase money to-day for the purpose of selling to-morrow. The panic commenced, the closing of the Cassa di Sconto sounding almost the first note of alarm; people rushed into the market to sell; the sound banks, following the invariable rule, at once contracted their credit; and many of the mushroom financiers, some of them with as much as £60,000 worth of credit, were unable to meet their engagements.

There is a great difference between the banking of to-day and that which was carried on in Egypt prior to the British Occupation. Then the business of local financial institutions, both public and private, consisted largely in satisfying the capricious demands of rulers and high Government officials, to say nothing of the Government itself, for the wherewithal to play the fascinating game of "ducks and drakes." Nowadays, the whole tone of banking has improved. Business is conducted more and more upon European lines; there is more real banking and less speculation. The country is settled; its wealth has been enormously increased owing to the development of its agricultural resources by companies formed with European capital; and as a result the banks advance capital with more confidence, knowing exactly where they are as regards security. The deposit business, again, has increased largely as compared with that in the early eighties, when a bank with deposits for £10,000 considered itself unusually fortunate.

One of the most important functions of the local financial institutions is the importation of gold in the autumn for the purpose of negotiating the cotton crop. The fellaheen know nothing of credit, and insist on payment in specie for their crops, with the result that the banks' reserves are liable to be rapidly depleted, and a temporary monetary crisis to be brought about. Sometimes as much as from eight to nine millions sterling have to be imported during the season to meet the requirements of cotton growers and exporters. It is noticeable, however, that the import of specie is usually largely in excess of the subsequent export; and it is certain that large quantities of gold must be hoarded in the country. In the last annual report written by Lord Cromer, he mentioned on good authority a case of a wealthy Egyptian who died leaving the whole of his fortune, £80,000, stored in gold in his house. This custom had its origin in the days when there was neither law nor order in the country, and the indigene was deprived of his land and other belongings without hope of redress. The case cited by Lord Cromer is evidence that the distrust engendered in bygone years of oppression still lingers; but, thanks largely to the establishment of the National Bank, and its offspring, the Agricultural Bank, there is a growing development of confidence in the banking institutions.

It is with the mortgage banks that the fellaheen have the most extensive dealings. The Agricultural Bank, from its official character, naturally takes a leading place among institutions of this class; while another important concern of the kind is the Crédit Foncier Egyptien. During the recent crisis, the Crédit Foncier reached the limit of their advances, and as Egypt had up till that time depended chiefly upon the Paris market for the placing of mortgage bonds, many of the agriculturists suffered greatly in consequence. A number of influential men in Cairo petitioned Government for a loan of two millions to ease the position, but the Government said they saw no reason why they should interfere in the matter; and, in default of this help, Sir Ernest Cassel has founded within the last year or so a concern known as the New Mortgage Bank of Egypt, the object being not to compete with the Crédit Foncier in any way, but to interest the London market in the placing of future issues of mortgage bonds. According to a statement made in May, 1908, the debt of Egypt on mortgage could at that time be valued at £40,000,000 sterling, of which about £8,000,000 represented advances on urban property. Taking the cultivated area of Egypt at about 5,500,000 acres, of an estimated minimum value of £320,000,000, the debt of £32,000,000 represented only 10 per cent. of the value of the whole of the land—a proportion which is about equal to that which obtains in France, the most favoured country in this respect in Europe and America. In other words, for every £100 value of land that might be put on sale, Egypt had at that date £900 value free from any encumbrance. The mortgage banks advance about 60 per cent. on the estimated value of cultivable land, but not more than 50 per cent. on built land. The periods range from ten to fifty years, and interest is charged at the rate of from 6 to 8 per cent. The advantage of this low rate

of interest is often, however, reaped by middle men, though the banks are now so extending their business as to come into more direct contact with the native land holders.

There is also much movement of gold at the time Government begins to cast the taxes in Lower Egypt. A certain proportion of these taxes is a'located to the Caisse de la Dette Publique to ensure the service of the public debt. Formerly the money was collected by the Government in the interior, and was forwarded to the Caisse at Alexandria, with the result that sovereigns were withdrawn from circulation, and had to be replaced at once by gold imported from abroad in order that business in the provinces might not be disorganised. Now, however, arrangements are made by which the money is paid into various branches of the National Bank; the National Bank credits the receipts to the Crédit Lyonnais, the bankers for the Caisse de la Dette Publique; and the Crédit Lyonnais in turn collects the Customs receipts and credits them to the National Bank. By this means the transport of gold — an expensive and tedious business—is obviated, and a great economy is effected by the substitution of a cheaper (credit) currency for the dearer (metallic) currency.

The currency of Egypt consists of gold, silver, nickel and bronze, together with notes issued under authority by the National Bank. The Egyptian monetary system is on a gold mono-metallic basis, the unit being the Egyptian pound, which is divided into 100 piastres. As a matter of fact, however, Egyptian gold coins have not been minted for many years, and few remain in circulation. Their place is taken by English sovereigns, French napoleons, and Turkish pounds, the mean par values and fixed rates of exchange of the coins being as follows:—

	Mean par value. Piastres.	Legal tariff rate. Piastres.
Sovereign...	... 98·45	... 97·50
Napoleon...	... 78·07	... 77·15
Turkish pound	... 88·94	... 87·75

It will thus be seen that all three coins are undervalued at the legal tariff rate, but whilst the differentiation against the sovereign is less than 1 per cent., that against the French and Turkish coins amounts to about 1½ and 1¾ respectively. It is owing to this discrimination that the currency of Egypt consists almost exclusively of the British sovereign. As Mr. L. G. Roussin points out in his memorandum on the movement of the currency:—"It is only when the exchange value of the pound sterling in francs rises sufficiently far above the mean par value to compensate between the difference of the legal tariffs that it becomes feasible to import 20-franc pieces into Egypt at the same profit as sovereigns, and only then if the conditions of the Paris market permit of the obtaining of gold for export without a premium or other extra charge." He further states that "the preponderance of the British coin is further strengthened by the comparative ease with which sovereigns can be obtained from the London money market." Egypt's dependence upon London for the stability of its local money market is the source of its strength; for supplies which are neccessary to supplement the amount normally in circulation for the purpose of moving the cotton crop can be obtained at a week's notice from London. If the gold currency consisted of Egyptian coins only, fresh imports would be needed every autumn as at present, but the coin or bullion imported would need to be coined into Egyptian money before it could be used, and it would be necessary to keep larger reserves in the country than under the present system. A certain portion of the extra currency required during the cotton season remains in circulation or is hoarded; the remainder is returned, the surplus gold being re-exported, and the surplus silver remaining in the Government treasury. The sums retained are far larger than would be required for circulating purposes by the normal rate of increase of population. This excess is explained chiefly by the stimulus given to commercial activity by profitable cotton seasons, coupled with the comparatively slow progress of the credit system, and partly by the predilection already alluded to on the part of the native for hoarding his gains. It has been definitely ascertained that large quantities of gold coins are melted down and converted into ornaments by the native goldsmiths.

The silver coins are 20, 10, 5, 2, and 1-piastre pieces, the nickel are 1-piastre, 5-millième, 2-millième, and 1-millième pieces, and the bronze coins are the millième and half-millième pieces.

The notes in circulation are for £E100, £E50, £E10, £E5, £E1, and P50.

Cheques find comparatively little favour in Egypt. As on the Continent gold and notes are chiefly used, and the number of cheques drawn upon a local bank is small compared with what would be drawn upon a London bank of the same size. So far as it may be said to have any existence at all, the local law on cheques and other instruments of credit is similar to that which rules on the Continent in regard to bills of exchange, approaching most nearly the Napoleonic code. In the case of English clients dealing with banks registered under English law, however, the Bills of Exchange Act of 1882 would come into operation. Pass books are optional, though many people desire them. Cheques are not returned, but are kept in the banks' strong-rooms for fifteen years before being destroyed.

Frauds upon local banks have been comparatively rare, and only one or two minor forgeries are on record. Counterfeiting is rarely attempted; sweating gold being the most common method of tampering with the currency. A number of sovereigns are shaken in a chamois leather bag, and the bag is then placed in a crucible; or, as an alternative process, the coins are treated with acids. Sometimes as much as half-a-crown's worth of gold is taken from each coin, and the passing of the base sovereigns is effected by placing them amongst others of full weight.

BANK OF EGYPT, LIMITED.

THIS important financial institution, which has its headquarters in London (at Egypt House, New Broad Street, E.C.), and is a British Corporation with a wholly British Directorate, attained the twenty-second year of its existence under its present title in February, 1909, having been established in 1886 to take over the business of the Chartered Bank of Egypt, which was founded fifty-four years ago.

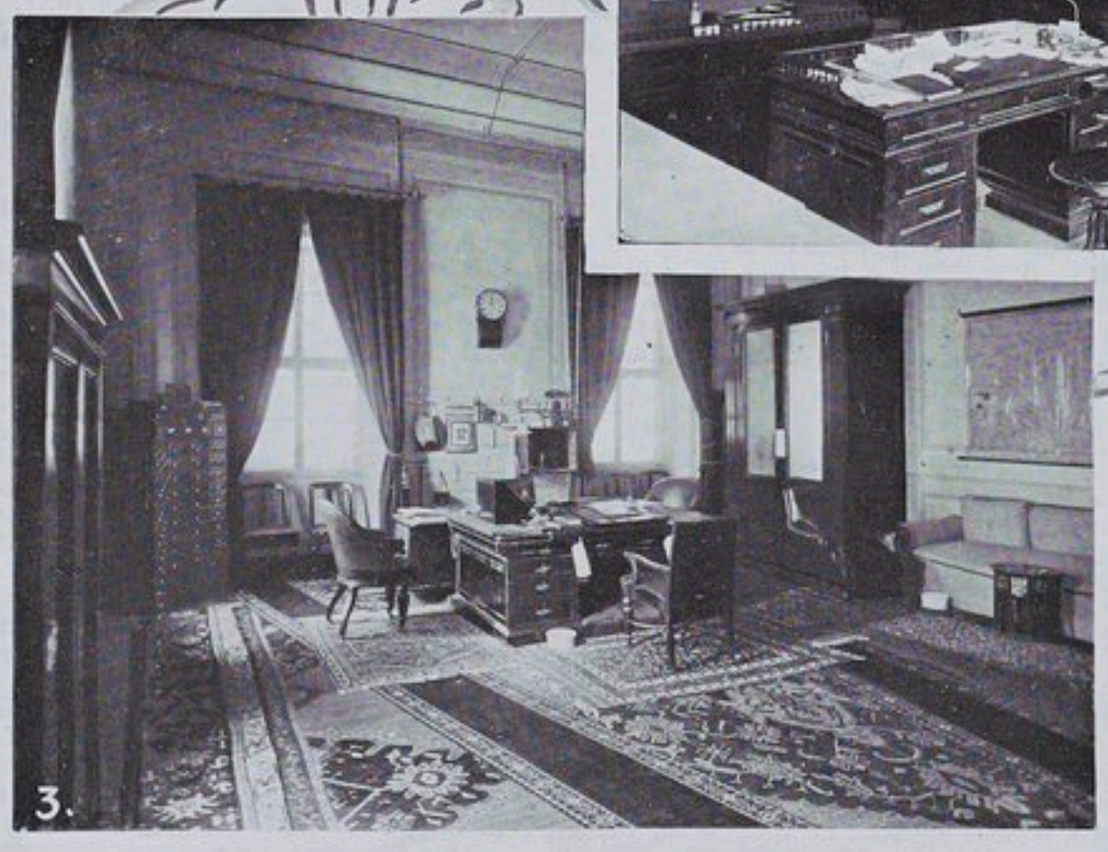
The head office in Egypt is at Alexandria, where is the seat of management; and there are branches at Cairo, Port Said, and Khartoum, besides agencies at Mansourah, Tantah, Zagazig, Fayoum, Beni Souef, Minieh, Assouan, Suakin, Suez, Damanhour, Girgeh, Chebin-el-Kom, Esneh, Luxor, and Tahta. It carries on the ordinary business of banking, a principal feature of which is advances to traders and to cultivators against their produce, cotton being the principal commodity dealt with. The authorised capital is £1,500,000, in 60,000 shares, of which number 10,000 remain unissued. On the old issue of 40,000 shares, one half (£12 10s. each) was paid up, realising £500,000; and in 1908 a further issue of 10,000 shares (making 50,000 issued in all) was made at £29 each, being at a premium of £16 10s. (on the share price paid up of £12 10s.). The amount of the premium on this fresh issue, amounting to £165,000 (less £5,146 for expenses of issue) has been placed to reserve, leaving £125,000 to be added to Capital Paid Up, which now consequently stands at £625,000. This reserve, with the addition of the premium on the new issue, and a small make-up sum of £145 from ordinary profits, now amounts to £660,000. "This reserve," said the Chairman of Directors, at the annual meeting of shareholders held on February 25, 1909, "is all invested in first class securities, which, if realised at the present moment, would show a profit of £9,000 over the costs of the securities as they stand in our books." The investments in Government and other securities are shown in the Balance Sheet for 1908 to total £656,432. The gross income from business during the year 1908 amounted to £147,253, and the expenses and charges to £39,228, leaving a net profit of £108,025. Adding to this last figure the balance brought forward from the previous year—a sum of £38,477—there was a total of £146,502 available for appropriation. This result admitted of payment of a dividend for the year at the rate of 10 per cent. together with a bonus of 7 per cent., or a distribution in all of 17 per cent. to the shareholders. A sum of £4,840 was written off the value of the bank premises in Egypt; and £48,392 was carried forward to the next accounts.

On the assets of the Balance Sheet for December 31, 1908, the current and other accounts are set down at a total of over two and a half millions sterling, an increase for the year of £425,000, and at the annual meeting in February, 1909, the Chairman of Directors explained that special inquiries recently made in Egypt had shown that there was no reason for nervousness regarding the advances made, especially in view of the large reserve. He also explained that the decrease in net profit for 1908, amounting to £27,000 compared with the figure for the previous year, was due to the effects of the financial crisis in Egypt in 1907, and the decline in the cotton and maize crops. The depression was, however, now lifting, and the general trade prospects of the country were more hopeful. The premises in Egypt are valued at £58,000, after deducting the £4,840 written off; and on December 31 the total of bills payable was £1,886,000, an increase of £401,000 for the year. Bills receivable amounted to £891,965; while the cash in hand was £48,088. From these figures it would appear that the bank is in a thoroughly sound position; and in this connection it may be mentioned that in January, 1909, the price of the shares stood at £36. The bank suffered a severe loss by the death, in February, 1909, of H. E. Augusto Luzzato Pasha, who had for a long period filled the responsible position of its General Manager in Egypt.

The Directors are:—Lord Rathmore, Mr. George T. Biddulph, Hon. S. Carr Glyn, Lord Grenfell, G.C.B., Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff, K.C.M.G., Mr. Robert L. Barclay, and the Manager and Secretary is Mr. Arthur Nichols.







BANK OF EGYPT.

1. Premises in Rue Tewfik.
2. Interior.
3. Director's Private Office.

H.E. AUGUSTO LUZZATTO PASHA, General Manager of the Bank of Egypt, has been associated with the Bank for upwards of fifty years. He was articled as a clerk at the Cairo branch in 1858, after having spent a short time in the office of a broker and commission agent. He became chief clerk, and eventually, in 1870, manager of the Cairo branch, and was then transferred to Alexandria, where he held the position of manager from 1882 until his appointment as General Manager in Egypt in 1890. He has since represented the Bank's interest as a Director on the boards of the Société Générale de Pressage, the Egyptian Land Investment Company, and the Soudan Development Company. For his many and valuable services to the financial interests of the country he received from the Khedive the rank of Pasha. He has been created a Commander of the Order of Osmanieh, a Grand Officer of the Order of Mejidieh, and a Chevalier of the Order of Francis-Joseph, and has been decorated with the Grand Cordon of the Star of Persia. Mr. Luzzatto, a native of Gradiska, Austria, was born in 1844, and came to Egypt when quite a boy. [Since this work went to press, the death has occurred of H.E. Augusto Luzzatto Pasha. —ED.]

S.E. AUGUSTO LUZZATTO PACHA, Directeur Général de la Bank of Egypt, a été attaché à cet établissement pendant plus de cinquante ans. Il fut engagé comme employé à l'Agence du Caire en 1858, après avoir passé quelque temps dans les bureaux d'un courtier et agent de change. Il devint Chef de Service, puis en 1870, Directeur de l'Agence du Caire : il fut ensuite transféré à Alexandrie où il occupa les fonctions de Directeur depuis 1882 jusqu'au jour de sa nomination au poste de Directeur Général des Agences d'Egypte, en 1898. Il a depuis représenté les intérêts de la Banque, comme Administrateur, dans les Conseils de la Société Générale de Pressage, de The Egyptian Land Investment Company, et de The Soudan Development Company. Pour les nombreux et éminents services qu'il a rendus aux intérêts financiers du pays, le Khédive lui a conféré en 1906 le titre de Pacha. Il fut créé Commandeur de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh, Grand Officier de l'Ordre du Méjidieh, Chevalier de l'Ordre de François-Joseph, et décoré du Grand Cordon de l'Etoile de Perse. M. Luzzatto naquit à Gradiska (Autriche) en 1844, et vint tout jeune en Egypte. [Depuis cet ouvrage mit sous presse, on a rapporté le mort de S.E. Augusto Luzzatto Pacha.—ED.]

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN BANK, LTD.

WITH one exception the Anglo-Egyptian Bank, Ltd., is the oldest banking institution in the country, for it was established in 1864. It has a subscribed capital of £1,500,000, of which £500,000 has been paid up, and it has reserve funds amounting to £600,000. The bank has been exceedingly prosperous, and even during the period of depression of 1907–8 it maintained its dividend at the rate of 15 per cent. For the financial year ended August 31, 1908, the gross profits amounted to £178,437 7*s.* 8*d.* After deducting £73,225 11*s.* 7*d.* for expenses, there remained a net profit of £105,211 16*s.* 1*d.*, to which amount must be added £35,000, the balance carried forward on August 31, 1907, making £140,211 16*s.* 1*d.* in all. Out of this a total distribution of 15 per cent. was made to the shareholders after passing £10,000 to reserve, £10,000 to the pension fund, and carrying forward £43,000.

The head offices of the bank are in London, and there are branches in Paris, Gibraltar, Malta, Alexandria, Cairo, Port Said, Tantah, and Mansourah. Every description of banking business is transacted—current accounts are opened ; fixed deposits bearing interest at 3 per cent. per annum are accepted ; letters of credit, drafts, and telegraphic transfers are issued, payable in all parts of the world ; bills are discounted and bills of exchange negotiated ; and stock and shares are purchased and sold on the London Stock Exchange and on the local and Continental bourses.

The directorate comprises Messrs. H. A. Richardson (chairman), Ivor Bevan, R. H. Foà, J. Howard Gwyther, A. Richardson, and T. Usborne. The London manager is Mr. H. R. Coombs, and the secretary is Mr. Geo. H. Soul.

The Cairo premises are situated in the Rue Kasr-el-Nil, and are the bank's own property. The manager is Mr. S. R. Cookson ; the sub-manager, Mr. F. N. Walton, and the chief accountant, Mr. W. B. Delany. Altogether some eighty persons are employed on the Cairo staff.

Mr. Cookson has been in the service of the bank since 1884, and has had charge of the Cairo branch for seventeen years. He was born at Dullington, Northamptonshire, in December, 1865, and was educated at Clifton College. He is a fluent linguist. In 1893 he married Edith Mary, daughter of the late Joseph Haselden, a former merchant of Alexandria. He is a member of the Turf and Khedivial Sporting Clubs, his chief recreations being tennis, cricket, and racquets.

BANK OF ATHENS.

DURING the fifteen years of its existence the Bank of Athens has played an important part in the development of commerce between Greece and other countries, and its success is sufficiently indicated by the fact that its capital, which was originally two and three-quarter million drachmae, is now forty millions, while the reserve fund amounts to nearly nine millions.

The operations of the bank were extended to Egypt in September, 1897, when Mr. Jean G. Pasmazoglou, at that time the managing director, opened a branch in Alexandria. Branches were established in Cairo in November, 1905, and in Khartoum in June, 1907. The bank undertakes all kinds of banking business in Egypt and the Soudan, especially that of making advances upon consignments of cotton, cotton-seed, tobacco, &c. Interest on cash deposits is paid at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum at sight, 3½ per cent. per annum for six months, 4 per cent. per annum for twelve months, and 5 per cent. per annum for two years. In order to facilitate and encourage thrift amongst the working classes, the bank accepts daily deposits of from 20 piastres upwards, and for this purpose it has established a special service, open on Sundays from 10 a.m. till noon, at its branches in Egypt. Interest on these deposits is paid at the rate of 4 per cent.

The Alexandria branch is situated in the Rue Tewfik The manager, who is also general manager for Egypt and the Soudan, is Mr. Jean Joannides, who, in May, 1900, succeeded Mr. Ph. Photiadis, now manager of the London office. The sub-manager is Mr. C. Balanos. Mr. P. G. Schisas, assisted by Mr. P. Hager as sub-manager, has charge of the Cairo branch, which is situated in the Chareh el Maghrabi ; whilst Mr. D. Zacchiri is the sub-manager of the Khartoum branch.

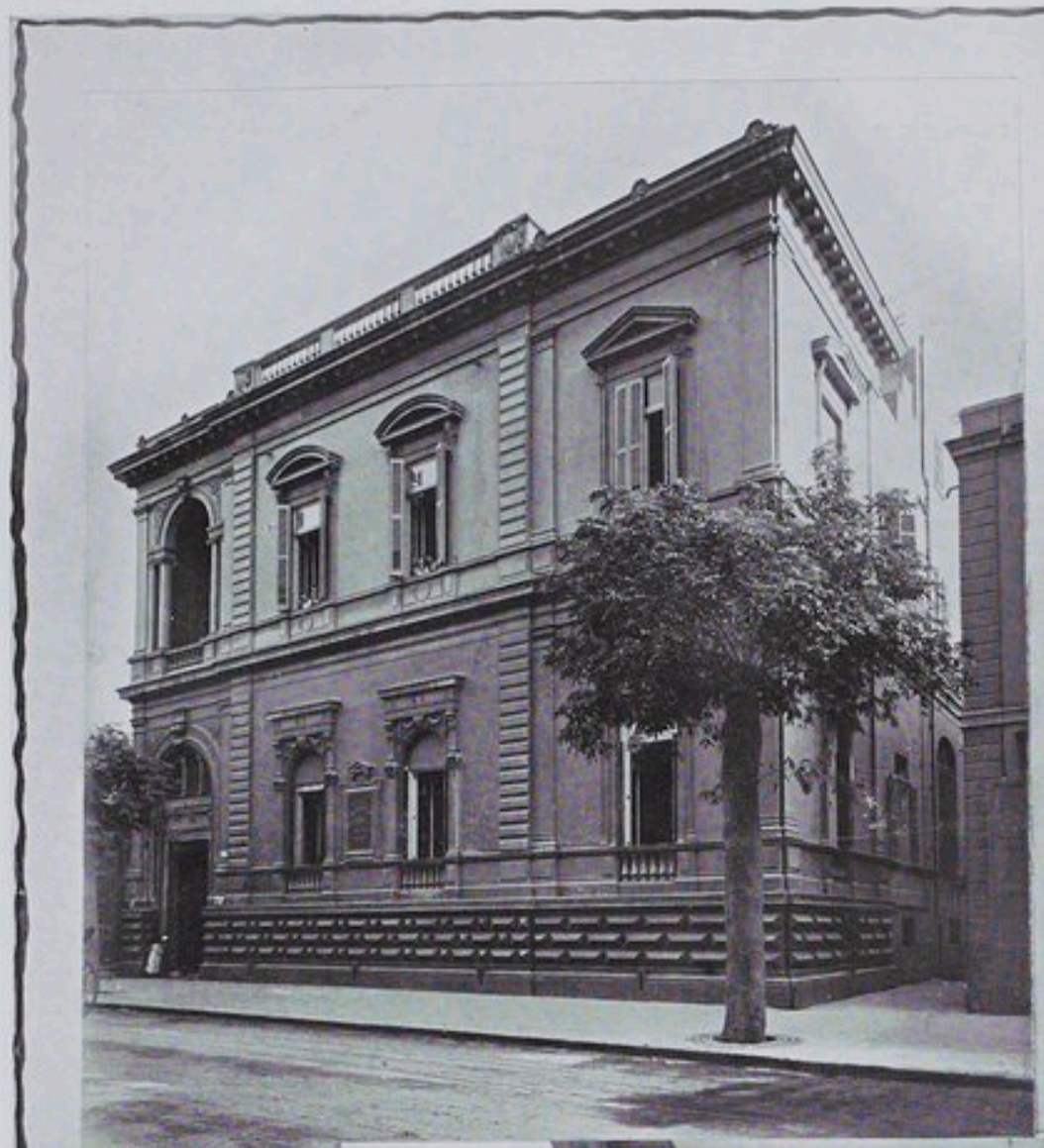
PENDANT les quinze années de son existence la Banque d'Athènes a pris une part importante dans le développement du commerce entre la Grèce et l'Egypte, et son succès est suffisamment prouvé par le fait que son capital, qui à l'origine était de Dr. 2.750.000 est actuellement de 40.000.000 de Drachmes, alors que le fonds de réserve se monte à environ neuf millions.

La Banque commença ses opérations en Egypte en Septembre 1897 en ouvrant une Agence à Alexandrie, avec M. Jean G. Pasmazoglou comme Directeur. De nouvelles succursales furent installées au Caire, en Novembre 1905 et à Khartoum, en Juin 1907. L'établissement entreprend toutes les affaires de banque en Egypte et au Soudan, et s'occupe principalement des avances sur consignation de coton, graines de coton, tabacs, etc. Les intérêts bonifiés sur les dépôts sont calculés ainsi qu'il suit : 3 pour cent pour les dépôts à vue ; 3½ pour cent pour les dépôts exigibles au bout de six mois ; 4 pour cent pour les dépôts exigibles au bout d'un an ; 5 pour cent pour les depôts exigibles au bout de deux ans. Afin de faciliter et encourager l'épargne parmi la classe ouvrière, la Banque accepte des dépôts à partir de 20 piastres tarif, et pour la commodité de sa clientèle, elle a installé un service spécial qui fonctionne le Dimanche de 10 heures à midi, dans toutes ses succursales égyptiennes. Ces dépôts sont productifs d'intérêts à 4 pour cent l'an.

L'Agence d'Alexandrie est installée dans la rue Tewfick. Le Directeur qui cumule avec ses fonctions celles de Directeur Général pour l'Egypte et le Soudan, est M. Jean Joannides, qui, en Mai 1900 succéda à M. Ph. Photiadis, actuellement Directeur de l'Agence de Londres. Le Sous-Directeur est M. C. Balanos. M. P. G. Schisas, assisté par M. P. Hager comme Sous-Directeur, est chargé de l'Agence du Caire, dont les bureaux sont situés rue el Maghrabi. M. D. Zacchiri est le Sous-Directeur de l'Agence de Khartoum.

AGRICULTURAL BANK OF EGYPT.

THE question of the indebtedness of the fellaheen of Egypt has long exercised the minds of the officials of the country. For some time it was debated whether the Government should step in to remedy the abuses that existed or whether it would be sounder to encourage private enterprise in this direction. In 1896 the Government decided as a temporary measure to advance £E10,000 in small sums. The result of this experiment was sufficiently encouraging to indicate the probability of a similar project proving a remunerative investment for any private capital that could be attracted to it, and in 1898 the National Bank of Egypt was formed, one of the main reasons that influenced the Government in granting the concession for the bank being an engagement on the part of the promoters to make a serious attempt to cope with this question. The great difficulty in the way of any private establishment lay in the costliness of the machinery which would be necessary for the collection of the capital and interest as they fell due. This was overcome by the Government consenting to allow its tax collectors to collect the sums due to the bank at a commission of ½ per cent. It was arranged that the amount payable by each person should be entered in his "wird," or tax paper. Every borrower bound himself to meet his indebtedness to the bank before paying the Government tax, and the tax collectors were instructed to credit the bank with the first sums received by them from any fellah who should have borrowed from it. The Government further instructed the tax collectors to furnish to the bank on application a certificate



1



2

THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN BANK, CAIRO.



THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN BANK, LIMITED.

1. Alexandria Office. 2. The Banking Hall. 3. Manager's Office.

showing the area of land for which each applicant for a loan was registered in the land registers, and whether the land in question was already burdened by a mortgage or other charges.

A commencement was made in April, 1899, in the district of Belbeis in Lower Egypt. Although it was intended to set aside only £E10,000 for the first year's work the people showed themselves so ready to take advantage of the cheaper money offered to them that in nine months a sum of £E31,500 was advanced, of which £E4,780 was in respect of 1,580 short loans on note of hand only, while £E26,720 was for 870 longer loans against first mortgages on land to the value of at least twice the amount of the sum advanced, which was repayable in five yearly instalments. In the following year the operations were extended to nine other districts, and a sum of £E137,781 was lent out, while in 1901 the whole of Lower Egypt was embraced in the scheme. By the end of that year the sum advanced had reached a total of £E402,000, and it was felt that the bank could not be expected to devote any more of its capital to such an undertaking. In the beginning of 1902 the difficulty was met temporarily by a Government advance of £E250,000 to the Bank at a moderate rate of interest under the guarantee of Sir Ernest Cassel. It was expressly stipulated that the money must be employed solely for the Fellaheen loans.

By this time it had been seen what large scope there was for making these advances, and a careful study of the question led to the formation of the Agricultural Bank of Egypt. The Khedivial Decree was signed on May 17, 1902, and the Bank actually commenced operations on June 2 of the same year. The new Bank took over all the business in fellaheen loans transacted by the National Bank of Egypt and enjoyed the same Government assistance as had been furnished to the Fellaheen Loans Department of the National Bank of Egypt. Operations were at once commenced extending to every part of the country. The original capital was £2,500,000 sterling. Of this £1,240,000 sterling was in ordinary shares and £10,000 sterling in deferred shares, authority being given to issue the balance in preference shares of debentures. The deferred shares were allotted entirely to the National Bank of Egypt and to Sir Ernest Cassel in consideration of their participation in the pioneer work and the risks which they had taken. The Government agreed to guarantee the capital employed in the advances to fellaheen and the interest on the same at the rate of 3 per cent. per annum on the following terms :—

"If, at the end of any one of the financial years of the Bank during the fifty years of the concession, the interest recovered during the year in addition to the sum recovered on the loans or instalments in arrears during previous years should not be sufficient (1) to cover the working expenses of the year and the amount of the loans or instalments falling due in but not paid during the year, and (2) to leave a net profit of 3 per cent. on the capital employed in advances to the fellaheen—the necessary sum to complete these amounts shall be drawn from the Reserve Fund, and should the Reserve Fund be insufficient for this purpose the Government will pay to the Bank a subvention of the further sum necessary for this purpose. All sums thus paid by the Government and withdrawn from the reserve shall be repaid, first to the Government and then to the Reserve, out of the sums afterwards collected on account of the arrears of loans and instalments falling due during that year for which the supplementary contributions have been made."

It should be explained that the Reserve Fund is formed by an annual percentage of the interest actually recovered. The rate at which the business of the Bank has increased may be seen from the following table :—

	Amount of loans issued. £E
1902 (June to December)...	695,585
1903...	1,649,789
1904...	2,434,871
1905...	2,864,515
1906...	3,466,736
1907...	1,526,260

The falling off in 1907 was due to intentional restriction of output by the Bank, owing to the unfavourable state of the money market for the placing of bonds. To cope with its growing business the capital of the Bank was first increased to £5,000,000 sterling, and later to £10,310,000 sterling. The authorised capital is now fully paid up, and consists of £2,480,000 sterling in ordinary shares of £5 each ; £10,000 sterling in deferred shares of £5 each ; £1,250,000 sterling in 4 per cent. deferred shares of £10 each ; and £6,570,000 sterling in 3½ per cent. debentures. Of the debentures £4,220,000 sterling are directly guaranteed with interest at 3½ per cent. by the Government. Previous to the foundation of the Agricultural Bank it had been found that five years was in many cases too short a period in which to expect a fellah to pay off the capital and interest of his loan, so the limit was extended to ten years. It has since been again increased to twenty years, but the majority of borrowers (65 per cent.) elect to repay in ten years. The amounts for which the short loans are made are from £E½ to £E20. The long loans guaranteed by mortgages range from £E10 to £E500. The original rate of interest at which loans were made by the National Bank of Egypt was 9 per cent. On the occasion of obtaining the Government's consent to the increase of its capital from £5,000,000 sterling to £10,310,000 sterling the Bank agreed that whenever the amount of the loans outstanding at the end of a year exceeded £E7,000,000, it would, from the commencement of the succeeding year, lower its rate of interest for all loans, whether new or already existing, to 8 per cent. This came into force on January 1, 1907.

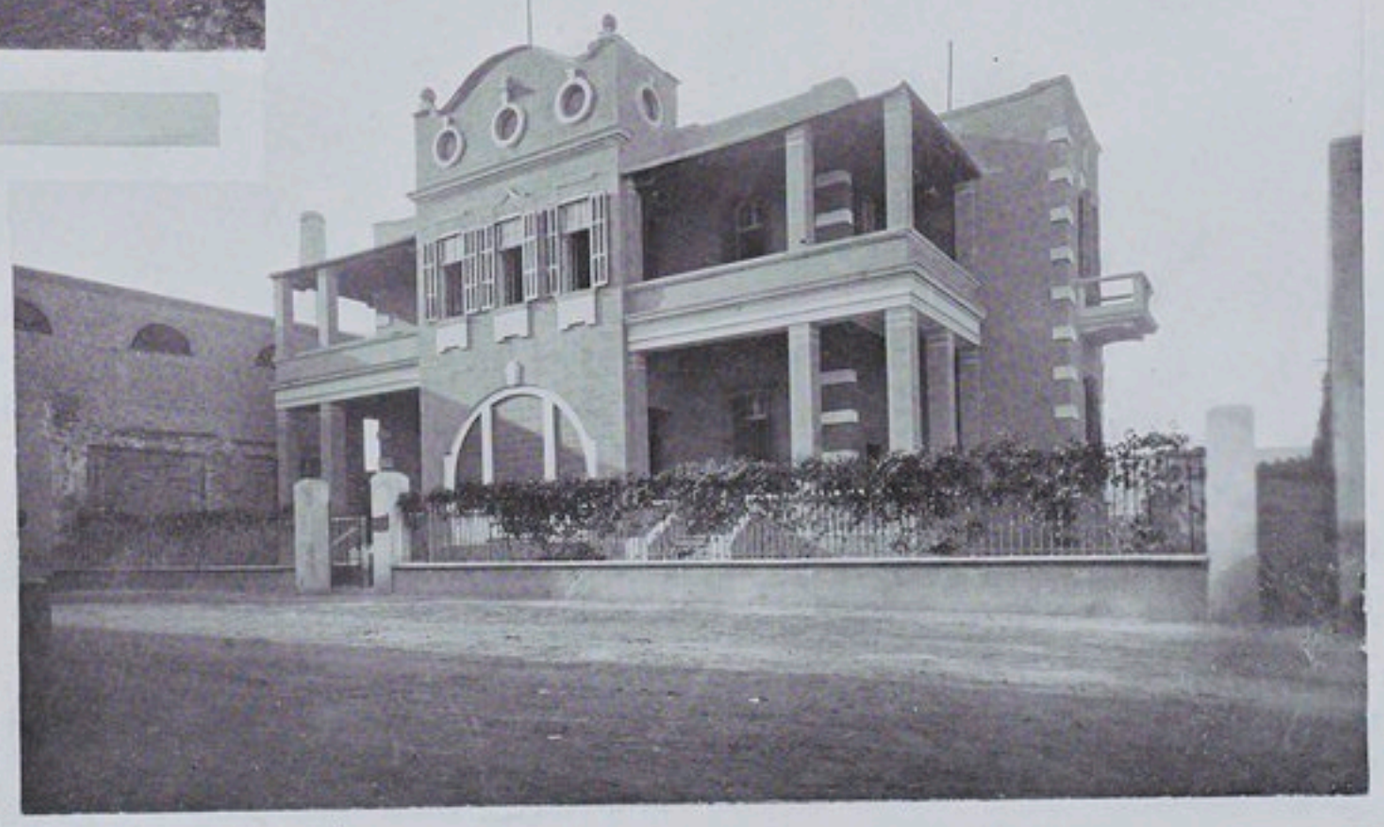
La question du crédit à faire aux fellahs a longuement retenu l'attention des pouvoirs publics. Souvent elle a été discutée, soit que le Gouvernement intervint pour remédier aux abus existants, soit qu'il voulut encourager avec plus de vigueur les entreprises particulières qui se faisaient une spécialité de ces affaires. En 1896, le Gouvernement décidait d'avancer, en tant que mesure temporaire, £E10.000 en toutes petites sommes. Le résultat de cette expérience fut suffisamment encourageant pour prouver qu'une affaire semblable, lancée avec des capitaux privés, donnerait d'excellents résultats. En 1898, la National Bank of Egypt était formée, et une des raisons principales qui influença le Gouvernement, lorsqu'il lui accorda la concession, fut l'engagement donné par les promoteurs de l'affaire de tenter sérieusement de résoudre cette question. La grande difficulté que rencontre un établissement de ce genre, réside dans les dépenses considérables nécessitées par les rouages indispensables à l'encaissement des capitaux prêtés et de leurs intérêts lorsqu'ils viennent à échéance. Cette difficulté fut surmontée, quand le Gouvernement consentit à charger ses percepteurs de recueillir les sommes dues à la Banque par les fellahs, moyennant une commission de ½ pour cent. Il fut entendu que les montants dûs par chaque client, seraient portés sur son "Wird" ou feuille de taxe. Chaque emprunteur s'engageait de son côté à faire face à ses engagements envers la Banque, avant même de payer les impôts gouvernementaux, et les percepteurs reçurent l'ordre de passer au crédit de la National Bank of Egypt, les premières sommes qu'ils recevraient de ceux des fellahs qui avaient un compte avec cet établissement. Le Gouvernement chargea encore les percepteurs de faire parvenir à la Banque, sur sa demande, un certificat indiquant la superficie des terres pour laquelle étaient enregistrés sur le livre des terrains, tous ceux qui sollicitaient un prêt, et qui donnait les renseignements nécessaires sur les terres déjà hypothéquées, ou grévées d'autres charges.

Une première tentative fut faite en Avril, 1899, dans le District de Bilbeis, Basse Egypte. Quoiqu'il eut été arrêté qu'on ne prêterait que £E10.000, durant la première année, les fellahs se montrèrent si disposés à profiter de cet argent qui leur était offert avec des intérêts minimes, que, en neuf mois, une somme de £E31.500 était placée, sur laquelle £E4.780 representaient de courts prêts sur signature, et £E26.720 étaient des prêts à longue échéance, sur première hypothèque de terrains valant au moins deux fois le montant emprunté, prêts remboursables en cinq versements annuels. Pendant l'année suivante, les opérations furent étendues à neuf autres districts, et une somme de £E137.781 fut prêtée. En 1901, la Basse Egypte toute entière était embrassée dans le projet, et à la fin de cette année, le total des sommes avancées atteignit £E402.000. Il était alors de toute évidence qu'il était impossible à la Banque de consacrer à ce genre d'affaire une partie plus importante de son capital. Au commencement de 1902, la difficulté fut tournée temporairement par une avance de £E250,000 faite à la Banque, à un taux modéré, par le Gouvernement Egyptien, avec la garantie de Sir Ernest Cassel. Il était expréssément stipulé que cet argent devrait être exclusivement employé pour des prêts aux fellahs.

A ce moment, on vit quel grand avenir avait devant soi le nouveau système d'avances, et une soigneuse étude de la question conduisit à la fondation de l'Agricultural Bank of Egypt. Le décret khédivial en autorisant la fondation fut signé le 17 Mai 1902, et la Banque actuelle commença ses opérations le 2 Juin de la même année. Le nouvel établissement se substitua à la National Bank of Egypt, en ce qui concerne les prêts consentis aux fellahs, et jouit de la part du Gouvernement d'une assistance semblable à celle qui avait été accordée à celle-ci. Les opérations, immédiatement commencées, s'étendirent à toute l'Egypte. Le capital original était de £2.500.000 dont £1.240.000 en actions ordinaires, et £10.000 en actions de dividende. Pour le solde, il devait être émis des actions privilégiées ou des obligations. Les actions de dividende furent toutes allouées à la National Bank of Egypt et à Sir Ernest Cassel, en reconnaissance de leur participation aux travaux des fondateurs et des risques qu'ils avaient assumés. Le Gouvernement accepta de garantir le capital employé en avances aux fellahs, ainsi que les intérêts à 3 pour cent de ce capital, aux conditions suivantes :

"Toutes les fois que pour un exercice quelconque, pendant les 50 années de la durée de la Société, les intérêts recouvrés dans l'exercice ainsi que les sommes perçues sur





AGRICULTURAL BANK OF EGYPT.

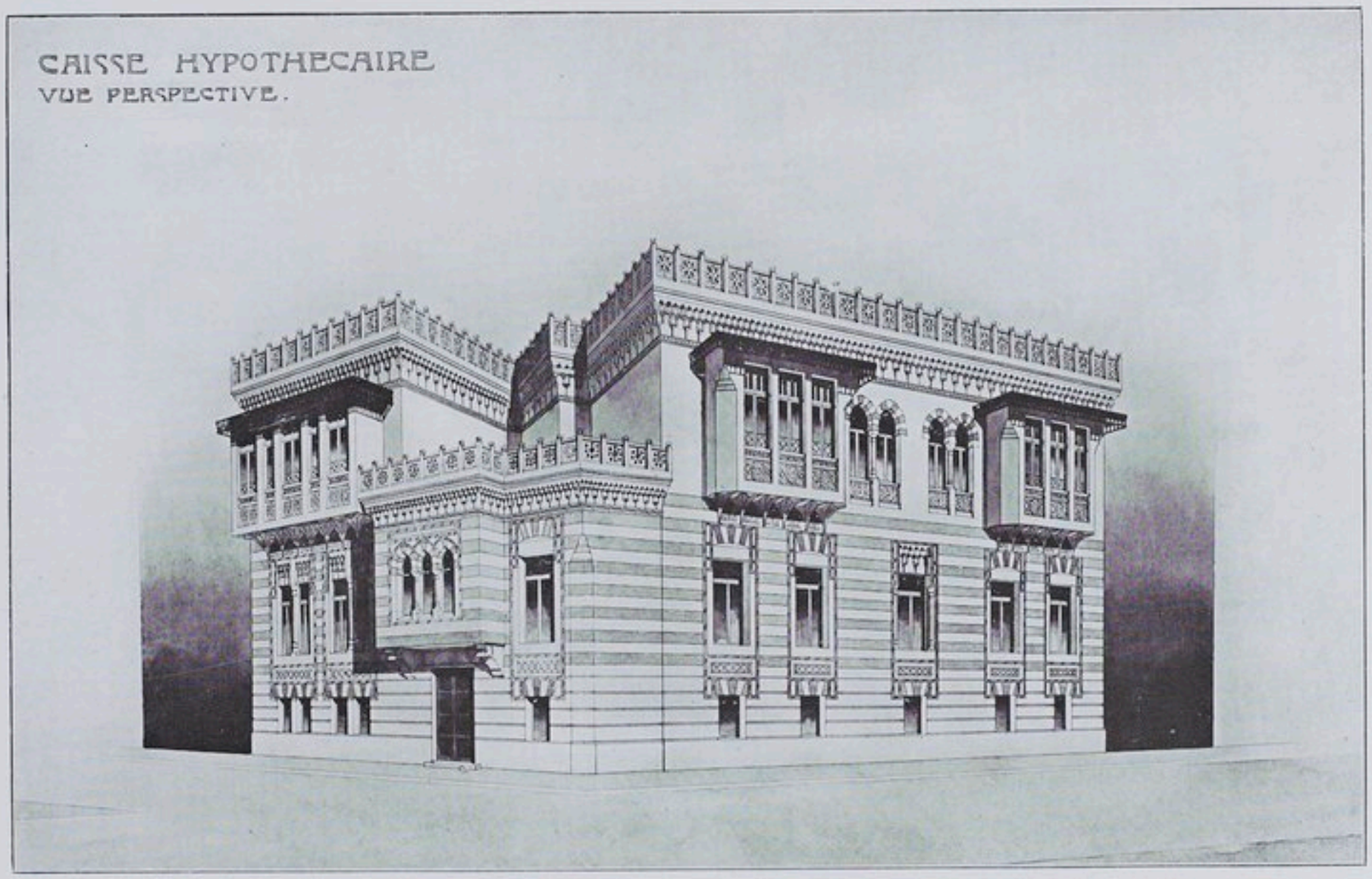
THE BANK AT CAIRO.

THE MINIEH BRANCH, MINIEH.

les prêts échus et non recouvrés des exercices précédents, n'atteindraient pas la somme nécessaire : 1° pour couvrir toutes les dépenses de l'exercice et le montant des prêts ou des termes échus et non effectivement recouvrés dans l'exercice ; 2° pour laisser un bénéfice net représentant le 3 pour cent du capital engagé en prêts aux fellahs ; la somme supplémentaire pour les effets ci-dessus sera prélevée sur le fonds de réserve, et en cas d'insuffisance dudit fonds, le Gouvernement versera à la Société, à titre de subvention, le solde de la somme nécessaire aux effets ci-dessus. Dans ce dernier cas, les prêts ou termes échus et non recouvrés dans l'exercice, qui viendraient à être encaissés dans les exercices suivants, seraient versés au Gouvernement jusqu'à concurrence de la subvention par lui payée à la Société."

croissantes, le capital de la Banque fut porté d'abord à £5.000.000 puis à £10.310.000. Le capital autorisé est actuellement entièrement payé, et consiste en £2.480.000 d'actions ordinaires de £5 chaque, £10.000 en actions de dividende de £5, et £1.250.000 en actions privilégiées 4 pour cent de £10. Il a été émis £6.570.000 d'obligations 3½ pour cent. L'intérêt de 3½ pour cent sur £4.220.000 de ces obligations est directement garanti par le Gouvernement égyptien. Avant même la fondation de l'Agricultural Bank of Egypt, on avait remarqué qu'en général, le délai de cinq ans accordé au fellah pour se libérer de ses emprunts, capital et intérêts, était insuffisant, et ce délai fut porté à dix ans. Actuellement, on accorde jusqu'à vingt ans de délai, mais la majorité des clients (65 pour cent) préfère adopter le paiement en 10 années. Le montant des

need felt by Egyptian agriculturists for advances, the only mortgage banks existing in the country at that time being the Credit Foncier Egyptien and the Land and Mortgage Company. In thus coming to the aid of the staple industry of the country the promoters rendered a great service to the public, whilst at the same time practically insuring their success. The movers in the matter were a group of Egyptian financiers, including Dr. Alfred Eid, Mr. Georges A. Eid, and Marcel Poilay Bey ; and a group of Belgian financiers, amongst whom we may mention more particularly Baron Von Etvelde (Minister of State), and Messrs. Thys, Frederic Jacobs, and Rolin. A little later, the latter two groups were joined by a French group formed by the "A. Adam Bank," the "Banque Privée," and the "Syndicat des Banques de Province."



THE NEW BUILDING OF THE CAISSE HYPOTHÉCAIRE D'ÉGYPTE, CAIRO.

Pour l'explication de ce qui précède, nous devons ajouter que le fonds de réserve est formé par un pourcentage annuel sur les intérêts encaissés. On peut se rendre compte de la progression du travail de la Banque par le tableau suivant :

	Montant des prêts effectués, £E.
1902 (Juin à Décembre) ...	695.585
1903...	1.649.789
1904...	2.434.871
1905...	2.864.515
1906...	3.466.736
1907...	1.526.260

La dépression constatée en 1907 était due au désir de la Banque de restreindre ses affaires par suite de l'état défavorable du marché de l'argent, état qui ne permettait pas de placer les obligations. Pour faire face aux affaires prêts à court terme, va de ½ livre égyptienne à £E20 ; les prêts à long terme, garantis par des hypothèques se montent de £E10 à £E500. Le taux d'intérêt perçu par la Banque était à l'origine de 9 pour cent. C'était celui perçu par la National Bank of Egypt ; mais, pour obtenir le consentement du Gouvernement à l'augmentation du capital de £5.000.000 à £10.310.000 la Banque décida que, quand le montant des prêts effectués dans le courant d'une année atteindrait £E7.000.000, le taux des intérêts serait abaissé à 8 pour cent pour tous les prêts, soit nouveaux, soit en cours, et ce, à partir du commencement de l'année suivante. Cette décision entra en vigueur, à partir du 1er Janvier 1907.

CAISSE HYPOTHÉCAIRE D'ÉGYPTE.

WHEN the Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte were established in 1903 they supplied a pressing

The business has chiefly been developed amongst landowners of the middle class, the Agricultural Bank having been created specially to meet the requirements of smaller holders. Nearly all the advances are made upon agricultural lands, and they represent an average of 50 per cent. of the value of the security. The average duration of the loans is nineteen years, and the annual interest charged averages 7 per cent. The bank is the only financial institution of the kind operating in this country which is authorised by its articles of association to make advances on behalf of third parties ; and this arrangement offers considerable advantages to European capitalists as it permits them to enter into direct relationship with the cultivators, whilst affording them all the exceptional securities which the Caisse Hypothécaire, thanks to the competency of its experts, is able to obtain. The capital

of the concern is now Frs. 10,000,000, of which only one-fourth has been called up. The bank has made numerous issues of debentures in order to cope with the demands of borrowers. At the end of the financial year 1906-7, the capital debentures represented Frs. 31,000,000; but by a new issue in 1908 the figure has been carried to Frs. 50,000,000. The statutory reserve fund amounted in 1907 to Frs. 38,378, and the extraordinary reserve fund to Frs. 800,000, a total of Frs. 838,378. These funds represent to the debenture holders an additional guarantee over and above the mortgage security. The guarantee does not stop there, however, for, as indicated above, only one-fourth of the capital has been called up, the remaining three-fourths forming an extraordinary reserve of Frs. 7,500,000 which is always realisable, for the shares, which are nominative, are in the hands of men of undoubted financial credit, and cannot be transferred without the consent of the Board.

COMPTOIR FINANCIER ET COMMERCIAL D'ÉGYPTE.

DURING its comparatively brief existence, the Comptoir Financier et Commercial d'Egypte has made rapid progress, and has become firmly established as a sound financial concern. It was started in June, 1905, with a capital of £200,000 sterling, and at the close of the first year's working a dividend of 12½ per cent. on the capital shares was paid, together with a distribution of £2 per share on the 4,000 founders' shares. The balance sheet for the year ending July 31, 1907, in which year the capital had been increased to £500,000, showed further satisfactory advances, but as the directors thought it advisable, in view of the financial depression, to provide a large contingency reserve of £82,500, the shareholders received only six per cent. At an extraordinary meeting held in January, 1907, it was decided to increase the capital to £1,000,000. The balance sheet for 1907 showed: cash in hand £100,554, and reserve funds £94,000.

The Company undertake financial and commercial operations of all kinds, including advances on deeds and on merchandise, discounts, commission, &c., on the markets of Egypt and those of foreign countries. The head offices are in Alexandria, and a branch has been opened in Cairo.

Mr. Alfred Campos became managing director of the company when it took over the business of Alfred Campos and Co., exchange brokers, established by himself some sixteen years previously. In recognition of his services in founding the bank, he was decorated by the Khedive with the Order of Mejidieh. He was for many years Vice-President of the Brokers' Association, and he was a member of the deputation appointed to interview Sir Eldon Gorst with a view to the organisation of relief measures during the recent financial crisis. An Austrian subject, though born in Alexandria, he took a leading part in founding the Austro-Hungarian Hospital, and he is now President of that institution. Mr. Campos, who is in his forty-third year, resides at 16, Rue Rosetta, Alexandria.

COMPARATIVEMENT pendant sa courte existence, le Comptoir Financier et Commercial d'Egypte à fait de rapides progrès et s'est établi solidement comme affaire financière assurée. Il commença en Juin, 1905. Avec un capital de £200.000 sterling et à la fin de la première année un dividende de 12½ pour cent sur les parts du capital fut payé ensemble avec une distribution de £2 par part sur les 4.000 parts des fondateurs. Le bilan pour la fin de l'année, Juillet 31 1907, pendant l'année de laquelle le capital a été augmenté de £500.000, montre satisfaction, comme le directeur pensa bon au point de vue de la depression financière de se munir d'une grande réserve de £82.500, les actionnaires reçurent seulement le six pour cent. Après une seánce extraordinaire tenue en Janvier 1907 il fut décidé d'augmenter le capital de £1.000.000. Le bilan pour 1907 montre, caisse en main £100.554, et se réserve un fonds de £94.000.

La Compagnie entreprend des opérations financières et commerciales de toutes sortes, avances sur titres y compris, sur marchandises, escompte, commission, etc. Sur le marché d'Egypte et ceux d'autres pays. La maison principale est à Alexandrie et une branche a été ouverte au Caire.

M. Alfred Campos devint directeur administrateur de la Compagnie quand il prit l'affaire de Alfred Campos et Cie, agents de change, établit par lui-même seize ans auparavant. En souvenir de ses services, en fondant la Banque, il fut décoré par le Khédive de l'Ordre du Méjidieh. Il fut pendant plusieurs années Vice-Président de l'Association des Agents de Change et il fut un membre de la députation envoyée pour interviewer Sir Eldon Gorst, en vue d'organiser des mesures pendant la récente crise financière. Sujet autrichien quoique né à Alexandrie, il prit une grande part en fondant l'hôpital Austro-Hongrois et il est maintenant Président de l'institution. M. Campos a quarante-trois ans, réside à Alexandrie, rue Rosette 16.

COMPAGNIE IMMOBILIÈRE D'ÉGYPTE.

THE Compagnie Immobilière d'Egypte, established in April, 1900, by a number of Belgian and Egyptian financiers, originally confined their operations chiefly to building-land enterprises in Cairo itself. The Egyptian promoters, who included the principal members of the Cattaui family and Mr. R. Saurès, brought to the Company three large buildings in the centre of the town as the nucleus of the property subsequently acquired. In 1904 the board of the said Company was considerably modified and its business passed into the hands of two groups: a Belgian group formed by Messrs. Thys, Tucks, de Deckser, and the Banque de Reports; and an Egyptian group formed by Mr. Georges Eid, Dr. Alfred Eid, and some of their friends. It was only from that date that the operations of the Company increased in proportion with its capital and with the growth of business which began to rise in Egypt.

In 1905 Dr. A. Eid was appointed Managing-Director. Just as the boom reached its greatest height, the Directors, who foresaw the crisis which was threatening the urban market, extended the operations of the Company to other undertakings of a different kind, more particularly agricultural. To show how satisfactory has been the working of the Company under Dr. Eid's guidance, a comparison may be made between the balance-sheet for the first financial year, 1900-1, and that for 1906-7. The assets of the Company under the heading of "real estate on sole account" were shown in the first period as Frs. 1,457,600; the corresponding figures in the second period were Frs. 4,640,200. Under the heading "real estate in participation" there was an increase from Frs. 136,400 to Frs. 1,752,900; while under the heading "mortgage debts" there was an increase from Frs. 102,100 to Frs. 7,199,000. The initial capital of Frs. 3,000,000 had been doubled by the end of 1904, and the reserve funds, both statutory and extraordinary, now amount to Frs. 1,238,800, or 20·6 per cent. of the paid-up capital. Yet with all their prudence the directors have not refrained from making large distributions; the dividends were: 2½ per cent. in 1900; 5½ per cent. in 1901; 6 per cent. in 1902 and 1903; 6·8 per cent. in 1904; 7·6 per cent. in 1905; 10 per cent. in 1906; and 8·1 per cent. in 1907. It will thus be seen that there are few companies of the kind in Egypt which enjoy a more sound financial position. The head office of the Company is in Cairo.

COMPTOIR NATIONAL D'ESCOMPTE DE PARIS.

WITH its enormous capital of Frs. 150.000.000, its reserve funds of over Frs. 20.500.000, its numerous agencies in France, in the French Colonies and Dependencies, and in various important centres in other countries, and its wide range of financial operations of all kinds, the Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris claims a leading place among the world's great banking institutions. It was founded, in 1889, to take over the business of the old Comptoir d'Escompte. There are upwards of thirty bureaux de quartier and thirteen bureaux de banlieue in Paris and its environs, while 133 agencies have been established throughout the whole of France. In other countries, agencies have been opened in London, Liverpool, Manchester, Brussels, Ostend (during the season only), Monte-Carlo, San Sebastian, Bombay, Melbourne, Sydney, Alexandria, Cairo, Port Said, Tananarive, Tuléar, Tamatave, Tunis, Sousse, Sfax, Bizerte, Diego-Suarez, Majunga, Mananjary, and Nossi-bé. Of the local offices, that at Alexandria was opened in August, 1905, that at Cairo in October of the following year, and that at Port Said at the commencement of 1909. The Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris is the Banker of the French Colonial Banks in Algeria, Indo-China, Guadeloupe, Guiana, Martinique, Réunion, and Sénégal. The business undertaken by the Bank includes transactions concerning the exchange of cheques, current accounts, bills, letters of credit, bills of lading, advances on titles, stock and shares business, the safeguarding of title deeds, mortgages, the sale and purchase of foreign bonds, and the payment of coupons. Bonds at fixed exchange are issued, interest being allowed at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum for periods of from six to eleven months, and at 3 per cent. for periods of from one to three years.

The manager in Cairo, Mr. A. Spitzer, came to Egypt early in 1907, shortly after the branch was opened. Born in London in 1869, and educated in France, Mr. Spitzer was for twelve years in the Bank's London Office, latterly holding their power of attorney.

AVEC son énorme capital de frs. 150.000.000, son fonds de réserve supérieur à frs. 20.500.000, ses nombreuses agences en France, dans les colonies françaises et dépendances, et dans un grand nombre de centres importants étrangers, son vaste champ d'opérations financières de tous genres, le Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris détient une des premières places parmi les grands établissements de crédit du monde. Il fut fondé en 1889, pour prendre la suite des affaires de l'ancien Comptoir d'Escompte. Il possède actuellement plus de trente bureaux de quartier et treize bureaux de banlieue à Paris et dans ses environs, tandis que 133 agences ont été établies dans toute la France. A l'étranger, des succursales ont été ouvertes à Londres, Liverpool, Manchester, Bruxelles,

Ostende (pendant la saison seulement), Monte Carlo, Saint Sébastien, Bombay, Melbourne, Sydney, Alexandrie, Le Caire, Port Said, Tananarive, Tuléar, Tamatave, Tunis, Sousse, Sfax, Bizerte, Diego-Suarez, Majunga, Mananjary et Nossi-Bé. Les agences égyptiennes ont été ouvertes : celle d'Alexandrie au mois d'Août 1905, celle du Caire, au mois d'Octobre de l'année suivante, et celle de Port Said au commencement de 1909. Le Comptoir National est le banquier des banques coloniales françaises en Algérie, en Indo-Chine, à la Guadeloupe, à la Guyane, à la Martinique, à la Réunion, et au Sénégal. Les diverses opérations traitées par la banque comprennent les transactions concernant le change, les comptes-courants, les effets, les lettres de crédit, les connaissements, les avances sur titres, les opérations de bourse, la garde de titres et objets précieux, les hypothèques, l'achat et la vente de valeurs étrangères, et le paiement des coupons. Elle émet également des bons à échéance fixe, productifs d'intérêts à 2 pour cent l'an, pour les dépôts de six à onze mois, et à 3 pour cent pour les dépôts effectués d'un an à trois ans.

Le Directeur au Caire, M. A. Spitzer, vint en Egypte au commencement de 1907, peu de temps après l'ouverture de cette Agence. Né à Londres en 1869, il fit son éducation en France, et resta pendant douze années à l'agence de Londres de la banque, où il était, en dernier lieu, fondé de pouvoirs.

CRÉDIT FRANCO-ÉGYPTIEN.

THE Crédit Franco-Egyptien was formed in October, 1905, when the commercial development of Egypt was at its apogee, the object of its promoters being to profit by the new situation created in Egypt by the political "rapprochement" between Great Britain and France. The business undertaken consists in making loans either with or without mortgage, in advancing money to landed proprietors, in the purchase and exploitation of house and agricultural property, and in all kinds of banking and financial operations, either directly or on behalf of third parties.

Since the recent financial crisis, the Society have also turned their attention to operations in merchandise—principally cotton—advancing money to the growers before the season, and, if necessary, undertaking the sale of the crops after the harvest. These investments when made with ordinary prudence are both sure and productive, and have, besides, the advantage that they call for a merely temporary use of capital. The capital amounts to Frs. 12,500,000 in 100,000 fully paid up shares of Frs. 125 each. There are also 20,000 founders' shares of no determined value. In the first year of working, a dividend of 6 per cent. was declared and Frs. 471,000 were placed to the reserve account. The second financial year was not quite so satisfactory, owing chiefly to a general fall in values, which caused a depreciation of about Frs. 512,000 in the value of the title deeds held by the Society. The gross profits amounted in round figures to Frs. 1,472,000, or about the same as in the preceding year. After allowing for general expenses and writing off the depreciation in title values, there remained a net profit of about Frs. 533,000, but the directors thought it prudent to carry this sum to the extraordinary reserve account, bringing up the amount to Frs. 1,004,000, a relatively large reserve, having regard to the capital engaged. The directors of the Crédit Franco-Egyptien are Messrs. J. de Lapisse (president), A. Tilche (vice-president), B. Tilche, H. Bousquet, Ch. Charpentier, Isaac Aghion, and Alfred Suarès. The head offices are situated at Paris; the Alexandria offices are at No. 14, Rue Stamboul.

LE Crédit Franco-Egyptien fut constitué en Octobre 1905, lorsque le développement commercial de l'Egypte était à son apogée ; l'objectif de ses promoteurs étant de profiter de la nouvelle situation créée en Egypte par le rapprochement politique de la Grande Bretagne et de la France. La Société a pour objet d'effectuer des prêts avec ou sans hypothèque, des avances aux propriétaires urbains ou ruraux, l'achat et la mise en exploitation de biens immobiliers urbains ou ruraux, de faire toutes opérations de banque, de finance et de commission, le tout, soit pour son compte exclusif, soit en participation avec des tiers.

Depuis la récente crise financière, la Société a été amenée à porter également son attention sur les opérations en marchandise—principalement le coton—consistant à ouvrir, avant la campagne des crédits aux agriculteurs, en se chargeant aussi de la vente de la marchandise récoltée. Ces placements, quand ils sont faits avec prudence sont sûrs et productifs, et ont d'ailleurs l'avantage de ne demander qu'un emploi temporaire du capital. Le capital se monte à frs. 12.500.000, représenté par 100.000 actions de frs. 125 entièrement libérées. Il existe également 20.000 parts de fondateur sans détermination de valeur. Dès le premier exercice, la Société a distribué un dividende de 6 pour cent et a placé frs. 471.000 à la réserve. La seconde année fut moins bonne, principalement à cause de la baisse générale des valeurs, dont le résultat fut une dépréciation de frs. 512.000 environ dans le portefeuille titres de la Société. Le bénéfice de l'année commerciale fut de frs. 1.472.000 en chiffres ronds, montant sensiblement égal à celui de l'exercice précédent. Après en avoir déduit les dépenses générales et la dépréciation des titres, il resta un profit net d'environ frs. 533.000, que le Conseil d'Administration jugea prudent de porter à la réserve extraordinaire, qui de ce fait se trouva être de frs. 1.004.000, somme relativement importante, eu égard au capital engagé. Les Administrateurs du Crédit Franco-Egyptien sont Messieurs J. de Lapisse (Président), A. Tilche (Vice-Président), B. Tilche, H. Bousquet, Ch. Charpentier, Isaac Aghion, et Alfred Suarès. Le siège principal est à Paris ; l'agence d'Alexandrie est au No. 14 de la rue de Stamboul.

DEUTSCHE ORIENTBANK AKTIEN-GESELLSCHAFT.

THE Deutsche Orientbank Aktiengesellschaft was founded jointly some years ago by the Dresdner Bank, the A. Schaaffhausenscher Bankverein, and the Nationalbank fur Deutschland. It has a capital of sixteen million marks, and its objects are to facilitate financial transactions between Germany and the Near East. It undertakes all kinds of general banking business. Fixed deposits are accepted on good terms, current accounts are opened, letters of credit are issued on all parts of the world, bank bills are bought and sold, valuables are stored, and money is advanced upon merchandise or other approved security. The head offices are in Berlin, and branches have been established in Hamburg, Constantinople, Brussa, Alexandria, and Cairo. The branch at Alexandria, situated in the Rue Cherif Pasha, was opened in 1905, and that at Cairo on June of the following year. There are now two offices in Cairo. The principal one at present occupies temporary premises in the Rond Point Suares, but a fine new building for its accommodation in the Chareh-el-Manakh, is fast nearing completion. The other office is in the Mousky, and was opened solely for the transaction of native business. The joint managers of the Cairo branch are Messrs. E. H. Erfield and F. M. Singer.

THE IMPERIAL OTTOMAN BANK.

THE head office of the Imperial Ottoman Bank is in Constantinople, but its capital was wholly found outside Turkey, and it is entirely under British and French management. The control is in the hands of a director-general with a council of five in Constantinople, and a joint general committee of seventeen in Paris and London. The capital of the bank is in shares to bearer, which are mostly held abroad. Mr. Morgan H. Foster, C.B., was director-general for eighteen years. He was followed by Sir Edgar Vincent, K.C.M.G., who had been financial adviser to the Khedive of Egypt. Then for five years the post was filled by Sir R. Hamilton Lang, who had been previously Administrator of the Daira Sanieh in Egypt. The present director-general is a Frenchman, Mr. J. Deffès, of the Bank of France. The history of the Imperial Ottoman Bank is closely connected with the restoration of the national credit, and the bank is doing good work in extending banking facilities for the development of the natural resources of the country and the well-being of its inhabitants. On two or three occasions, owing to political troubles, and a lock-up of funds in advances to the Government, shareholders received no return. On one occasion, namely, 1874, owing to the payment of a bonus out of the reserve fund, the distribution amounted to 56½ per cent. With those exceptions the dividends throughout the bank's career have ranged from 5 up to 15 per cent. Of late years the distributions have gradually risen from 5 to 9 per cent.

The Imperial Ottoman Bank is nearly fifty years old, for it dates back to the early sixties. After the termination of the Crimean War, a British bank, with a paid-up capital of £500,000, was established in 1856 in Constantinople as the Ottoman Bank. This was the genesis of the present institution, which, with the participation of French capital, was established as a State bank under its present title by virtue of a firman of the Sultan of Turkey, dated February 4, 1863. It received a concession from the Turkish Government for a period of thirty years, namely, up to 1893. Under this concession the bank undertook not only to make a permanent statutory advance to the Government, but also to act as banker to the Government. On the other hand, the bank was granted the privilege of a note issue which was exclusive, the Government undertaking during the life of the concession neither to make any paper issue of its own, nor to authorise the establishment of any other institution with a right of note issue. These notes are redeemable in gold, and are legal tender. The capital of the new bank was fixed at £2,700,000 in shares of £20 each, upon which £10 was called up. The granting of a settlement in, and a quotation for, the new shares in London was opposed by people interested in the concession by the Government in 1859 to the Bank of Turkey which had become defunct. But the committee of the Stock Exchange decided that nothing had transpired to disentitle the Imperial Ottoman Bank to a settlement and to a quotation in the official list. The settlement was granted, and the shares immediately rose to 100 per cent. premium. Turkey was at that time piling up debt

rapidly, by issuing loans abroad, and by raising and floating debt at home. The Ottoman Bank was, of course, called upon to finance the Government, and thus more capital was required. Two years later, namely, in 1865, it was increased to £4,050,000, and in 1875 it was further increased to £10,000,000, at which it has since remained, and of which £5,000,000 is paid up. At the same time, namely, in 1875, the Government prolonged the concession for another twenty years, namely, until 1913. The skilful manner in which the bank was managed was recognised by the Government, and a further extension of the bank's privileges was granted for another twelve years, namely, until 1925. The intimate relations of the bank with the finances of the Government have not prevented due regard being given to the commercial requirements of the country. These have been looked after by the creation of branches. In 1863 there were only four; twenty years later there were fourteen, and the next ten years saw their number doubled, for there were in 1893 no fewer than twenty-eight. During the past fifteen years another twenty-six more branches and sub-branches have been opened, and the bank now has no fewer than fifty-four branches.

In order to give an idea of the growth of the note issue, of the increase in the bank's business, and of its advances to the Government, we append some figures from the bank's balance sheets for the last six quinquennial periods, and for the five previous years :—

December.	Notes.	Current and Deposit Accounts.	Statutory and other Advances to the Government.
	£	£	£
1877 ...	16,491	1,739,300	6,214,655
1878 ...	16,146	2,470,257	6,601,559
1879 ...	63,743	1,303,788	6,361,688
1880 ...	123,468	2,007,291	6,783 864
1881 ...	239,914	2,960,324	3,755,952
1882 ...	172,336	4,084,557	4,451,356
1887 ...	438,776	4,455,416	1,669,784
1892 ...	870,051	6,850,695	1,282,219
1897 ...	691,631	5,694,038	2,007,363
1902 ...	1,106,890	8,565,429	2,075,802
1907 ...	1,090,764	11,741,705	2,378,306

T. A. F. CRITCHLEY, manager of the Alexandria branch, was born in 1870, and began life in the British Linen Company's Bank at Inverness, his native town. He then joined the New Oriental Banking Corporation, Ltd., serving in their London and Mauritius offices, and with their correspondents in Paris. He entered the service of the Imperial Ottoman Bank in 1893, and was stationed successively at Beyrouth, Aleppo, Bagdad, and Constantinople, receiving his present appointment at the beginning of 1903.

T. A. F. CRITCHLEY, Directeur de l'Agence d'Alexandrie, est né en 1870, et débuta au service de la British Linen Company's Bank à Inverness, sa ville natale. Plus tard il entra à la New Oriental Banking Corporation, Ltd., et servit cet établissement à ses agences de Londres et de Maurice, ainsi que chez ses correspondants de Paris. Il entra au service de la Banque Impériale Ottomane en 1893, et fut envoyé successivement à Beyrouth, Alep, Bagdad et Constantinople. Il occupe sa position actuelle depuis le commencement de 1903.

IONIAN BANK, LTD.

THE Alexandria branch of the Ionian Bank, Ltd., was established as recently as August, 1907, but the parent institution is one of the oldest financial corporations in the Near East. It was incorporated in 1839, and became a limited liability company on March 5, 1883, when it was registered in England under the Companies' Acts, 1862 to 1880, and the Ionian Bank Act of 1882. The head office is situated at 44, Palmerston House, Bishopsgate Street, London, E.C.; the head office in Greece is at Athens; and there are branches at Patras, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Piræus, Tripolitza, Nauplia (agency), and at Alexandria (Egypt). The capital at the close of 1907 was £315,510, upon which a dividend of 6 per cent. for the year was paid. In April, 1908, however, authority was given to increase the capital to £600,000, by the issue of 56,898 additional shares of £5 each. All kinds of banking business are transacted, and the Company shares with the National Bank of Greece the privilege of issuing bank notes in Greece. The extension of the bank's operations to Egypt was the result of the great improvement in the commercial relationships between Greece and Egypt, which has been so noticeable of late years. The manager of the Alexandria branch, which is situated in the Rue Adib, is Mr. P. Athanassiu, who has been associated with the bank for many years.

L'AGENCE Egyptienne de la Ionian Bank, Ltd., fut fondée seulement en Août 1907; mais cette Banque est une des plus anciennes Sociétés financières de l'Orient : elle fut constituée en 1839 et devint Société Anonyme le 5 Mars 1883, lorsqu'elle fut enregistrée en Angleterre dans les "Companies Acts," 1862 à 1882, et dans le "Ionian Bank Act" de 1882. Le Siège de Londres est situé 44, Palmerston House, Bishopsgate Street, E.C., et celui de Grèce est à Athènes. La Ionian Bank possède des succursales à Patras, Corfu, Céphalonie, Zante, Le Pirée, Tripolitza, Nauplie, et à Alexandrie (Egypte). Son capital à la fin de 1907 était de £315.510, sur lequel avait été servi un dividende de 6 pour cent. Cependant en Avril 1908 elle obtint la licence de porter son capital à £600.000, moyennant une émission de 56.898 actions nouvelles de £5 chaque. Elle se charge de toutes sortes d'opérations de Banque, et partage avec la Banque Nationale de Grèce le privilège de pouvoir émettre des Billets de Banque en Grèce. Le développement des opérations de la Ionian Bank, Ltd., en Egypte est le résultat de l'extension toujours croissante durant ces dernières années des relations commerciales entre la Grèce et l'Egypte. L'Agence d'Alexandrie (située rue Adib) est dirigée par M. P. Athanassiu, qui est au service de la Banque depuis plusieurs années.

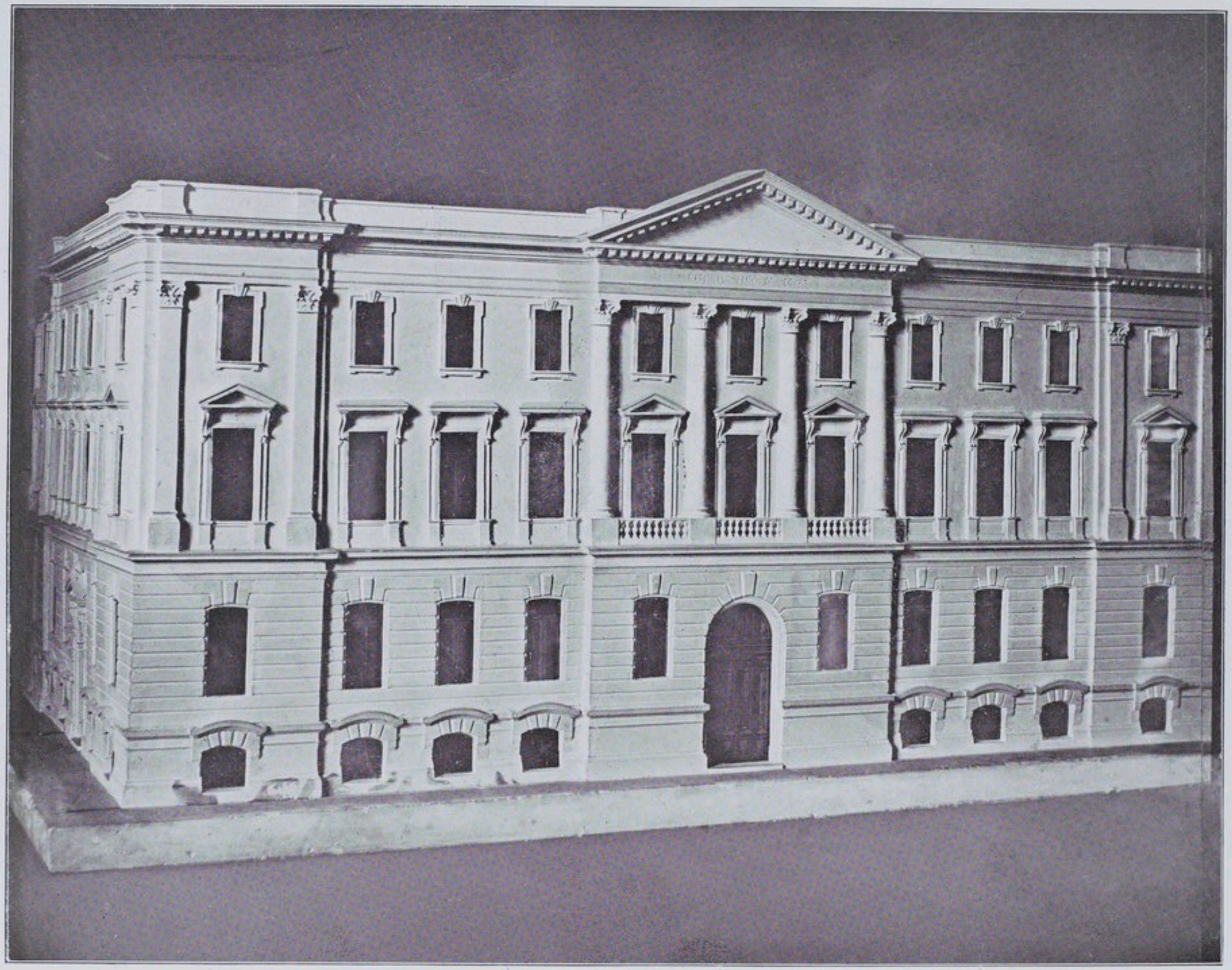
LAND BANK OF EGYPT.

WITH the gradual fulfilment of various schemes of irrigation, the agricultural population of Egypt have had need of further capital to enable them to develop the land thus made available for cultivation, and it was chiefly with the object of supplying this need that the Land Bank of Egypt was established some four years ago. The bank received its charter by Khedivial decree dated January 10, 1905, and commenced operations forthwith with a capital of £500,000, subscribed entirely by the Anglo-Foreign Banking Co., Ltd., Messrs. P. P. Rodocanachi & Co., the Société Marseillaise de Crédit Industriel et Commercial et de Dépôts, Messrs. Zafiropoulo & Zarifi, Messrs. J. Aghion & Figlio, Messrs. C. M. Salvago & Co., and Messrs. Zervudachi et Fils. The utility of the institution was proved at once, and before the end of the year the capital had to be increased to £1,000,000 in order to keep pace with the growing business. The bank now holds a leading position among institutions of the kind in Egypt, and stands on a thoroughly sound basis. By the close of the third financial year the reserve funds amounted to £E250,340, and mortgage loans had been issued to the amount of £E2,736,567. The profits for the year admitted of a distribution of 9s. per share on the ordinary shares, and of £3 5s. 9d. on the deferred shares. The bank soon outgrew its original premises in the Rue Rosette, and a handsome new building was accordingly erected at the junction of the Rue Stamboul and the Rue Toussoum Pasha, Alexandria. The general management of the business is in the hands of Maurice Romano Bey, formerly a well-known figure among the legal fraternity at the Alexandria Mixed Courts of Appeal.

AVEC la réalisation graduelle du programme d'irrigation, la population rurale égyptienne se trouva avoir besoin de capitaux plus importants, qui la mettent à même de développer la culture des terres, et c'est principalement avec l'objet de pourvoir à ces désiderata que la Land Bank of Egypt fut fondée il y a environ quatre ans. Le décret Khédivial qui autorisait sa fondation fut signé le 10 Janvier 1905, et la Banque commença aussitôt ses opérations avec un capital de £500.000, souscrit entièrement par l'Anglo-Foreign Banking Co., Ltd., Messieurs P. P. Rodocanachi et Cie, la Société Marseillaise de Crédit Industriel et Commercial et de Dépôts, Messieurs Zafiropoulo et Zarifi, Messieurs J. Aghion et Figlio, Messieurs C. M. Salvago et Cie, et Messieurs Zervudachi et Fils. L'utilité de cette institution fut immédiatement démontrée, et avant la fin de l'année le capital fut porté à £1.000.000 afin que la Banque put se maintenir à la hauteur des affaires toujours grandissantes. Elle possède aujourd'hui une position dominante parmi les institutions de son genre en Egypte et ses bases sont absolument sûres. A la fin de la troisième année d'exercice le fonds de réserve atteignit £E250.340 et le montant des prêts sur hypothèque arriva à £E2.736.567. Les bénéfices de cette année permirent de distribuer un dividende de 9s. par action ordinaire, et de £3 5s. 9d. par action privilégiée. Les affaires devinrent bientôt trop considérables pour que la Banque continua à rester dans le local qu'elle occupait rue Rosette, et une nouvelle et spacieuse construction fut érigée à la jonction des rues Stamboul et Toussoum Pacha à Alexandrie. La Direction Générale des affaires est entre les mains de Maurice Romano Bey, bien connu autrefois alors qu'il occupait des fonctions importantes à la Cour d'Appel d'Alexandrie.

LAND AND MORTGAGE COMPANY OF EGYPT, LTD.

THE Land and Mortgage Company of Egypt, Ltd., was founded in 1880 by a group of financiers headed by some of the directors of the Anglo-Egyptian Banking Company, Ltd., of London, now the Anglo-Egyptian Bank, Ltd. Since their foundation their principal object has been the lending of money on mortgage securities in Egypt. Originally part of their capital was invested in the purchase of estates, but these have since been disposed of, and their operations are now confined exclusively to the investment of money on first mortgage on cultivated lands in the best regions of the Delta. The original capital was £1,000,000, in shares of £20, of which only £5 was called up; its present capital is



NATIONAL BANK OF EGYPT.

New Premises at Rue Toussoum Pasha, Alexandria.

£900,000, in shares of £18, of which only £3 is paid up. The satisfactory position of the Company was indicated in the last annual report, which showed the net earnings for the financial year ended March 31, 1908, to be £18,581, the largest amount in the annals of the Company, surpassing the 1906 record by £400. A bonus of 1 per cent. and a dividend of 10 per cent. were paid to the shareholders, and £3,000 was carried forward, bringing up the reserve total to more than £100,000. The board of directors comprises Sir Edward Leigh Pemberton, K.C.B. (chairman), Mr. Richard Collyer Johnson, Sir Walter Frederick Miéville, K.C.M.G., Mr. Nowell Stanhope Stott, and Mr. Raphaël Abdallah Huri (managing director in Egypt). The London offices of the Company are at Suffolk House, Laurence Pountney Hill, E.C.; those in Egypt are at No. 33, Rue Cherif Pasha, Alexandria.

NATIONAL BANK OF EGYPT.

TEN years ago the Egyptian Government decided to establish a bank at which Government cash balances could be deposited, and by means of which loans could be advanced to native agriculturists for the development of land. Accordingly, in 1898, the National Bank of Egypt was founded, with head offices in Cairo and branches or agencies in Alexandria, Assiout, Assouan, Benha, Beni Souef, the Mousky (Cairo), Chebin-el-Kom, Damanhour, Fayoum, Keneh, Luxor, Mansourah, Port Said, Sohag, Tantah, Zagazig, Khartoum, Port Soudan, and Suakin. A capital of £3,000,000 was issued in shares of £10 each. Since that time the directorate have been empowered to raise an additional £500,000 if required.

The operations of the bank, which embrace the whole field of ordinary banking transactions, as well as the special functions previously referred to, have proved financially successful. The reserve fund amounts to upwards of £1,500,000, and at the last general meeting of shareholders a dividend of 9 per cent. was declared. The National Bank enjoys the sole right to issue notes in Egypt, and has in circulation bank notes to the value of £E2,120,000, which are fully covered by deposits of gold and securities with the Egyptian Government. The chairman of the board of directors is also governor of the bank, his appointment, and that of the sub-governors at Cairo and Alexandria, requiring the sanction of the Egyptian Government. The Government is represented on the board by two special commissioners. The present governor is Mr. F. T. Rowlatt, who has held that position since 1896. The sub-governors are Messrs. A. G. M. Dickson (Alexandria) and J. Home (Cairo).

IL y a dix ans le Gouvernement égyptien décida d'établir une banque où les comptes du Gouvernement pourraient y être déposés et par les moyens desquels des prêts pourraient être faits aux agriculteurs du pays pour le développement des terrains. Alors, en 1898, The National Bank of Egypt fut fondée avec les maisons principales au Caire et des succursales ou des agences à Alexandrie, Assiout, Assouan, Benha, Béni Souef, Le Mouski (Caire), Chibin-el-Kom, Damanhour, Fayoum, Kenah, Louqsor, Mansourah, Port Saïd, Sohag, Tantah, et Zagazig, Khartoum, Port Soudan, et Souakim. Un capital de £3.000.000 fut émis en parts de £10 chacune. Depuis cela, la direction eut le pouvoir d'élever un surcroît de £500.000. si cela est demandé. Les opérations de la banque qui embrassent le champ complet des transactions ordinaires de banque, aussi bien que les fonctions spéciales mentionnées au-dessus ont prouvé le succés financier. Les fonds en réserve s'élèvent à £1.500.000 et à la dernière séance des actionnaires un dividende de 9 pour cent fut déclaré. La National Bank à seule le droit d'émettre des billets en Egypte et des billets de banque en circulation de la valeur de £E2.120.000 entièrement couverts par des dépôts d'or et assurés du Gouvernement égyptien. Le président de la Société des directeurs est aussi gouverneur de la banque. Les charges et celles du sous-gouverneur au Caire et à Alexandrie demandent la sanction au gouvernement égyptien. Le Gouvernement est représenté à la présidence par deux commissionnaires spéciaux. Le gouverneur actuel est M. F. T. Rowlatt, qui est au poste depuis 1896. Les sous-gouverneurs sont. MM. A. G. M. Dickson (Alexandrie) et J. Home (Cairo).

BANCO DI ROMA.

THE Banco di Roma was founded in 1880, with a capital of 6,000,000 lire, divided into 12,000 shares of 500 lire each, and to-day the capital stands at 50,000,000 lire in shares of 100 lire each. The business, which includes all the usual financial operations, has developed very rapidly during recent years, and, thanks to the prudence exercised by the administrators, the assets greatly exceed the liabilities. The head offices are in Rome, and its chief branches are at Genoa, Turin, Paris, Malta, and Alexandria. The bank contributed to the formation of the Bank of Abyssinia in 1905, and the State Bank of Morocco in 1906. The Board of Administrators comprises Mr. Ernesto Pacelli (president), Mr. R. Tittoni (vice-president), Marquis D. A. Theodoli, Messrs. Nazzareno Ferrata, Edoardo Soderini, F. Saverio Benucci, P. Salustri-Galli, and L. Josi. The director-general is Mr. M. E. Jacomoni.

The chief office in Egypt is at Alexandria, the director being Baron Manuel Guerra, and the fondés de pouvoirs Messrs. Guilio Giraldini, Gabriel Adem, and Gastone Semiani. The offices are situated in the Rue Tewfik Pasha. The Cairo branch, opened in 1908, is in the Rue Chareh el-Manakh, the manager being Mr. E. Monte Corboli, and the fondé de pouvoir Mr. Abdel-Hamid Chédid.

LA BANQUE DE ROME a été fondeé en 1880 avec un capital de 6.000.000 de lires, divisé en 12.000 parts de 500 lires chacune. Anjourd'hui le capital s'est élevé a 50.000.000 de lires en parts de 100 lires chacune. L'affaire consiste en opérations financières ordinaires. S'est beaucoup développée ces années dernières, a eu des administrateurs prudents, ce qui assure la responsabilité. La maison principale est à Rome et les succursales sont à Gênes, Turin, Paris, Malta, et Alexandrie. La banque a contribué à la formation de la banque d'Abyssinie en 1905 et la Banque du Maroc en 1906. Les membres compris dans l'Administration sont : M. Ernest Pacelli (président), M. R. Tittoni (vice-président), Marquis D. A. Theodoli, MM. Nazzareno, Ferrato, Edoardo Soderini, F. Saverio, Benucci, P. Salustri-Galli, et L. Josi. Le directeur-général est MM. E. Jacomoni. La Maison principale pour l'Egypte est à Alexandrie, le directeur étant le Baron Manuel Guerra et les fondés de pouvoirs, MM. Guilio Giraldini, Gabriel Adem et Gaston Semiani. Les bureaux sont situés à la rue Tewfik Pacha. La Maison du Caire, ouverte en 1908, est à la rue el Manakh. Directeur M. E. Monte Corboli, Le fondé de pouvoirs, M. Abdel-Hamid Chédid.

SOCIÉTÉ GÉNÉRALE ÉGYPTIENNE POUR L'AGRICULTURE ET LE COMMERCE.

WHILST carrying on general banking business, the Société Générale Egyptienne pour l'Agriculture et le Commerce is chiefly concerned in facilitating commercial and financial transactions between Egypt and Belgium. The Company was formed in Antwerp in May, 1905, and started operations in Cairo in the autumn of the same year. The original capital was Frs. 15,000,000, and the results of the first financial year enabled the Company to pay a substantial dividend. In January, 1907, the capital was raised to Frs. 25,000,000—of which Frs. 17,500,000 is actually paid up—and the business of Messrs. Rom, Vanderlinden & Co., private bankers, was taken over, Mr. Rom joining the board as managing director. The crisis of 1907, which affected all Egyptian business so severely, was not without its effect upon the operations of the Company, and no dividend was paid for that year, the board of directors considering it necessary to make provision even for eventual losses on doubtful debts. During 1908, however, the position of the Company improved considerably, and the directors are very sanguine as to the future. The board is composed of Messrs. Edouard Thys (chairman), François Rom (managing director), Fréderic Jacobs, Christian Scheidt, Léon Van Den Bosch, and Albert Vanderlinden; while the manager is Mr. M. van Regemorter.

LEOPOLD POLLACK, founder of the banking firm of Leopold Pollack & Co., is a son of John Pollack, a well-known merchant of Trieste, and was born in 1874. After completing his education, he remained with the Bank Austrian Credit Austalt in his native town for about four years. In 1900 he was engaged by the Anglo-Egyptian Bank as chief of its exchange department in Alexandria, a position which he held until early in 1904, when, in partnership with several other business men, he started the firm of Cattaui Frères in Cairo. At the end of 1906 he retired from this undertaking and opened a banking business under his own name with several sleeping partners. This enterprise has proved entirely successful. The bank, which occupies offices at No. 3, Rue El Manakh, transacts all kinds of banking business with Egypt, London, and Paris. Mr. Pollack is also a director of the Anglo-Egyptian Allotment Company.

LOUIS CAUSSE ET CIE.—Cet établissement fondé en 1906 a ses bureaux 16, rue el-Manak. C'est la seule banque privée française fonctionnant en Egypte. Monsieur Louis Causse, fondateur de cette maison, est né à Nîmes en 1879, il a fait ses études à l'Institut Agronomique de Paris et y a obtenu le diplôme d'Ingénieur agronome. Il rentrait ensuite en qualité de fondé de pouvoirs chez MM. Molines Père et Fils Aîné, Banquiers à Nîmes (France) où il resta 3 ans. Il vint en Egypte en 1905 pour y fonder sa maison après un voyage d'étude dans le pays. Monsieur Causse qui est notable de la Colonie française, est juge au tribunal de Commerce et membre de la Société de Bienfaisance. Le Directeur de la Banque Louis Causse et Cie, est Monsieur A. Dumeny, né à Nîmes en 1877. Ses études faites au Lycée de Nîmes, il les paracheva à la faculté de Droit de Paris où il obtint le diplôme de licencié. Il rentra ensuite à l'Administration Centrale du Crédit Lyonnais à Paris, où il resta jusqu'en Octobre 1906, époque à laquelle il accepta de seconder Monsieur Louis Causse dans la



Interior of Bank.

BANCO DI ROMA.

Bank at Alexandria.



Interior of Bank.

BANCO DI ROMA.

Bank at Cairo.

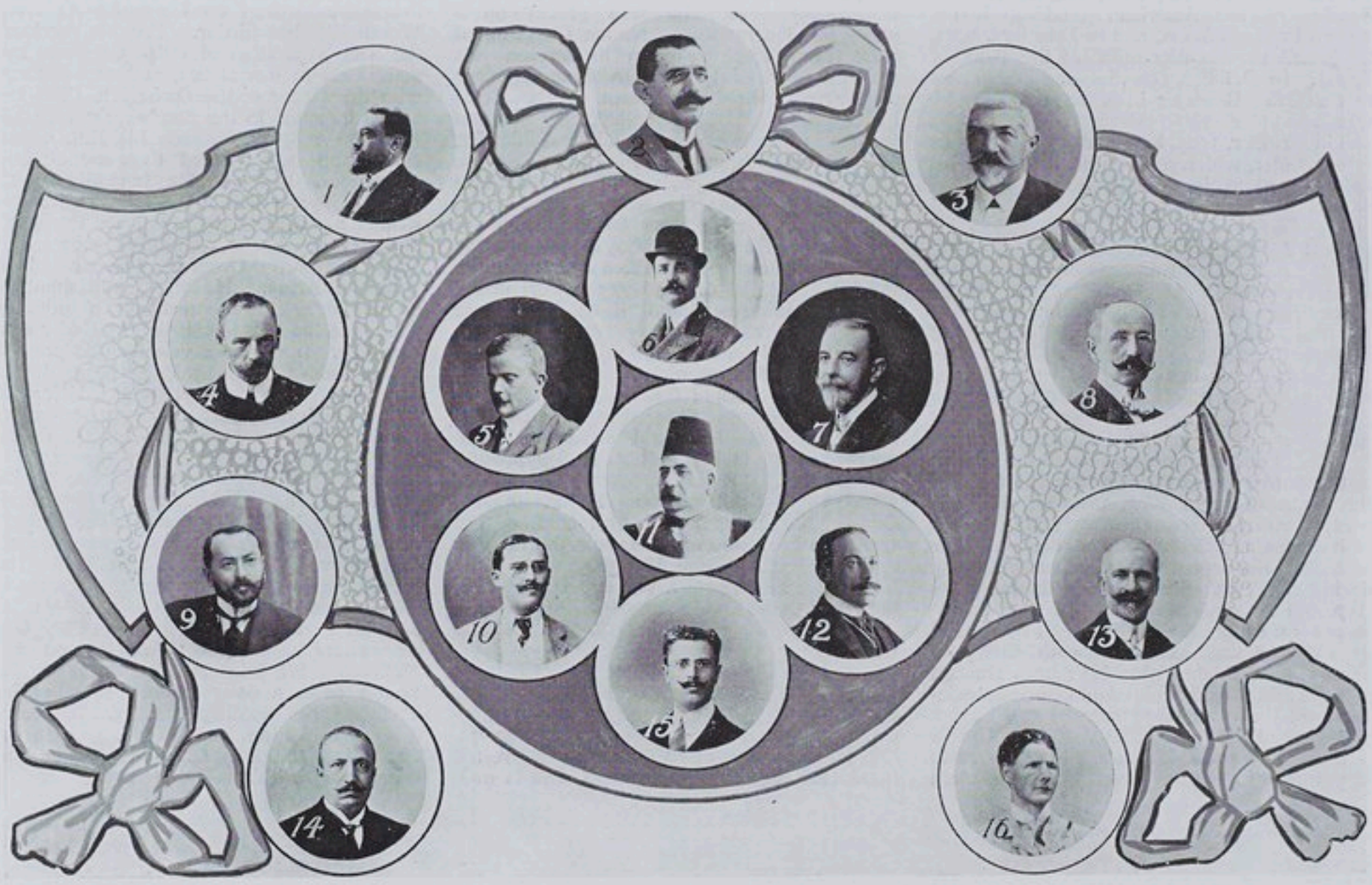
fondation de son honorable maison. Cette maison s'occupe de toutes opérations de banque en général ; elle a surtout dirigé ses efforts vers la clientèle indigène, et elle est en relations en France avec la plupart des membres du Syndicat des Banques de Province. Deux fois par mois elle publie une circulaire renfermant toutes sortes d'informations pouvant intéresser les capitalistes ayant des intérêts en Egypte.

SASSON, ISRAEL & CO. engage in all financial transactions, including mortgages, discounting bills, &c. They also trade in cotton and cotton-seed, as well as in the other agricultural produce of the interior. They own arable lands, and buildings, of which the most important are situated in Alexandria. The business was founded in 1871, under the style of Israel, Sasson & Co., by Messrs. W. Fiss, A. Israel, and S. Sasson. Owing to the death of his partners, Mr. S. Sasson became the head of the firm in 1904, and the present style was adopted.

MOUSSA YAHOUDHA MISRAHI ET FRÈRE, landowners, bankers, and mortgage brokers, the Mousky, Cairo, has been in existence some twenty-five years. The founder, Yahoudha Misrahi, a native of Algiers, leaving the business to his sons, Moussa Yahoudha Misrahi and Clement T. Misrahi. Both partners were born and educated in Cairo, and was educated at Turin. He spent five years with U. Geisser & Co., private bankers, and then joined the Banco di Sconto e di Sete at Turin, where he remained until 1895.

G. V. WHITE.—The Port Said branch of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank was established about twenty years ago and now occupies fine premises on ground belonging to the Bank in the Rue el-Nil. Mr. G. V. White, the manager, a native of Sussex, was born on May 24, 1871, and was educated at St. John's College, Hurstpierpoint. He has been in the service of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank for some twenty years, spending the first nine years in the London office and afterwards a year at Paris as submanager, and nine years at Malta in the same capacity. Since coming to Egypt he has been stationed successively at Alexandria, Mansourah and Port Said, his present appointment dating from July, 1907.

FRANK A. DE ROUGEMONT.—The National Bank of Egypt opened a branch at Port Said early in 1905, and during the course of the following year moved into new premises built on their own property, situated in the Chareh-el-Nil. The business transacted, like that at other branches, embraces all kinds of financial operations. The manager, Mr. Frank A. de Rougemont, a son of the late Commander Frank de Rougemont, R.N., is a descendant of the de Rougemonts of Rougemont, who settled in England some two hundred years ago. He comes of an old banking family, his grandmother being a Labouchere, a name so intimately connected with the fortunes of such world-renowned firms as Baring Brothers, Hope & Co., Amsterdam, the Banque de Paris et des Pays Bas, and Wilhiams Deacons Bank. Born on September 11, 1881, at Malvern, and educated at Kelly College, Devon, he travelled for a while on the Continent, and then joined Baring Bros., with whom he remained from 1901 to 1905. In the latter year he was appointed to the Alexandria Branch of the National Bank of Egypt, and in 1907 he was transferred to Port Said in his present



MEMBERS OF LEADING EGYPTIAN FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS.

1. Alfred Campos, Comptoir Financier et Commercial d'Egypte, Alexandria. 2. V. Borsege, Crédit Lyonnais, Port Said.
3. J. Petcovitch, Crédit Franco-Egyptien, Alexandria. 4. G. V. White, Anglo-Egyptian Bank, Port Said. 5. C. Dickson, National Bank of Egypt, Alexandria.
6. Baron Felix de Menasce, Alexandria. 7. Baron Manuel de Guerra, Bank of Rome, Alexandria. 8. Maurice Cattaui Bey.
9. Leopold Pollack, Cairo. 10. S. Ritscher, Deutsche Orientbank, Alexandria. 11. H.E. the late Luzzatto Pasha, Bank of Egypt, Alexandria.
12. F. M. Singer, Deutsche Orientbank, Cairo. 13. P. G. Athanassiu, Ionian Bank, Alexandria. 14. N. S. Francoudi, Banque d'Orient, Alexandria.
15. T. A. F. Critchley, Imperial Ottoman Bank, Alexandria. 16. Lewis Biddulph, Bank of Egypt, Port Said.

capacity. He is married to Gladys, a daughter of the late Thomas Bulteel, of Radford, Devon, and formerly partner in the firm of Harris Bulteel & Co., one of the oldest and most influential private banking houses in Devonshire. His chief recreations are cricket, tennis, golf, riding, and sailing, and he is a member of the New Union Club at Port Said.

LEWIS BIDDULPH.—The Port Said branch of the Bank of Egypt was established about twenty years ago, and now occupies imposing premises built on a site purchased by the Bank in the Chareh el-Nil. Mr. Lewis Biddulph, who has been manager of the Port Said branch since February, 1908, was born in London in June, 1876, and was educated at Charterhouse. He spent four years in the service of Brown, Shipley & Co., the London Branch of the American banking house, Brown Brothers & Co., and in February, 1900, he joined the London office of the Bank of Egypt. In October, 1900, he was transferred to the Cairo Branch ; in November, 1903, he was appointed sub-manager at Khartoum ; and in October, 1905, he returned to Cairo as sub-manager, which position he filled until his appointment to the management of the Port Said Branch.

HARRY MAULE CROOKSHANK PASHA, M.R.C.S., F.R.C.S. Edin., M.R.C.P. Ireland, F.R.G.S., Knight of Grace of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, is the third son of the late Captain Crookshank, 51st Regiment, and a grandson of the late Colonel C. Crookshank, K.H., 33rd Regiment. Born at Cudalore, India, in 1850, he was educated at Boulogne-Sur-Mer, France ; at Cheltenham, and at the University College Hospital, London. As surgeon to the British National Red Cross Society, he went through the Franco-German War, 1870–71, and was present with the German Army at the battles of Bazeilles and Sedan, and at the surrender of Metz. He served with the Turkish Army during the Turko-Servian and Russian Wars (1876–77) as surgeon-in-chief of the ambulances north of the Balkans. From 1878 to 1882 he was associated with Sir John Furley and the late Colonel Frances Duncan in organising the St. John Ambulance Association and the classes for first-aid to the sick and injured. In July, 1883, at the request of the British Foreign Office, he proceeded to Egypt to assist in suppressing the cholera epidemic then ravaging that country. At the same time he organised the Egyptian Prisons and Convict Administration, and on January 1, 1884, he accepted the appointment of Director-General of Egyptian Prisons. In 1885 he was temporarily attached to the British forces at Suakin during the Soudan campaign for the relief of Gordon. In 1889, at the request of the Sirdar (Lord Grenfell) of the Egyptian Army, he proceeded to Toski, and took charge of five thousand starving dervish women and children, who were afterwards distributed over Lower Egypt ; and for this service he was created Pasha. In 1897 he resigned the direction of the Prisons Administration and accepted the international post of British Comptroller-General of the Egyptian Daira Sanieh Debt. In 1906, the debt being liquidated, and the post of British Comptroller suppressed, he was placed on a small pension by the Egyptian Government after twenty-three years in its service. At present he is interested in financial work in Egypt. He is chairman of the Commercial Loans Bank, Limited, the Artesian Boring Company, the Omnium Financier, Limited; and he is on the board of the Daira Sanieh Company. His medals and decorations include the German war medal and French bronze cross for the campaign of 1870–71 ; the Turkish war medals and the Orders (third class) of Mejidieh and Osmanieh for the campaign of 1876–77 ; British medal with Suakin clasp, and Khedivial bronze cross for the Soudan War of 1885 ; the Order of St. John of Jerusalem ; the second-class of the Order of Osmanieh ; and the Grand Cordon (first class) of the Order of Mejidieh. For many years Crookshank Pasha has been one of the leading Freemasons in the country. He is P.D.D.G.M. of Egypt and the Soudan, P.D.D.G.M. of Mark Master Masons of North Africa, P.G.P. of the Grand Chapter of Egypt, and P.M. of the Grecia Lodge, No. 1105. He was the founder of the Pelusium Lodge, No. 3003, and of the Nubia Mark Lodge, No. 511, and is a P.M. of the last named. He married, in 1891, a daughter of Major Samuel Comfort, of the U.S.A. Army.

LIEUT.-COL. SIR JOHN GODFREY ROGERS, K.C.M.G., D.S.O., was at one time Director-General of the Sanitary Department in Egypt. Since his retirement he has been interested in several important Companies, and is now a director of the Agricultural Bank of Egypt, and of the Daira Sanieh, chairman of the Hamburg and Anglo-American Nile Company, and of the local committee of the Gresham Life Insurance Company, &c. Born on April 11, 1850, he was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, where he graduated B.A., M.B., and M.Ch. Entering the Army Medical Department in 1871, he served in the Afghan War of 1878-81 (medal). During the Egyptian campaign of 1882 he was present at the battles of Kassassin and Tel el Kebir, and was awarded the bronze star and medal with clasp, mentioned in despatches, and promoted to rank of Surgeon-Major. In 1883 he was lent to the Egyptian Army to act as principal medical officer during the cholera epidemic, and at the close of the year was confirmed in the appointment so that he might organise the entire medical service under Sir Evelyn Wood, the first Sirdar. For his services in the Nile Expedition of 1884-85 he was again mentioned in despatches, and was decorated with the Order of the Osmanieh, third class. While attached to the Soudan Frontier Field Force in 1885-86, he won his D.S.O. and a clasp, and was a third time mentioned in despatches. In the Suakin Expedition of 1888 he was appointed P.M.O. of the entire force, British as well as Egyptian, on the staff of Major-Genl. Sir F. Grenfell (now Field-Marshal Lord Grenfell), Sirdar of the Egyptian Army. He was again mentioned in despatches, and received an additional clasp, and the second class of the Order of the Mejidieh. In the same year he was promoted to the rank of Lewa, or Major-General in the Egyptian Army. In 1892 he retired from the Army Medical Department with the rank of Lieut.-Colonel, and resigned his appointment as P.M.O. of the Egyptian Army to be nominated Director-General of the Sanitary Department of the Ministry of the Interior. This office he held for seven years, and in recognition of his services was created a Companion of the Order of St. Michael and St. George in 1896, and a Knight Commander of the same Order in 1898. He was also decorated with the second class of the Order of Osmanieh, and the Grand Cordon of the Mejidieh. Sir John married, in 1883, Edith Louisa Julie, a daughter of the late Major Sykes, of the Bombay Cavalry. His recreations are fishing and shooting. He is a member of the Turf Club and of the Junior United Service Club, London.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

THE International Chamber of Commerce of Cairo was founded in May, 1903. Prior to that date no such institution existed in the city, and the need for a powerful organisation, capable of focussing the aims and aspirations of those engaged in commercial pursuits, without distinction of nationality, was keenly felt. Credit is due to Mr. Alfred Ferrero for taking the initiative in the formation of the Chamber. His task was scarcely easy. Many of those whom he approached were either indifferent to his scheme or pessimistic as to its results, while, of course, the diversity of the interested elements presented no little difficulty. In spite of these obstacles, however, Mr. Ferrero succeeded in enlisting the sympathy of several influential local people, and, with the aid of a provisional committee, he finally accomplished his object in April, 1903. This committee was composed of Mr. M. Adrien Leroux, ex-Director of the Société des Sucreries et Reffineries d'Egypte; the late Mr. Henry Wood, who then occupied the position of Director of the Imperial Ottoman Bank; Mr. M. Bretschneider, of the firm of M. Bretschneider & Co.; Mr. A. Ferrero, at that time acting under power of attorney for Messrs. Bretschneider & Co., whose business he subsequently acquired; Mr. Emile Dombre, manager of the Agricole du Nil Company; and Mr. Rudolph Stross, of the firm of Stross, Bros.

On May 9, Mr. Leroux presided over the first general assembly of members and explained that the aims of the Chamber were to seek by all proper means to promote the development and prosperity of the commerce and industries of Egypt. He pointed out that some very grave questions, affecting in the highest degree the general interests of the trading community, had been in suspense for a number of years, no settlement being possible in the absence of co-operation among those chiefly concerned. After the President's speech the meeting proceeded to frame rules for the conduct of business and to elect a working committee, which was composed of Messrs. M. A. Leroux (president), Henry Wood and M. Bretschneider (vice-presidents), E. Dombre and A. Ferrero (secretaries), Rudolph Stross (treasurer), A. Bircher, M. Cattaui Bey, E. Del Mar, Ali el-Gammal, N. Gianaclis, G. Hasselbach, L. Heller, R. Q. Henriques, J. Hug, M. Padova, A. Rostovitz Bey, Georges Schutz, Selim Sednaoui Bey, and Leo. Stern. Some days after the formation of the Committee Mr. Wood was stricken by an illness from which he never recovered, and Mr. G. Scott-Dalgleish, manager of the Agricultural Bank of Egypt, was appointed in his place as one of the vice-presidents. On the departure of Mr. Leroux from Egypt in December, 1905, the presidential chair was offered to and accepted by Mr. Scott-Dalgleish.

The first task of the committee was to open up relations with other chambers of commerce in Egypt and abroad. It appointed correspondents in the principal markets of the world, and soon succeeded in removing the prejudice with which the inauguration of the institution had been viewed. As a result, the membership, which numbered one hundred and thirty at the outset, rose to four hundred by April, 1904, and a bulletin issued by the committee attained a circulation of one thousand copies a month.

At the general meeting in April, 1904, the members re-elected the committee which had so ably conducted the early stages of the work, and during the ensuing twelve months the organisation was further improved. The first steps, too, were taken by the Chamber towards the settlement of trade disputes between the members and towards attempting the introduction of the many reforms desirable in the interests of the commercial community. In this latter connection it may be mentioned that the representations of the Chamber served as the basis of the decisions of the International Judiciary Conference on the question of the "Concordat preventif"; obtained from the Railway Administration the re-establishment of the system of issuing return tickets; induced the Consular Corps, without any sacrifice of their prerogatives, to consent to a consultation with the Chamber respecting the list of electors eligible to serve as assessors on the Mixed Tribunals; led the Government to inquire into the necessity for reforming and regulating the system of weights and measures; resulted, after the decree of January 7, 1905, relating to the rights of residence on the Alexandria quays, in measures being enacted consistent with the usages and the interests of commerce; and gave rise to the discussion of the question of "drawback" on tobacco between the authorities and those interested.

Many important questions have been dealt with by the present committee. Recently efforts have been made to induce the Government to establish a set of building laws as demanded by the Union of Contractors of Egypt. The establishment of a system of canal police, demanded by the Union of Fluvial Transporters, has also been urged, whilst it was in consequence of steps taken by the Chamber that several appreciable improvements were effected in the telephone service; that the Railway Administration agreed to allow merchants forty-eight hours for the withdrawal of their goods before imposing storage charges; and, finally, that a scheme is now being prepared for the re-organisation of the Mixed Tribunals to meet the present-day requirements of the country.

The Chamber has encouraged the formation of professional combinations, and it is due to this that the contractors to the Public Works Department and the various fluvial transport companies have grouped themselves into associations, delegates from which have a seat on the committee of the Chamber. Finally, one of the happiest results achieved has been the amicable settlement of disputes between merchants who have submitted their claims to the Chamber for arbitration.

GEOFFREY SCOTT DALGLEISH, president of the International Chamber of Commerce, came to Egypt in 1807 to join the Irrigation Department, and two years later left in order to inaugurate for the National Bank a system of loans to the fellaheen. When the Agricultural Bank was founded in 1902 he was appointed manager, a position he still holds. A native of Edinburgh, he graduated B.Sc. (Engineering) at the University of that city, and has since been admitted an associate member of the Institute of Civil Engineers.

MAURICE CATTAUI BEY, vice-president of the International Chamber of Commerce, is one of the senior partners in the well-known firm of J. M. Cattaui, Sons, & Co., bankers, and has considerable interests in various other financial concerns. He was born in 1852 at Cairo, where he was educated privately, and on leaving school he spent some time in Paris and then returned to Alexandria in partnership with Piha, Cousins. Eventually he joined his father, the late Jacoub M. Cattaui Bey, a former well-known banker. He and his brothers Joseph and Eli were admitted into the partnership, and the firm has since been known as J. M. Cattaui, Sons, & Co. Mr. Maurice Cattaui is a director of the Credit Foncier Egyptien, the Delta Light Railways,

the Delta Land Company, the Tantah Water Company, the Société Foncière d'Egypte, the Société Sheik Fadel, the National Bank of Egypt, and the Keneh and Assouan Railway. He was also one of the founders of the Compagnie Immobiliére but has since retired from the board. He takes a great interest in charitable and social organisations. He and his brother, Jousef Cattaui Bey, are presidents of the Cairo Jewish Community. He is the president of the Austro-Hungarian Colony and one of the directors of the Society for the Protection of Infants. Married to a daughter of the late Dr. Rossi Bey, of Cairo, he has three sons and one daughter. Of his sons, Gustav and Edgar are partners in the firm of Cattaui Frères, bankers, while Hector is a musical composer. His brother, Mr. Jousef Cattaui Bey, who was born in Cairo in 1846, is a director of the Société Foncière d'Egypte, and is president of the Jewish Community in Cairo. Two sons of Mr. Jousef Cattaui are partners in the firm of Cattaui Frères, and the third is a well-known local architect.

M. BRETSCHNEIDER, vice-president of the International Chamber of Commerce, is a son of the late Alexander Bretschneider, a former manufacturer of Leipzig. He came to Egypt in 1864, and was associated with his brother-in-law in the firm of Zachmann & Co., importers. In 1873 he took over the whole business himself, and changed the name of the firm to Bretschneider & Co. He transferred the business in 1906 to Messrs. Ferrero & Co. He is a director of the Société Anonyme Agricole et Industrielle d'Egypte, of the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, of the Deutsche Orientbank (local board), of the Tantah Water Company, and of the Keneh-Assouan Railways. He was for many years Consul for Holland. He is a Commander of the Order of Mejidieh, and was decorated by the Queen of Holland with the Order of Orange-Nassau, and by the King of Prussia with the Order of the Prussian Crown. He has two daughters, one married to Dr. Axel Preyer, Consul for Holland, and the other to Mr. Alexis de Woievodsky, Secretary to the Russian Embassy at Karlsruhe.

A. FERRERO, honorary secretary of the International Chamber of Commerce, Cairo, and one of the original founders of that institution, is a son of the late Antonio Ferrero, a former merchant of Genoa. He was born in Genoa in 1857, and after completing his education in Switzerland he returned to his native city in order to enter upon a commercial career. He travelled for various houses until 1888, when he joined the firm of Albert Seeger & Co., of Alexandria, as manager. In 1892 he accepted a similar position with the firm of Messrs. Bretschneider & Co., of Cairo, and eventually became proprietor of the business, which he now carries on under the style of Ferrero & Co. He has been an assessor of the Cairo Mixed Tribunals since 1904. He is married to Margaret, a daughter of Mr. G. Parvis, the well-known proprietor of the firm of that name.

FRANÇOIS ROM, who is on the committee of the Cairo International Chamber of Commerce, is of Belgian parentage, and was born in Paris in 1869. Educated primarily in Antwerp, and at a school in Germany, he completed his studies at the College of Marcq-en-Barœul, in France, and then, in 1895, went on Antwerp Stock Exchange. Three years later, he took Mr. Albert Vanderlinden into partnership with him, the new firm being known as Rom & Vanderlinden. In 1903, a branch was opened in Brussels; and in 1905, Mr. Rom having in the meantime visited Egypt as a tourist, the business was extended to Cairo, under the style of Rom, Vanderlinden & Co. At the same time, a branch was opened in Paris; and the fact of their being represented on the principal Continental markets has placed the firm in a very strong position for arbitrage, and they attained some splendid results in that direction. At the end of 1907, Mr. Rom, wishing to consolidate the Cairo business, sold it to the Société Générale Egyptienne, a condition of the sale being that he should remain as managing director of the concern for at least five years. Mr. Rom is a director of the Société des Travaux Publics du Caire, a sub-company of the Heliopolis Oasis Company; and of the Société des Terrains du Caire et de sa Banlieue, a Belgo-Egyptian land company. He is chairman of the Cairo Suburban Building Land Company, and quite recently he has been asked by Sir William Willcocks to join the board of the Anglo-Egyptian Land Allotment Company. Although a Belgian, Mr. Rom is quite English in his liking for hunting, golf, tennis, and other sports. His favourite pastime, however, is fencing. He captained the Belgian epée team at the Olympic Games held in London in 1908.

R. Q. HENRIQUES is a member of the committee of the International Chamber of Commerce and a vice-president of the British Chamber of Commerce. A son of the late Edward Michols Henriques, and a grandson of the founder of the well-known Manchester house of that name, he came to Egypt in 1891 to open a branch of the firm under the style of Henriques & Henriques. This business he carried on until 1907, when he liquidated it in order to accept the general managership of the Delta Land Investment Company, Limited. He is now also on the board of the Salt and Soda Company. For the last fifteen years he has been an assessor judge of the Mixed Tribunals. He is a member of the Turf Club, Cairo; the Constitutional Club, Manchester; and the Sports Club, London.

RUDOLPH STROSS has been honorary treasurer of the International Chamber of Commerce in Cairo ever since its formation. He is also a director of the Austro-Hungarian Benevolent Society, and the administrator of the Austro-Hungarian Hospital. A son of Mr. Emanuel Stross, merchant, he was born in Alexandria in 1872. He was educated in Vienna, and, on his return to Egypt in 1894, he joined the firm of Stross Brothers, founded by his father. Subsequently, he was placed in charge of the Cairo branch of the business, and in 1900 was admitted a partner. Mr. Stross is a Chevalier of the Order of Francis Joseph, and has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class.

MAURICE GRUNBERG, manager for Messrs. John Ross & Co., commission merchants, forwarding agents, and Army and Navy contractors, will be remembered as having represented the firm in the lawsuit against the Wakfs Administration, in which the plaintiffs won what was described at the time as "a victory of great moment," affecting "the economical development of Cairo and its progress in hygiene and art." Born in the Dutch East Indies in 1860, and educated at Batavia, Mr. Grunberg spent some years in travelling for various firms, and visited the Straits Settlements, the Philippines, China, Japan, British India, Asia Minor, Australia, Switzerland, France, and Syria. He then became manager of the Prince Line General Agency at Beyrout, in which position he remained for seven years. In 1901 he proceeded to Alexandria, and entered the service of the Crédit Lyonnais as auditor. In the following year he left for Cairo to take up his present appointment, the bank giving him a certificate expressing their appreciation of his services and their regret at his departure.

GEORGE SCHUTZ, who has been a member of the committee of the International Chamber of Commerce since its formation, was born in 1856 at Alexandria, where his father carried on business for many years as a general merchant. Mr. Schutz joined the firm of G. Lumbroso, merchants, in 1874, and about two years later established himself in business in Cairo as a general merchant, exporting gum, ostrich feathers, ivory, senemeka, &c., and importing hardware, machinery, sanitary appliances, and building materials. He opened a branch at Khartoum, but, owing to the trouble in the Soudan in 1883, he found it necessary to close the premises. He also visited Abyssinia, and whilst there bought a number of ostriches, with which he stocked a large farm at Matarieh. This property now belongs to a private company. Mr. Schutz has a depôt at Faggala, and a charcoal factory at Fum el Khalig, but his principal establishment is situated in the Midan Bab el Hadid, Cairo.

ANDRÉ BIRCHER, who has been a member of the committee of the International Chamber of Commerce for some years, is one of the best-known and most highly respected men in local commercial circles. He came to Egypt in 1861, and four years later began business as a general merchant, importing goods from France, Switzerland, Germany, and other countries, and exporting various products from Egypt and the Soudan, such as gum arabic, senna leaves, moka coffee, ivory, wax, and ostrich feathers. At the present day he has a large depôt at Boulac, where he employs some eighty persons, chiefly in the preparation of gum and senna leaves for the market. In 1886 he opened a branch in Alexandria, and in the same year acquired a brick and plaster factory at El Saff in Upper Egypt, where he has installed modern machinery. The factory now has an output of about 5,000,000 bricks and 25,000 tons of plaster per annum, and gives employment to not less than two hundred workmen. Mr. Bircher has since acquired a second factory at Ghamaza, which produces about 12,000 tons of plaster a year. Mr. Bircher has not, however, confined his energies entirely to the organisation and development of his various commercial enterprises. In 1869 he was appointed a judge of the Commercial Tribunal, and since the reform of the Law Courts he has been an assessor judge of the Mixed Tribunal. One of the founders of the Khedivial Geographical Society, he still has a seat on the committee. Son of the late Andrew Bircher, a silk ribbon manufacturer in Switzerland, Mr. Bircher has taken a prominent place amongst the local Swiss community. He has been president of the Swiss Club in Cairo since its formation fifteen years ago, and he is a member of the Swiss Society of Natural Science. His son, Mr. Alfred Bircher, is in charge of the factories in Upper Egypt.

PARISSI BELLENI, who is on the committee of the International Chamber of Commerce in Cairo, is a prominent member of the Greek community. He is president of the Centre Hellenique, and vice-president of the Cercle Hellenique, and of the Corporation Pan-Hellenique. A native of Laros, in Turkey, he came to Egypt at the age of fourteen, and was employed in Upper



MEMBERS OF THE CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE.

1. Marcel Poilay Bey, French. 2. Evangelos D. Pappadopoulos, Greek. 3. Nicolas G. Naxopoulos, Greek. 4. L. Schuller, French. 5. Percy Smith, British. 6. Albert Palacci, International. 7. D. Macdonald, British. 8. G. Alex. Alderson, British. 9. Aug. Diab, French. 10. Albert Haim, International. 11. W. D. Smith, British. 12. Constantin N. Pappa, Greek. 13. Henri Nahman, Austrian. 14. J. W. Congdon, British. 15. Adolfe Stross, Chairman, Austro-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce. 16. Maurice Grunberg, International. 17. K. P. Birley, British. 18. Adolphe Cattaui-Aslan, International. 19. R. O. Henriques, International. 20. Constantin G. Coromili, Greek. 21. George A. Williams, Vice-President, British Chamber of Commerce. 22. R. J. Moss, British Chamber of Commerce. 23. H. K. Baynes, Hon. Secretary, British Chamber of Commerce. 24. Parissi Belleni, International. 25. Constantine K. Griva, Greek. 26. D. Theodorakis, Vice-President, Greek Chamber of Commerce. 27. M. Bretschneider, Vice-Chairman, International Chamber of Commerce. 28. Dr. Clelio Galetti, Hon. Treasurer, Italian Chamber of Commerce. 29. Peter A. Malone. 30. M. Pegna, Italian. 31. François Rom, International. 32. E. G. C. Moss, British. 33. R. Lang Anderson, British. 34. H. E. Barker, British. 35. Jean D. Tsoulakides, Greek. 36. André Bircher, International. 37. F. W. Cuming, British. 38. Cav. Domenico Faro, Italian. 39. M. Morpurgo, Italian. 40. Victor Stephen Celi, Italian. 41. George Schutz, International. 42. F. Mackinnon, British. 43. Grégoire G. Drossos, Greek. 44. K. F. Vogel, British. 45. E. A. Giles, British. 46. Victor F. Naggiar, British. 47. M. Montano, British. 48. Michel Sinadino, Greek.

Egypt by Mr. S. Kayenstein, a Government contractor. In 1893, he decided to set up in business for himself, and has carried out numerous contracts for the excavation of canals, the construction of bridges and water regulators, and all kinds of irrigation work. Altogether, he has been responsible for upwards of 30,000,000 cubic metres of excavations. The most important work of this nature entrusted to him was the cutting of the Ibrahimieh Canal. The canal is 26 kilometres in length, 30 metres in breadth, and 6 metres in depth, and the work involved the removal of no less than 1,620,000 cubic metres of earth. By employing 16,000 men, however, Mr. Belleni was able to complete the work in the record time of thirty days, or ten days under the time stipulated in the contract. Chief among the other works entrusted to him may be mentioned the construction of the large syphons at Gizeh and Muhit. His offices are situated in the Kasr-el-Nil. He is married to Elvira, a daughter of the late Andrea Ambrosoli, of Cairo. He owns considerable areas of land, and devotes some portion of his time to agriculture.

F. M. SINGER, manager of the Deutsche Orientbank, A.G., has been a member of the International Chamber of Commerce since its foundation, and now occupies a seat on the committee. The son of Mr. J. Singer, a gentleman of independent means in Vienna, he was born in 1872, and received his education at the Academy of Commerce, Vienna. After spending two years on the Stock Exchange, he entered the service of several private banks, and was eventually drafted to Egypt by the Crédit Lyonnais, holding for eleven years the position of *fondé de pouvoir*. In 1906 he became manager of the Banque de Salonique, and the following year saw him manager of the Deutsche Orientbank, a position which he still fills. He is also a director of the Artesian boring and Prospecting Company. At the beginning of 1909 Mr. Singer was appointed Commercial Judge of the Mixed Tribunals. He is a Knight of the Order of Francis Joseph, and a Commander of the Order of Osmanieh.

RICHARD E. STONE, a member of the committees of the International Chamber of Commerce and of the Bourse, came to Cairo in 1892 as manager of the local branch of the Bank of Egypt. Three years later, he resigned that position in order to go on the Bourse, and he is now one of the leading stockbrokers in Cairo. A son of the late William Stone, a well-known London merchant, he was born in 1858, and was educated in England, Germany, and France. He is a member of the Sports Club, London, and of the Turf Club, Cairo.

J. W. CONGDON & CO.—The activities of J. W. Congdon & Co. cover a wide field. Founded in 1894, the firm carry on the business of Government contractors, army agents, forwarding and shipping agents, auctioneers, and house, land, estate, and commission agents. They have also established a factory for the manufacture of high-class Egyptian cigarettes. Their offices are situated opposite to the British headquarters, and they are represented at Alexandria, Assiout, Assouan, Port Said, Suez, Trieste, Hamburg, and elsewhere. Large shipments of local products and manufactures, as well as valuable collections of Egyptian antiquities for museums and other institutions in Germany and the United States, are entrusted to the firm, which has been patronised by H.H. the Khedive, Field-Marshal H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, H.R.H. the Duke of Bragança, Lord Cromer, and the General Officer Commanding in Egypt. Mr. J. W. Congdon, the founder of the firm, was in early life a student at the Civil Engineering College at Madras and for thirty-five years served in the British Army. He went through the Egyptian Campaign of 1882, and served later with the expeditionary force sent to the relief of Gordon, receiving the usual medals at the close. On his retirement from the Army after his extended period of service, he returned to Egypt, and establishing the firm which bears his name, entered upon his commercial career. Since he has lived in Cairo he has been closely identified with the local Musical and Dramatic Society, of which he is now the director, and his efforts in furtherance of local philanthropic movements are well known.

ADOLPHE CATTAUI-ASLAN, qui, en 1907, fut élu Président de la Corporation des Agents de Change, est un de ces hommes éminents, qui ont su, les premiers en Egypte, tirer parti, dans le courant d'une carrière toute de travail, de la connaissance du droit. Fils de feu Aslan Cattaui, il termina ses études secondaires à Paris, au Lycée Condorcet, et plus tard fit son droit à la Faculté de cette ville. Désirant se perfectionner encore, il suivit l'enseignement du Collège de France, et de l'Ecole des Hautes Etudes, tandisque, pour connaître à fond l'archéologie égyptienne, il assistait aux cours de l'Ecole du Louvre. En 1886, il fut chargé par le Gouvernement français d'une mission scientifique en Egypte. Revenu dans la Vallée du Nil en 1890, il fit partie du barreau égyptien, mais se démit de ses fonctions dans le courant de l'année suivante, et suivant le conseil de son beau-frère, Monsieur Félix Suarès, il fonda diverses Sociétés locales. Monsieur Cattaui est actuellement dans sa 43me année.

BRITISH CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF EGYPT.

BY H. M. DODWELL, Secretary to the Chamber and Editor of the Monthly Journal.

AT the commencement of the year 1896, Lord Cromer, who was then Her Majesty's Consul-General and Minister Plenipotentiary in Egypt, suggested to the late Mr. S. H. Carver, of Messrs. Carver Bros. & Co., Ltd., Alexandria, that it would be in the interests of British trade in Egypt if a British Chamber of Commerce were formed. The outcome of this suggestion was a meeting held on February 19, 1896, at Messrs. Carver's offices in Alexandria. The meeting was attended by the following prominent British subjects :—G. B. Alderson, H. Barker, S. H. Carver, Robert J. Moss, W. Peel, and A. A. Ralli. At the meeting (Mr. H. Barker in the chair) it was pointed out that, whereas all the other important European nationalities had their own Chambers of Commerce in Egypt, the British community had no such organisation, and it was finally agreed in principle to form one. At a meeting held on March 4, 1896, the Chamber was inaugurated, and it has carried on its work uninterruptedly ever since.

The following gentlemen formed the first committee of the Chamber :—Messrs. H. Barker, Robert J. Moss, F. Allchin, F. Allen, F. C. Atherton, Duke Baker, S. H. Carver, T. F. Davies, W. Getty, J. Goar, A. A. Ralli, and C. Rodocanachi. The first two occupied the positions of president and vice-president respectively, whilst the duties of hon. secretary and treasurer were undertaken by Mr. S. H. Carver. The annual subscription to the Chamber was fixed at £1, payable on January 1. The subscription has since remained at this figure, though in April, 1905, it was decided to allow members to join for twelve months from the first day of any month.

In the early part of the year 1903 it was thought advisable, in view of the important British commercial interests centred in the Egyptian capital, which often have a special bearing on the aspect of British trade with Egypt as a whole, to arrange for their representation on the committee of the British Chamber. The result of the negotiations which took place in the matter was the formation of an influential and representative Cairo committee, with Sir William Willcocks, K.C.M.G., as president, Mr. R. Q. Henriques as hon. secretary, and the following gentlemen as members :—Capt. A. Adams, R.E., Mr. S. R. Cookson, Mr. E. A. Harrison, Mr. A. H. Hooker, Mr. G. B. Kerr, Mr. A. Kingsford, Mr. J. Grech Mifsud, Dr. H. Nolan, Mr. F. T. Rowlatt, and Mr. G. Walker.

The following is a list of the presidents and vice-presidents of the Chamber since the commencement :—

	President.	Vice-President.
1896	Mr. H. Barker	Mr. Robert J. Moss.
1897	"	"
1898	"	"
1899	"	"
1900	"	"
1901	Mr. S. H. Carver.	Mr. H. P. Kingham.
1902	"	"
1903	Mr. R. C. Abdy.	Mr. H. E. Barker.
1904	"	"
1905	Mr. H. P. Kingham.	Mr. A. A. Ralli.
1906	"	"
1907	Mr. S. H. Carver.	Mr. R. Lang Anderson.
	(Mr. Carver died 17th May, 1907, and Mr. Robert J. Moss was then elected president.)	
1908	Mr. Robert J. Moss.	Mr. R. Lang Anderson.
1909	Mr. Percy W. Carver.	Mr. G. A. Williams.

It would be difficult to attempt to give anything like a complete list of the various subjects which have engaged the attention of the Chamber during the twelve years of its existence. The following three extracts from the work done each year will show the scope of the Chamber :—

1896.—Trade marks and patents.
Bankrupt estates in the Mixed Courts.
Urgent Telegrams.

1897.—Exclusion of the English language from the Mixed Courts of Justice.
Government tender system.
Lack of sufficient rolling stock on State Railways.

1898.—Alexandria port accommodation.
Procedure in the Mixed Courts.
Railway return tickets.

1899.—Government tender system.
Cotton Ginning Factories.
Alexandria Municipal contract for Quay.

1900.—Goods Traffic Rates.
Control of weights and measures.
Police control of traffic on quays and at the goods station.

1901.—Inadequate quay accommodation.
Cargo weighers.
Value payable parcel post.

1902.—Scarcity of silver currency.
Delay in transit of London mails.
Port of Alexandria.

1903.—Damage to cotton on quays.
Colliery certificates.
Quarantine restrictions.

1904.—Inland transportation in Egypt.
Port of Alexandria.
Exclusion of English language from the Mixed Courts.
1905.—Lifeboat scheme for Alexandria.
Disputes re gunny bags.
Folding and marking of cotton piece goods.
1906.—Bankruptcy laws.
Complaints re "ardieh."
Transit of the Indian Mail through Egypt.
1907. The Egyptian General Assembly.
Commercial examination scheme of the London Chamber of Commerce.
Classified list of traders.
1908.—Holding of real property in Egypt by British subjects.
The decision of nullity re the City and Agricultural Lands Company.
Protesting of bills in Egypt.

In the original Articles of Association—which have practically remained unaltered since the commencement—the following, amongst others, appeared under the heading "Functions of the Committe":—

"To collect and impart information useful for British trade with Egypt.

"To intervene with H.B.M.'s officials, and with Egyptian officials, in all matters affecting the general interests of British trade, and in all ways possible to be watchful of the interests of British trade in Egypt.

"To give advice to members, and to H.B.M.'s officials, on questions relating to commercial usage.

"To represent to the proper quarter all questions brought to its notice relating to infringements of British trade marks, patents, &c., also to infringements of tariffs and treaties, which may, in the opinion of the Committee, affect the general interests of British trade in Egypt.

"To assist in the arrangement of Arbitrations and Conciliations in cases of commercial disputes when so requested."

A glance at the above extracts readily shows that, briefly put, the main objects of the Chamber are (1) to protect British interests in Egypt; and (2) to assist, as far as possible, in the development of Home trade with Egypt.

With regard to the first object, the Chamber is always prepared actively to lend its support to the promotion of any measure, or of any alteration in an existing law, which may be of assistance to British manufacturers or their agents.

Again, the Committee is invariably willing to devote time to the discussion of any regulation or practices which may be found to be unduly handicapping British trade, and to take the necessary steps to have the same modified, if such be possible.

It is in the carrying out of the work involved in the second *raison d'être* of the Chamber that advantages accrue to members as individuals. In the first place, the Chamber lays itself out to procure reliable agents for manufacturers by putting the latter in touch with suitable houses here. The importance of this work is obvious, since practically everything depends upon the home firm having a trustworthy representative.

The Chamber is prepared to give confidential reports on the financial standing and commercial morality of a proposed agent or buyer, and thus to assist its members in keeping their bad debt accounts as low as possible.

In various cases, material assistance has been rendered to manufacturers who found themselves in conflict with their agents over money matters. Whilst a regular practice of debt collecting cannot, of course, be made, members may always rely upon receiving the help of the Chamber when in such difficulties.

Chambers of Commerce in other countries are from time to time approached on behalf of members requiring some special local information. Any particulars relating to trade in Egypt—whether in the nature of statistics or otherwise—are readily supplied on application. In short, to put the matter in a nutshell, the entire services of the Chamber are at the disposal of its members, and this without any charge being made beyond the small annual subscription.

When the Chamber was first formed it was not strong enough, financially or otherwise, to issue a monthly journal, and, consequently, an annual report was the only publication during the year. In October, 1903, however, the report was changed to a monthly one, it being thought that, by keeping British traders regularly informed of all that closely touched their commercial relations with Egypt, the Chamber might be of assistance to them in maintaining their existing trade, in attracting their attention to fresh openings, and—to use the words of the introductory article to the first monthly journal—in "gradually incorporating the various British interests into one body for all purposes that require united representation or action." These reports are supplied post free month by month to members, and it is the editor's constant endeavour to make them of distinct help in keeping subscribers in touch with various phases of commercial life in Egypt. Suggestions for improving the usefulness of the journal are always welcome, and will be carefully studied.

Such, in brief, are the advantages offered to members individually in return for a nominal subscription—commencing from any date—of £1 per annum. Apart from these considerations there is the broader view that the Chamber exists for the benefit of Great Britain's interests in Egypt, and on this ground alone the committee may be considered justified in holding the opinion that all British firms engaged in the Egyptian trade ought to lend them their support. This is especially the case when it is remembered that the Chamber—unlike similar organisations belonging to other nationalities—receives no subvention from Government. Outside the question of finances, however, it is quite clear that the greater the number of members, the greater will be the power and influence of the Chamber for the good of British trade in Egypt.

In addition to its monthly journal, the Chamber publishes at infrequent intervals a brochure, entitled "List of Companies established in Egypt."

The first edition appeared in May, 1899; the second in July, 1900; the third, June, 1901; the fourth, June, 1905; whilst the fifth issue was made in June, 1907.

The fifth edition, which was the last one published, was sold at one shilling a copy. It contained information relating to no less than 227 companies.

The present secretary, Mr. H. M. Dodwell, was appointed in May, 1905. The offices are situated at No. 6, Rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, Alexandria.

The honorary secretary to the Cairo Committee of the Chamber is Mr. H. K. Baynes, with offices in Prince Djellal's Buildings, Chareh Emad-el-Dine, Cairo.

The following are the officers for the year 1909:—

President of the Chamber: P. W. Carver.
Vice-President: G. A. Williams.
Honorary Treasurer: R. C. Abdy.

Committee: R. C. Abdy, of E. Mallison & Co.; H. E. Barker, of Barker & Co.; K. P. Birley, of Peel & Co.; J. Davies Bryan, of Davies Bryan & Co.; P. W. Carver, of Carver, Bros., & Co., Ltd.; A. G. M. Dickson, sub-governor, National Bank of Egypt; H. P. Kingham, chairman, Kafr el Zayat Cotton Company, Ltd.; P. A. Malone, of Thos. Hinshelwood & Co., Ltd.; R. J. Moss, of R. J. Moss & Co.; V. F. Naggiar, of Borsali, Naggiar & Co.; A. A. Ralli; G. A. Williams, of Julius Liepmann & Co.'s Successors.

Cairo Committee: President of the Cairo Committee, F. T. Rowlatt; vice-president, R. Q. Henriques; honorary secretary, H. K. Baynes.

Committee: H. K. Baynes, managing director, Egyptian Engineering Company, Ltd.; S. de Bilinski, manager, Anglo-Belgian Company of Egypt; R. L. Devonshire, solicitor; R. Q. Henriques, of the Egyptian Delta Land and Investment Company; J. Grech Mifsud, barrister-at-law; W. E. Kingsford, land and mortgage agent; J. Macdonald, of Macdonald & Co.; F. Phillips, of F. Phillips & Co.; P. Plunkett, of Au "Dé Rouge"; F. T. Rowlatt, governor, National Bank of Egypt; F. H. Russell, of Russell, Kerr & Wyatt, chartered accountants; A. V. Thomson, secretary for Egypt, the Standard Life Assurance Company.

Honorary Secretary at Suez: N. H. Beyts, of Beyts & Co.

Honorary Auditors: Russell, Kerr & Wyatt, chartered accountants, Alexandria, Cairo, and London.

Honorary Legal Adviser: A. S. Preston, barrister-at-law, Alexandria.

London Agents: Messrs. Back & Manson, Egypt House, 36, New Broad Street, London, E.C.

MR. H. M. DODWELL, the secretary of the British Chamber of Commerce, is also secretary of the Union Club, the exclusively British Club of Alexandria. Previous to taking up these appointments, he was with the agent in Egypt of the Yorkshire Insurance Company, in whose head office he had been for ten and a half years at York.

PERCY W. CARVER, the president of the British Chamber of Commerce of Egypt, was born at Gibraltar in 1860. After being educated in England, he came to Egypt in 1879 and entered the firm of Carver Brothers & Co., Ltd., who are among the leading exporters of Egyptian cotton and cotton seed. In addition to being the senior director in Egypt of Carver Brothers & Co., Ltd., Mr. P. W. Carver is on the boards of several other companies, amongst which may be mentioned the following:—The Egyptian Delta Light Railways, Ltd., the Société Générale de Pressage et de Dépôts, the Associated Cotton Ginners of Egypt, Ltd., and the Alexandria General Produce Association. He is also the honorary treasurer of the last-mentioned association. Philanthropic and other works of allied nature in Alexandria have always found a warm supporter in Mr. Carver. At the present moment he is president of the Rudolph Home for the Poor, and honorary treasurer of several public institutions, such as the Victoria House and Nurses' Home, the Protestant Cemetery (of which he is also a trustee), the Alexandria Horticultural Society, and the British Club; whilst he is also a trustee of the ground occupied by the Alexandria Cricket Club. Mr. Carver married, in 1870, Margaret Evelyne, daughter of Mr. Robert J. Moss, of Alexandria. His private address is Bulkeley, Ramleh, Alexandria.

GEORGE ALFRED WILLIAMS, vice-president of the British Chamber of Commerce, Alexandria, is general manager of J. Liepmann & Co.'s Successors in Egypt. The son of the late Mr. Edward Williams, merchant, Cairo, he was born at Suez on April 23, 1849, and was educated at Crofthouse School, near Carlisle, Cumberland. He returned to Egypt in 1862, and six years later joined the firm of Mr. William Magnus, who represented J. Liepmann & Co., Manchester. From the position of clerk he rose to be head of the Cairo house, and in 1879 removed to Alexandria. On the death of Mr. Magnus, the resident partner, he was appointed general manager for Egypt. He married Margaret, daughter of Mr. William Carlisle, and has two sons and one daughter. He has been on the committee of the British Chamber of Commerce since its foundation, and became vice-chairman this year. He was formerly vice-president of the Importers' Association, and is a member of the committee of the British Benevolent Fund.

ROBERT LANG ANDERSON, who was vice-president of the British Chamber of Commerce, Alexandria, until February, 1909, came to Egypt in 1887 and has since been engaged in various land projects, chief among them being the reclamation of Lake Aboukir. This lake was a low depression lying along Aboukir Bay, about a metre or a metre and a half below sea level, and extending to within six miles of Alexandria. An inroad of the sea about the middle of the eighteenth century destroyed the prosperity of a region which had been cultivated from time immemorial, as the traces of canals and drains and the remains of villages give ample proof. The scheme carried out by the Aboukir Co., Ltd., of which Mr. Anderson is managing director, has restored to use some 30,000 acres, estimated to be worth £3,000,000 sterling. Mr. Anderson is the third son of the late Mathew Anderson, a leading Scotch lawyer, and was born at Ardrossan, Ayrshire, in 1853. He was educated at the Glasgow Academy and at the Glasgow and Edinburgh Universities, where he became a Medallist in Agriculture, and secured his diploma as a life member of the Highland Agricultural Society of Scotland. After a varied training in agriculture, estate management, and engineering in Scotland, he went to India, where for six years he managed his own tea estates. Since his arrival in Egypt he has become recognised as an authority on all land and agricultural questions, and has been chairman, adviser, and director of several land companies. He has been decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, second class. In 1883 he married Mary, only daughter of the late William Grant, of Calcutta, who secured the Lake Aboukir concession and took the initiative in its reclamation. Mr. Anderson has a charming residence, known as the Blue House, at San Stefano, Ramleh.

ROBERT JOHNSON MOSS was president of the British Chamber of Commerce during the years 1907 and 1908, and held the post of vice-president from the foundation of the chamber (1896) to 1900. He has completed forty-eight years of residence in Egypt, and may rightly be regarded as the doyen of British residents in Alexandria. He is the third son of the late William Miles Moss, of Liverpool, and was born on June 30, 1838. Educated at private schools in the north of England, and at the well-known Pension Sillig, of Vevey, Switzerland, he commenced, in 1854, a five years' apprenticeship with Duckworth & Rathbone, cotton brokers, Liverpool, and he found time, outside office hours, to qualify as an efficient in the first Lancashire Volunteer Rifles, 1859–60. After a few months' further experience in his father's office, and on the Liverpool Corn Exchange with Cunliffe, Paton & Co., he travelled out to Egypt with his father on the Moss ss. *Atlantic*, arriving in Alexandria on December 4, 1860. He has ever since been intimately connected with the commercial, social, and public life of Alexandria. He commenced business as a cotton exporter, intending to proceed the next cotton season to America, but the outbreak of the Civil War frustrated this plan, and finally he decided to settle in Egypt. The firm of R. J. Moss & Co. was opened in 1861, the two partners being Robert J. Moss and his younger brother, William B. Moss, who arrived from Liverpool the same year, after serving his five years' apprenticeship in the steam shipping firm of Lamport & Holt; but Mr. W. B. Moss died in Jamaica on his twenty-fourth birthday, 1863, and Mr. R. J. Moss was left alone. Many and varied are his reminiscences of the early days, from 1860 to 1862, when there were no gas lights, no police, no paved or macadamised roads, no footpaths, no house water supply, no taxation, no breakwater, no quays, no steam tugs or launches, and few carriages or conveyances for travellers, when sailing ships were more numerous than steamers, and when cotton-seed was unknown as an article of export, and was burnt as fuel! The first shipment of cotton seed went to Marseilles in 1863, and the two following years saw the trade developing to London. At the present time the export, taken on the average of the last eight years, shows an annual output of 399,000 tons, this being over and above some 59,000 tons per annum used for local consumption in cotton-seed, oil, and cake mills. To point out a further contrast between old times and the present, the freight for seed per steamer in 1870 was 32s. per ton of 20 cwt., against the nominal rates of to-day. In those days, cotton was pressed into bulky bales, measuring 65 to 85 cubic feet per bale, weighing from 500 to 650 pounds. In 1863, however, R. J. Moss & Co. decided to supplant the handpumping by steam power, and in 1864 their steam presses (the first introduced into Egypt) were turning out bales of from 32 to 30 cubic feet. Further improvements in machinery, and in the *modus operandi*, have since been made, and steam-pressed bales are now turned out showing a net measurement of 20 cubic feet, and averaging a weight of 760 pounds. In connection with their presses, R. J. Moss & Co. established a foundry and engineering repairing works, a want much felt by their own customers, for whom they imported agricultural machinery, such as ploughs, portable engines, pumps, cotton gins, corn mills, and corn shellers. They added the coal trade in 1864, and, since that year, have maintained their hold on the market, coal being an important branch of their present business. Mr. R. J. Moss has held the post of president of the Coal Association since its creation in 1894. In 1864, he was appointed agent in Alexandria to his father's line of steamers (the pioneer direct line inaugurated in 1850, from Liverpool to Alexandria and to the coast of Syria). After the death of his father, which occurred on September 11, 1871, it was found advisable to work the steamship property under the provisions of the Limited Liability Act, and on May 30, 1873, the company was formed under the name of the Moss Steamship Company, Ltd. The old firm of James Moss & Co., Liverpool, established in 1833, retained the post of managers. R. J. Moss & Co. continued to hold the agency in Alexandria. Mr. Moss married, in 1867, Margaret Anne, eldest daughter of the Rev. Robert Cave Wood Collins, Vicar of Harefield, Middlesex. He had a family of five sons and three daughters. Of the sons, the second, Edward Gordon Collins Moss (godson of the late General Gordon Pasha, of Khartoum) was taken into partnership in 1899, and the third, Hilary Ernest Collins, in 1907. From 1866 to 1871, Mr. R. J. Moss served as judge assessor in the Mixed Tribunals of Commerce of Alexandria. It may be mentioned that he has been chairman of the Khedivial Club, Alexandria, since 1899. He acted as churchwarden and honorary treasurer of All Saints' Church, Ramleh, for three years, from 1898 to 1900 inclusive, and is at present a member of the committee of the Deaconess Hospital. He is a member of the Union Club, Alexandria, and of the Conservative Club, Liverpool, and has been so since their formation respectively. Mr. Moss was among the first to recognise the advantages of Ramleh as a place of residence, and has made his home at "Collins Moss," Bulkeley, since 1876, where it forms a well-known landmark, situated on high ground immediately on the Mediterranean coast, and surrounded by its own productive gardens. He remembers well in the early sixties when there were but half a dozen houses in the whole suburb, these being merely occupied during the summer months.

GEO. ALEXANDER ALDERSON, one of the directors of Allen, Alderson & Co., Ltd., was born in 1870 at Norland House, Ramleh. He was educated at the Frères' School, Bacos, and afterwards at private schools at Rickmansworth, Hertfordshire, and Stoke Newington, London, and at Cheltenham College. In 1888 he was apprenticed to Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., engineers, Lincoln, and on his return to Egypt in 1893 he joined his father's firm, spending some months travelling in Upper Egypt to learn the language and to study the habits of the people. He then entered the stores department of the business and worked his way up to the position of manager. When, in 1900, the concern was made a limited liability company, he became one of the directors. Mr. Alderson is a member of the Institute of Mechanical Engineers. In 1898 he married Frances Nellie, a daughter of William Neville Bull, of Harwich, Essex, England, and by her he has three children. He resides at "The Cloisters," Bulkeley, Ramleh.

ERNEST A. GILES, superintendent of the Alexandria branch of the Eastern Telegraph Company, is an associate of the Institute of Electrical Engineers and a life fellow of the Imperial Institute. A native of Stafford, England, he was born in 1854, and after receiving a private education he entered the service of the Eastern Telegraph Company at the age of twenty, and in 1875 was sent to Alexandria. From 1885 to 1887 he acted as assistant to the telegraph superintendent attached to the Suakin Expedition, and he was then appointed successively to Zanzibar and other East African stations, and to Mauritius as superintendent. He was transferred to Aden in a similar capacity in 1902, and finally to Alexandria in 1903. He was decorated with the Brilliant Star of Zanzibar in recognition of his services in connection with the laying of the cable to Mombasa and the selection of a suitable site for the station in 1890. He is a member of the Sports Club, London, and of the principal local clubs in Alexandria.

MACDONALD & CO.—Many of the principal power stations in Egypt have now adopted the "Hotchkiss" boiler-cleaner and water circulator, the advantages of which were first demonstrated in Egypt some six years ago by the firm of Macdonald & Co., importers, merchants, and insurance agents, of Sharia el Maghraby, Cairo. The firm are also agents for the Edison diaphragm pumps and the sub-target rifle machine, and for the Royal Typewriter Company. At their three depôts in Cairo they stock several lines of engineering stores, besides railway material of 60 centimetre gauge, locomotives, and waggons. As regards their insurance business, they represent in Cairo the General Accident Fire and Life Assurance Corporation, the London and Lancashire Life Insurance Company, and the British Dominions Marine Insurance Company. Macdonald & Co. also represent the well-known firm of distillers and blenders, Alexander & Macdonald, of Leith, Scotland, and introduced their famous "Sandy Macdonald" ten-years-old whisky to the Egyptian market. They are also agents for Blacklock & Macarthur, of the Clydesdale Paint, Colour, Oil and Varnish Works, Glasgow; for Cameron & Roberton, of the South Bank Iron Works, Kirkintilloch; and for several other first-class firms in England and on the Continent.

Mr. Dugald Macdonald, founder of the firm, gained his earlier experience with the well-known firm of contractors, Lucas & Aird and Sir John Aird & Co. Whilst with them he was engaged on the construction of the West Highland Railway from Helensborough to Fort William, the Barnes Elms Reservoir Works, the Budleigh-Salterton Railway, and the Holsworthy and Bude Railway. In 1898 he was transferred to Egypt on the Assiout Barrage staff, and on the completion of that work some four years later he was appointed controller for the English Directors of the Salt Association at Port Said, a position which he held until the concern was taken over entirely by local directors. He then came to Cairo, where, in December, 1902, he established the firm which bears his name. He is a member of the committee of the British Chamber of Commerce in Cairo. A son of the late Mr. Angus Macdonald, of Fort William, he was born on December 3, 1870, and married in 1902, Ella, fifth daughter of Mr. Algernon Kyan, of Burnley, Lancashire. He has won distinction as a rifle shot, and for several years filled the office of treasurer of the Cairo British Rifle Club.

VICTOR F. NAGGIAR, of the firm of Borsali, Naggiar & Co., has been a committee member of the British Chamber of Commerce since 1898, and was one of the delegates appointed by that body to meet the representatives of other Chambers of Commerce in Egypt for the purpose of discussing the bankruptcy laws of the Mixed Tribunals and the Concordat Preventif. He was chosen to preside over the various meetings held in 1903 and 1904, and with the co-operation of other British representatives he was able to carry through the recommendations of his Chamber, most of which were subsequently adopted by the International Legal Commission which sat in Cairo. For some years, also, he has been a member of the committee of the Importers' Association, and has recently been elected vice-president. Born in Manchester in 1859, Mr. Naggiar was educated at Chorlton High School, and was afterwards for six years in Brooks' (now Lloyd's) Bank. On leaving the bank he joined his brother in business, but, his brother dying shortly afterwards, he was left to carry on the business alone until the outstanding contracts had been completed. In 1887 he came to Egypt as a general merchant, representing several important firms. One of these, Messrs. B. Nathan & Co., decided to open a branch in Alexandria, and Mr. Naggiar, accepting the position of manager, remained with them for ten years. He resigned in 1904 in order to assist in founding the firm of Borsali, Naggiar & Co., who have establishments in Alexandria and Cairo, and are associated with the well-known Manchester firm of S. J. Cohen & Co.

GREEK CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

THE Hellenic community in Alexandria, noting the advantages derived by people of other nationalities from commercial co-operation, held a meeting in January, 1901, under the presidency of the then Consul-General for Greece, Mr. N. Gennadis, and decided to form a Chamber of Commerce. The objects set forth were similar to those common to such organisations, namely, the study of all questions relating to the development of commerce between Egypt and Greece, and the encouragement of Greek navigation and industry in Egypt, in the Soudan, and in the Red Sea.

By the end of February, the new organisation comprised 108 members resident in Alexandria and 14 corresponding members resident elsewhere, while at the present day there are 202 resident and 16 corresponding members.

The president is Mr. Emanuel Benachi, who has held that office since the Chamber was formed, and the vice-presidents are Messrs. D. Theodorakis and Th. Cozzika. The general affairs of the Chamber are directed by a committee of twenty-four, inclusive of the president and vice-presidents, who are *ex-officio* members. The offices of general secretary, treasurer, and directeur du bureau, are held respectively by Messrs. D. D. Tambacopoulo, J. Joannides, and C. D. Capralos.

Since January, 1902, the Chamber have published an illustrated year book dealing with the importation of tobacco, wines, oil, marble, and other products of Grecian origin, and with general exportation. They have also established an informatjon bureau for the benefit of members, and already several valuable reports have been issued; whilst another useful work undertaken is the registration of unemployed.

D. THEODORAKIS was one of the founders of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, of which he is now vice-president. He was born at Athens, and is a retired officer of the Greek Navy. He is now senior partner in the firm of N. G. Gasulli, cotton cultivators and merchants, Alexandria, and is on the committee of the local Hellenic Community.

EVANGELOS D. PAPPADOPOULOS, head of the firm bearing his name, and representing their interests on the committee of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, came to Egypt in 1869, when but ten years of age, under the care of his uncle, Nicola Demitriades. Throùgh the influence of Mr. Salvago, who was then at the head of the Greek Community in Alexandria, young Pappadopoulos was sent to l'Ecole des Frères to complete his education, and was then placed in the General Bank of Egypt, where he remained for six years. In 1886 he was taken by his uncle into partnership, the style of the firm being N. Demitriades & Co., and the business carried on being that of general merchants. In 1903 he began trading on his own account, and he is now proprietor of a flourishing business, importing chiefly flour and Greek pottery. The offices are in the Rue Manayer, Alexandria. He owns some valuable landed estate in the neighbourhood. Married to Zani, a daughter of Franguli Franguliadi, a well-known Greek merchant, he occupies a prominent position in local Hellenic society, and is on the committee of the Greek Community.

MONSIEUR EVANGELOS D. PAPPADOPOULOS, propriétaire de la maison portant ce nom et représentant les intérêts de la dite maison, membre du comité de la Chambre de Commerce greque, est venu en Egypte en 1869 alors qu'il n'avait que dix ans, sous les auspices de M. N. Démétriadis, magasinier maison C. G. Zervudacki et fils. Protégé par Monsieur Salvago qui, alors, était président de la communauté greque d'Alexandrie, le jeune Pappadopoulos est entré d'abord à l'école des Frères pour compléter son éducation et ensuite dans la General Bank of Egypt où il est resté six ans.

En 1886, son oncle se l'est associé et ils ont travaillé comme commerçants sous la raison sociale N. Démétriadis et Cie. En 1903 ils s'est établi pour son propre compte et est en ce moment propriétaire d'une florissante maison de commerce qui fait principalement l'importation des farines et de la poterie grecque dont les bureaux sont situés rue Ménayer à Alexandrie.

Marié à Zani, fille de Franguli Franguliadi, commerçant grec bien connu, il est membre de la communauté Hellénique et occupe une haute position dans la société grecque Alexandrienne.

GRÉGOIRE G. DROSSOS, of the firm Drossos & Co., general merchants, is a committee member of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, a judge assessor of the Greek Consular Court, and an active member of several Hellenic and other philanthropic societies. A native of Droviani, in European Turkey, he came to Egypt in 1880, being then sixteen years of age, to join Prazzica Bros., merchants. Ten years later he was admitted into partnership and for the next twelve years the firm was known as Prazzica & Drossos. Since 1902 Mr. Drossos has been in business on his own account and has established branches all over Egypt, the Soudan, and Abyssinia. He is married to Helen, a daughter of Mr. S. Gianopoulo, a well-known landed proprietor in Alexandria.

M. GRÉGOIRE G. DROSSOS, de la maison Drossos et Compagnie, marchands généraux, est un membre de la Chambre grecque de Commerce, un juge assesseur à la cour du Consulat de Grèce et un membre actif de plusieurs sociétés philantropiques grecques. Natif de Drosrani en Turquie d'Europe, il vint en Egypte en 1880, à l'âge de seize ans pour joindre les Prazzica frères, marchands; dix ans plus tard, il fut admis dans l'association et pendant les douze anneés qui suivirent la maison fut connue sous le nom de Prazzica et Drossos. Depuis 1902 M. Drossos a été en affaires pour son propre compte et a établi des succursales par toute l'Egypte, le Soudan et l'Abyssinie. Il est marié à Hélène, fille de M. S. Gianopoulo, un propriétaire de terrains bien connu à Alexandrie.

CONSTANTINE K. GRIVA, partner in the firm of Griva Brothers, is a son of the late Kyriac Griva, merchant. Born at Tripolitza, Greece, in 1864, Mr. Griva received his early education

there, but came to Alexandria while yet a young man to join his brother, Mr. John Griva, who had established himself as a merchant. Before entering into business, in 1886, however, he spent some time in study, and then opened up business as a contractor for the British and Egyptian armies at Suakin. Later, the firm transferred their offices to Khartoum, maintaining their head office at Alexandria. Mr. John Griva died in 1907, but Mr. Constantine Griva has continued business under the same style and has established branches in all the leading towns of the Soudan, being one of the principal exporters of gum arabic, ivory, ostrich feathers, and other articles. He is a member of the committee of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, and was first president of the Greek Community at Khartoum, where during his presidency he laid the foundation stone of the first Greek Church. For a few years he was Greek Consul at Suakin. He married Lucia, daughter of Dimitri Gounaropoulos, merchant, Alexandria, and has one son.

Monsieur Constantin K. Griva, associé de la maison Griva Frères, est fils de Monsieur Kyriac Griva, négociant. Né à Tripolitza (Grèce) en 1864, Monsieur Griva y reçut sa première instruction, puis jeune encore, vint à Alexandrie pour entrer chez son frère Jean Griva, qui s'était déjà établi pour son propre compte. Avant toutefois d'entrer dans les affaires, en 1886, il compléta ses études et se mit ensuite dans les affaires comme fournisseur des armées anglaise et égyptienne à Suakin. Plus tard la maison transféra ses bureaux à Khartum, en maintenant son siège à Alexandrie. Monsieur Jean Griva mourut en 1907 ; mais Monsieur Constantin Griva continua les affaires sous la même raison sociale, établit des filiales dans les principales villes du Soudan, et devint l'un des principaux exportateurs de gomme arabique, ivoire, plumes d'autruche et autres articles. Il est membre du Comité de la Chambre de Commerce grecque, et fut le premier Président de la Communauté grecque de Khartum. Durant sa présidence fut posée la première pierre de la première Eglise grecque en cette ville. Pendant quelques années il fut Consul de Grèce à Suakin. Il est marié avec Mlle. Lucie Gounaropoulos, négociant à Alexandrie et a un fils.

NICOLAS G. NANOPOULOS is a son of the late George Nanopoulos, formerly a well-known cotton merchant at Zagazig, and was born in 1876. Brought up in his native village of Tsangarades, Greece, he came to Egypt in 1883, and in the following year joined a commercial firm, with whom he remained for eight years. In 1893 he began business on his own account, and to-day he is one of the most prosperous merchants in Alexandria. He is on the committee of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, and takes a share in furthering the interests of all the leading Hellenic institutions. Of a philanthropic disposition, he has done a great deal for the inhabitants of Tsangarades. He built the Nanopoulios School at a cost of Frs. 80,000, he has provided a water supply for the village, he has contributed largely towards the cost and maintenance of the roads, and he has given Frs. 2,000 towards the erection of a home for the aged poor.

Nicolas G. Nanopoulos est fils du défunt Georges Nanopoulos, lequel est formellement bien connu sur le marché du coton de Zagazig ; il est né en 1876. Emmené de son village natal de Tsangaradas en Grèce, il vint en Egypte en 1883, et dans la suite entra dans une maison de commerce, dans laquelle il resta pendant huit ans. En 1893 il commença des affaires pour son propre compte et aujourd'hui il est un des plus riches négociants d'Alexandrie. Il fait partie du comité de la Chambre de Commerce de Grèce, et prend part aux intérêts de toutes les institutions grecques. Il est excessivement généreux et par cela même il à fait beaucoup de bien aux habitants de son village natal de Tsangaradas. C'est lui qui a fait construire l'Ecole Manopoulos, qui a coûté 80.000 francs. ; c'est aussi lui qui installa l'eau dans ce même village où elle manquait ; il a largement contribué aux dépenses nécessitées par l'entretien des routes dans ce même pays et il prend toujours part à la conservation de ces mêmes routes. En outre il a donné 2.000 francs pour l'asile des vieellards pauvres.

CONSTANTIN G. COROMILI was one of the founders of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, and has held a seat on the committee of that organisation since its formation. He is head of the firm of C. G. Coromili, established in 1883, trading as bankers, exchange brokers, importers and exporters, and cultivating cotton in Lower Egypt. His eldest son, Georges, is now in partnership with him. A native of Volos, Greece, where his father, the late George Coromili, was for many years in business as a merchant, he was educated at the Commercial School, Athens, and at the age of seventeen came to Alexandria. Before starting in business on his own account he was for seven years with one of his compatriots. Mr. Coromili resides at No. 3, Nebi Daniel. His office is No. 8, Mosquée Attarine.

M. Constantin G. Coromili fut l'un des premiers fondateurs de la Chambre de Commerce grecque et a été membre du comité de cette institution depuis sa constitution. Il est le chef de la maison de commerce C. G. Coromili, établie depuis 1883, travaillant comme banquier, agent de change, marchand d'importation et d'exportation, et cultivant le coton dans la Basse Egypte. Son fils aîné, Georges, est maintenant son associé. Né à Volos, Grèce, où son père, feu Georges Coromili a travaillé pendant plusieurs années comme négociant, il a été élevé à l'école commerciale d'Athènes et à l'âge de 17 ans il est venu en Egypte. Avant de commencer à travailler pour son propre compte il a été pendant 7 ans chez un de ses compatriotes. Il habite No. 3, Nebi Daniel. Son bureau est rue Mosquée Attarine, No. 8.

MICHEL SINADINO was for ten years president of the Alexandria Stock Exchange, and since his retirement in 1907 he has held the office of honorary president. He is head of one of the oldest Greek families, originally of the Island of Chio. Jean Sinadino, his late father, was at one time a banker in Alexandria, coming to Egypt towards the middle of last century. Mr. Michel Sinadino was born in Alexandria on January 24, 1855, and in 1874, after having received a commercial education, he entered a local banking house. Not long afterwards he joined the Stock Exchange, with which he has been intimately associated ever since. In 1884 he married Despina, a daughter of Antoine Vlasto, a wealthy Constantinople banker, and by her he has two daughters—Marie, now the wife of Alexander Benachi, a partner in the well-known firm of Choremi, Benachi & Co., and Alexandra. Mr. Sinadino is vice-president of the Greek Community. He is on the committee of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, president of the Greek Club, and he has given practical support to numerous Hellenic philanthropic and social institutions, as well as to worthy causes promoted by other communities. He has been created by the King of Greece a Commander of the Order of the Saviour ; he is a Commander of the Orders of the Holy Sepulchre, the Osmanieh, and the Mejidieh ; he is a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour ; and he was decorated by the late Khedive Tewfik with the Khedive's Star. Mr. Sinadino, who has considerable landed property in the neighbourhood, resides in the Greek Quarter.

Michel Sinadino a été dix ans président du Stock Exchange à Alexandrie ; s'est retiré depuis en 1907 ; a rempli les fonctions de président honoraire. C'est l'aîné d'une des plus anciennes familles grecques, originaire au l'Ile de Chio. Jean Sinadino, feu son père, était une fois banquier à Alexandrie, venu en Egypte environ dans le milieu du siècle dernier. M. Michel Sinadino est né à Alexandrie le 24 Janvier 1855, et en 1874, après avoir reçu un éducation commerciale, entra dans une banque locale. Peu de temps après il entra au Stock Exchange avec lequel il s'associa intimement depuis. En 1884 il épousa Despina, une fille d'Antoine Vlasto, un riche banquier de Constantinople, et d'elle il eut deux filles—Marie, mariée maintenant à Alexandre Benachi, associé de la bien connue maison Choremi, Benachi et Cie, et Alexandra. M. Sinadino est vice-président de la communauté grecque, il est du comité de la Chambre de Commerce grecque, président du Club Grec, et il aide à de nombreuses institutions de philantropie hellénique, ainsi qu'à dautres causes dans d'autres communautés ; il a été décoré par le Roi de Grèce commandeur de l'ordre du Sauveur, il est commandeur de l'ordre du Saint Sépulcre, de l'Osmanieh, et du Méjidieh ; il est chevalier de la Légion d'honneur et il a été décoré par feu le Khédive Tewfik avec l'étoile du Khédive. M. Sinadino qui possède des propriétés considérables dans le voisinage réside dans le quartier grec.

JEAN D. TSOULAKIDES, a partner in the firm of Burbulia Frères, and a member of the committee of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, has spent sixteen years in Egypt. A son of Dimitri Tsoulakides, a landed proprietor of Lesbos, an island off the coast of Turkey, he was born in Metelin in 1864, and in early life was in business on a small scale as a general importer in Smyrna. He came to Alexandria in 1892 to join Burbulia Frères, and since 1904 he has had entire charge of the Alexandria branch of the business. He is married to Pelagie, a daughter of Jean Burbulia, the founder and head of the firm, and has three sons and two daughters.

Jean D. Tsoulakides, associé de la maison Burbulia Frères, est membre du comité de la Chambre Grecque de Commerce, et a vécu pendant seize ans en Egypte. Fils de Dimitri Tsoulakides, propriétaire foncier de Lesbos (île sur les côtes de la Turquie), il naquit à Mételin en 1864 et dès sa première jeunesse il fit des affaires sur une petite échelle comme négociant à Smyrne. Il vint à Alexandrie en 1892, entra dans la maison Burbulia Frères, et depuis 1904 il dirige les affaires de l'Agence d'Alexandrie. Il est marié avec Mlle. Pélagie, fille de M. Jean Burbulia, fondateur et chef de la maison, et a trois fils et deux filles.

CONSTANTIN N. PAPPA, a committee member of the Greek Chamber of Commerce, is a son of Nicola Pappa, a well-known merchant and landed proprietor in Egypt. Born in 1880, he was educated in Alexandria and Athens, and then proceeded to Paris and











1 and 2. THE RECEPTION AND DRAWING ROOMS. 3. MICHEL SINADINO AND FAMILY.

4. MICHEL SINADINO'S RESIDENCE AT ALEXANDRIA.

Berlin. He received his diploma as a Doctor of Laws in 1900, and after practising in Athens for two years he returned to Egypt in order to assume the management of his father's business. He is on the Alexandria Board of Education of the Greek Community, and takes great interest in various Hellenic organisations, such as the "Milon" Athletic Sports Society, of which he is honorary secretary, and the Philharmonic Society, of which he is a committee member.

MR. AUG. DIAB, Assesseur au Tribunal Mixte de Commerce, membre du Comité de la Chambre française de commerce et président de la Société Immobilière d'Alexandrie, est un visage bien connu dans le cercle français de la localité—Il vint en Egypte en 1878 comme commerçant attaché mais bientôt il commença des affaires pour son propre compte. Pendant plusieurs années lui et son frère furent associés comme agents d'Assurances dans les Compagnies de bateaux à vapeur. Ils ont représenté plusieurs intérêts importants ci-inclus la Cie française le Phœnix, la Cie Incendie et Vie, l'une des plus grandes Cies de ce genre en France. Le bureau Véritas de Paris, le comité des Assurances Maritimes de France, de Gênes et d'Amsterdam de Koninglijke Nederlandsche Stoomboot Maatschappij, la Compagnie Cip Fabre et la Société Commerciale Bulgare de Navigation à Vapeur. Leurs bureaux sont situés dans les batiments centraux, rue Adib, Alexandrie. M. Diab est né à Beyrout en Syrie et a reçu son éducation au collège d'Autaura.

L. SCHULLER.—Among the leading stationers and booksellers in Alexandria is Mr. Leon Schuller, who for many years has carried on business in his own name. A native of Strassburg and educated there and at Lyons, he came to Egypt in 1883 as manager of the Papeterie Librairie de la Bourse. Six years later he opened a business on his own account, and in 1906, having purchased the goodwill of the Papeterie Librairie, he moved to his present premises near the Crédit Lyonnais. The cosmopolitan nature of Alexandria's population necessitates his carrying a large stock of books in English, German, French, and Italian; he also supplies the leading newspapers in those languages, besides office furniture, school books and requisites, stationery, music, and picture post cards, including those of Raphael Tuck & Sons. Recently he opened a branch in the rapidly growing suburb of Ramleh. Mr. Schuller is on the committee of the French Chamber of Commerce, is an ancien Député de la Nation Française, is a judge-assessor of the French Consular Court, and is on the committee of the German-French Protestant Church. His son, Gustave, assists him in the conduct of the business.

Parmi les plus importants papetiers et libraires d'Alexandrie, on note M. Léon Schuller, qui pendant de longues années a travaillé en son propre nom. Il fit son éducation à Strasbourg, sa ville natale, ainsi qu'à Lyon, et vint en Egypte en 1883, comme Directeur de la Papeterie-Librairie de la Bourse. Six années après, is s'établissait à son propre compte, et en 1906, ayant acheté le fonds de la Papeterie-Librairie, il s'installa à son local actuel, près du Crédit Lyonnais. La population cosmopolite d'Alexandrie lui rendit nécessaire l'importation d'un stock considérable de livres en anglais, allemand, français, et italien; il a également en magasin les principaux journaux en ces langues, ainsi que des fournitures de bureau, les livres et tout le nécessaire pour les écoles, de la papeterie, de la musique, des cartes postales artistiques, parmi lesquelles il faut citer celles de la maison Raphael Tuck & Sons. Récemment, il ouvrit une succursale dans le faubourg de Ramleh, dont l'extension est si rapide. M. Schuller fait partie du Comité de la Chambre de Commerce Française, est Député Honoraire de la Nation Française, Juge-Assesseur auprès du Tribunal Consulaire de France, et est membre du Comité de l'Eglise Protestante Franco-Allemande. Son fils Gustave l'aide dans la conduite des affaires.

MARCEL POILAY BEY, who in 1900 was appointed deputy of the French nation in Alexandria and is now in his second term of office, is one of the leaders of the French Community in Alexandria. He was born at Moutiers, in the Department of Orne, in 1843. He came to Egypt in 1873, and was attached to the Daira Sanieh, a large estate in Upper Egypt. After spending some time in the Agricultural Department of the State, he joined the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, and subsequently took over the direction of the Daira Toussoun Pasha, that is to say, the management of Prince Toussoun's estate of over 40,000 feddans. He is on the committee of the French Chamber of Commerce; he is an administrator of the Alexandria and Ramleh Railway Company, the Alexandria Tramways Company, the Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte, and various agricultural societies; a member of the Cercle Français and the Club Mohammed Ali; and chairman of the European Hospital. He is an Officer of the Order of Osmanieh and a Commander of the Persian Order of the Lion and the Sun; and he has been decorated with the Medal Sauvetage (given for life-saving), the Palme Académique, and the Mérite Agricole. He has published a book entitled "Souvenirs d'un engagé volontaire du siège de Belfort" (Perrin, Paris). He was also one of the founders of the "Bulletin de l'Union Syndicale des Agriculteurs d'Egypte," of which he is president.

Marcel Poilay Bey, qui en 1900 fut élu député de la Nation Française à Alexandrie et est actuellement dans le second terme de son mandat, est un des notables de la colonie française à Alexandrie. Il est né à Moutiers, dans le Département de l'Orne, en 1843. Il vint en Egypte en 1873 et entra au service de la Daira Sanieh, importante administration domaniale de la Haute Egypte. Après avoir séjourné quelque temps au département de l'Agriculture de l'Etat, il entra au Crédit Foncier Egyptien, et, ultérieurement assuma la direction de la Daira Toussoun, c'est-à-dire l'administration des domaines du Prince Toussoun, se composant de plus de 40,000 feddans. Il fait partie du Comité de la Chambre Française de Commerce, est administrateur de l'Alexandrie et Ramleh Cie, des Tramways d'Alexandrie, de la Caisse Hypothécaire d'Egypte et de diverses sociétés agricoles. Membre du Cercle Français et du Club Mohammed Ali, Président de l'Hôpital européen, il est Officier de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh, Commandeur de l'Ordre Persan du Lion et du Soleil, et est en outre décoré de la Médaille de Sauvetage, des Palmes Académiques et du Mérite Agricole. Il a publié un ouvrage intitulé "Souvenirs d'un engagé volontaire au siège de Belfort" (Perrin, Paris). Ce fut aussi l'un des fondateurs du "Bulletin de l'Union Syndicale des Agriculteurs d'Egypte" dont il est le Président.

VICTOR STEPHEN CELI.—After spending eleven years with the Engineering and Cotton Machinery Company, Ltd., with whom he attained to the position of chief clerk, Mr. Victor Stephen Celi decided to begin business on his own account as a general merchant. He carried on this business for twelve years, and then engaged in operations as general building contractor. In that capacity he has undertaken several important contracts for the British Army of Occupation, the Public Works Department, and the Egyptian War Office. He is managing director of the Egyptian Lignolithe and Brick Company, Ltd., of which he was one of the founders, and he is a shareholder in many other local companies. He has been a member of the committee of the Italian Chamber of Commerce for upwards of ten years. The son of the late John Celi, an Italian merchant, he was born in Leghorn, and is now in his fifty-fifth year. He owns several houses in Alexandria, together with much valuable building property.

DR. CLELIO GALETTI was born in Alexandria in 1872, and educated at Turin University, where he took his diploma as a Doctor of Chemistry in 1898. He is now head of the firm of F. Galetti & Sons, chemists and druggists, established by his father, the late Francesco Galetti, in 1856. His two brothers are in partnership with him. Dr. Galetti has been a committee member of the Italian Chamber of Commerce since 1903, and in 1905 was elected honorary treasurer. In 1909 he was appointed an assistant judge to the Italian Consular Tribunal of Alexandria.

Le Docteur Clelio Galetti est né à Alexandrie en 1872, et fit ses études à l'Université de Turin où il obtint son diplôme de Docteur en Chimie en 1898. Il est à présent à la tête de la maison F. Galletti et Fils; pharmaciens et droguistes. Cette maison fut fondée par son père, le défunt François Galetti, en 1856. Ses deux frères sont en société avec lui. Le Docteur Galetti a été membre du comité de la Chambre de Commerce Italienne jusqu'en 1903, et en 1905 il en fut nommé le trésorier. En 1909 il fut désigné comme juge assistant au Tribunal Consulaire Italien d'Alexandrie.

HENRI NAHMAN, the vice-chairman of the Austro-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce, is a partner in the firm of R. Rolo, Figli & Co., Alexandria, and of Suares Frères & Co., Cairo. He is a son of the late Raphael Nahman, merchant and banker, who settled in Egypt in 1828, and of Flora Robino, a daughter of Samuel Robino, who settled in Egypt about a century ago. Born on September 15, 1850, at Alexandria, Mr. Nahman received his commercial education in Cairo, Paris, and Italy, and at the age of seventeen years he was apprenticed to the firm of Robino & Nahman. In 1871 he left to start business on his own account. With Felix Suares as partner, he inaugurated the firm of Suares & Nahman, bankers, and in course of time other partners joined the firm, whose present-day styles in Cairo and Alexandria are given above. Mr. Nahman retains his partnership in the firm. Three years ago he was appointed vice-chairman of the Chamber of Commerce, having been on the committee for several years, and he also filled for a time the position of treasurer. He is on the board of directors of the following concerns: Domain de Sheikh-Fadl, Cairo; d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales, Alexandria; Société Presses Libres; Cassa di Sconto e di Riparmio. He is president of the Société Immobilière de l'Ibrahemieh, and a member of the committee of the Austro-Hungarian Benevolent Society. He is also honorary general secretary of the Importers' Association. He wears the decoration of Cavalier of the Order of Francis Joseph.



TOMBS OF THE CALIPHS.

CAIRO.

SITUATED on the Nile at a distance of about 90 miles from the Suez Canal and 130 from the Mediterranean, the modern capital of Egypt enjoys the distinction of being the largest city in Africa, and the most populous Arabic-speaking town in the world. With a population of half a million, of whom nearly forty thousand are foreigners, it outrivals by more than a hundred thousand inhabitants the port of Alexandria; and there is every reason to believe that its growth will be continuous and rapid in the near future. The primary cause of this growth is the continual influx of the foreign element, attracting capital from Europe and leading to the improvement of the sanitary conditions of the town, and consequently to the lowering of the death rate; while, in the second place, the renaissance of Islam, directly produced by Western civilisation, compels the Mahomedan world to look upon Cairo as the great centre of learning, enterprise, and—to a certain extent—of luxury and pleasure. It is the Paris of Africa—the *Ville Lumière* of the Orient.

Nor can its strategical position on the Dark Continent be ignored. The progress of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, embryonic though the scheme is at the present moment, predicates an important future for the city. Cairo's position in Egypt itself is remarkable. Situated 14 miles to the south of the bifurcation of the Nile into its two branches—the Rosetta and Damietta arms—Cairo commands the whole Delta (with its intricate network of railways, canals, and canalettes, the only extensively cultivated part of Egypt), and is at the same time the gateway through which all traffic or movement between the Nile Valley, properly speaking, and the broad Delta has to pass. The citadel, built on one of the last spurs of the Mokattam Hills, and overlooking the city, may be taken as the veritable key to Egypt, the possession of which is indispensable for the mastery of the land. This circumstance must have been recognised by the ancient Egyptians and their Mahomedan successors. As regards the former, Memphis, Heliopolis, and the Pyramids formed the centre of the "Land of the Lotus"; and the followers of the Prophet were not slow in founding within the self-same radius a city which was destined to outshine Damascus, Bagdad, and even Constantinople.

We may here indulge in a brief review of the chequered history of Cairo from the time of its foundation by the conquering Arab.

When 'Amr, the Caliph Omar's general, conquered Egypt, he founded in the vicinity of a Persian fortress, named Babylon, a garrison town called Fustat (tent). The site is identified to-day as being to the south of Roda Island. The existence of this town was brief, owing, no doubt, to the continual strife and war of which it was the scene. That was in 641 A.D. Two centuries later a second city sprang up, about a mile distant, called Al-Kata. This also was in its turn abandoned. After another hundred years a third Cairo came into existence, which was situated in closer proximity to where the citadel now stands. Gawar, the founder, called the new Cairo, Al-Kahira (victorious), because Mars, for which this was the Arabic name, was in the ascendency at the time of the foundation. Some authorities see in the name "Cairo" an allusion to a fortress which existed in Pharoanic times, called Kher-aha; but proofs are wanting to support this supposition. The only facts to guide us now are the monuments remaining from those distant days. Mounds of dust and stone bury many a secret regarding the ancient settlement on the right bank of the Nile, opposite Roda Island. Palaces and mosques have disappeared for ever, and we can only judge of Fustat by the ruins of 'Amr's Mosque. Similarly, the minaret of Ibn-Tulun's Mosque is, practically speaking, the only landmark we have of Al-Kata; and the greatest monument dating from Gawar's days is the far-famed Al Azhar Mosque, still standing to-day in the very heart of modern Cairo.

Throughout the Middle Ages—days of internecine strife among the Arabs, who made and deposed Caliphs with extraordinary facility, and of crusades against the European invader—the fortunes of Cairo were those of war. Immense buildings sprang up under *corvée* labour with lightning-like rapidity and were destroyed as suddenly. But in spite of varying fortunes, the city grew apace. Of the hundred odd rulers who directed the destinies of the city in those days, one name stands out in bold relief, namely, that of the great Saladin, who built his stronghold—the present citadel—on the last spur of the Mokattam Hills, and constructed that long aqueduct with its pointed arches which spans the valley of the Nile to this day. He it was who gave a new impulse to arts and science and revived the fame of the "Pearl of the East," the rival of Bagdad and the centre of Islamic learning. Those were the days of Cairo's splendour. They rivalled the thrilling description of the "Arabian Nights." They outshone the extravagant luxury of the earlier Caliphs, even of those whose palaces were villages, whose thrones of ivory were inlaid with gold, who were rocked to sleep on lakes of mercury, and whose guardians were blue-eyed lions and slaves of exquisite beauty.

Saladin's death was followed by a period of decadence as dull as the days of his life had been magnificent. The rulers who followed him lacked his commanding capacity and imperial qualities. Their tombs in the desert sands near Cairo are all that remains of their insignificance. The Turk came and conquered Egypt and its capital, and, seeking gold, harassed the country for centuries. Those were the unhappy days of the Mamelukes. They fought Napoleon and were beaten. In turn, the French were driven out by the British, and then the British withdrew. An Albanian next appeared on the scene, one of the wildest geniuses the world has ever seen. He massacred the Mamelukes to a man. He defeated the troops of Turkey, conquered the Soudan and Syria, and raided Arabia. He was made Pasha—*effendina*—by the Sultan, and Egypt, practically speaking, became his. The name of this splendid adventurer was Mehemet Ali, the great-great-grandfather of the present Khedive, and from Mehemet Ali's lifetime dates the regeneration of Egypt. Of the Khedives who succeeded him as ruler of Cairo, Ismael Pasha contributed most to the promotion of the growth of the city. But it is the present peace-ensuring and prosperity-giving British Occupation which, thanks to a careful organisation of public admistration by Lord Cromer, has lifted modern Cairo out of the sloughs of misrule and elevated her

into a thriving metropolis. Up to the time of the present British Occupation, the city had been entirely Oriental in appearance. In place of streets there were narrow and filthy lanes, huddled together in the crescent-shaped plot at the foot of the citadel. Boulac was a separate town. On the left bank of the river, as well as on the right, between Old Cairo and Boulac, there were neither houses nor trees—nothing but fields of rice and clover. So far as it could be calculated—for the Arabs have no faith in a census, deeming that it means taxation—the population in 1882 numbered 374,838 persons, of whom only 21,650 were Europeans or Levantines.

The changes wrought within the last quarter of a century have been great indeed. The native thoroughfares remain, it is true, clinging to the foot of the citadel. But no longer do they constitute the whole of Cairo, or even the most important part. New suburbs sprung up like mushrooms along the suburban Pont-Limoun line, and have been correctly described as the greenest part of Cairo. Near by, in the very desert of Arabia, a new city is being created on the site of an ancient oasis, adjacent to the site of the far-famed city of On or Heliopolis. Already it can boast of several imposing buildings, including the largest hotel in Egypt, and of a service of electric tramcars connecting it with Cairo. The ruins of old Heliopolis in the vicinity of Matarieh have not been excavated as yet. All that is visible above ground of the great city of the ancient Egyptians is an obelisk in a clover field. In the vicinity the Virgin's tree used to stand beside a well. At this spot, according to tradition, Mary rested with Joseph on the occasion of the flight to Egypt.

A centre of old-world history, the neighbourhood of Cairo teems with archæological interest which, taken in conjunction with the local climatic advantages, makes it one of the first city of the former and the last of the latter. It presents in some aspects the spectacle of an Oriental city "burthened by progress," in others that of an Occidental town struggling against the collective apathy of Mahomedans and Levantines. The handsome minarets of some of the finest mosques in the world stand in close proximity to telegraph and telephone poles; the crowded native quarters contrast strangely with macadamised squares, and balconied native houses are found close to palatial modern hotels. European crowds jostle with Arab fellahs and Bedouins, Christians with Mahomedans, Copts and Jews; the straw hat mingles with the red tarbouche or fez; and two-wheeled, donkey-drawn carts and heavily-laden camels claim right of way with the whirling motor-car and the aristocratic Victoria. Above all others, the kaleidoscopic variety of the street scenes is Cairo's chief charm. Few things are more fascinating than to sit on the terrace of one of the great



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF CAIRO.

have sprung into existence; modern European buildings have been erected; electric light and traction have been installed; and, in fine, the comforts and refinements of the West have been freely introduced into this Eastern city. The islands of Gezireh and Roda are now clothed with verdure and dotted with charming villas and residences. Both banks of the river, from Old Cairo to Shoubra, have been built upon for the greater part of their length. In Ismailia, between the last row of native huts and the river, a new suburb has been created on a European model, with tree-lined streets, threaded by electric tramcars and bordered by the flourishing gardens of elegant private dwellings. An entirely new quarter has also arisen within the past few years at Abbassieh, to the north-east of the citadel; while Meadi, to the south of Old Cairo, has recently been planted with trees with a view to attract residents in the near future. Not less remarkable has been the growth of the now fashionable neighbouring villages of Koubbeh, Zeitoun, and Matarieh. They have fashionable resorts of Anglo-American society during the pleasant winter of Egypt and endows the locality with its main characteristic. In the intense heat of summer, life in Cairo is dull and monotonous, the residents of the wealthier class repairing to Europe or Alexandria. In winter, on the other hand, Cairo awakens to the joy of existence and life seems to seethe in the principal thoroughfares. The hotels are crowded with tourists of various classes, principally the pleasure seeker, bent on enjoyment simply, the invalid in search of health-giving sunshine, and the archæologist in search of the treasures of old-time among the buried cities and temples and tombs of antiquity which abound on and about the Nile. Thus the city enjoys two lives—one somnolent and lethargic, like the East itself, the other gay, vivacious, and essentially Western. These two conditions, however, are to some extent apparent throughout the year, as Cairo can claim with greater justice perhaps than any other city the distinction of being the point of contact between the East and the West—the hotels and watch the cosmopolitan crowd as it surges along, presenting every conceivable fashion of dress, from the turban and galabeieh to the European suit of the foreigner or Europeanised effendi. Indian jugglers squat on their carpets and charm snakes; Soudanese street vendors cry out their paltry wares; barefooted "sais" or running porters, brilliantly garbed in crimson and white, precede the carriage of a white-veiled princess; the water carrier rattles his brass trays, beggars whine for baksheesh, a pious and intolerant sheikh threads his way among gaping tourists, and European ladies, in love with their London or Paris hats and gowns, mingle in the crowd with Egyptian damsels dressed in black, with the lower part of their faces hidden beneath a thin white veil that serves to enhance the lustre of their brilliant dark eyes. Along the roadway the camel sulkily slouches along, the ass patiently pulls his cart, upon which sit in tailor-fashion four or five fellah-girls — barelegged, hooded, unveiled, wearing anklets and bracelets and displaying

beautiful teeth ; the Arab steed proudly bears its rider as though he were a feather, the cyclist plaintively rings his bell, the banker's brougham rolls swiftly past, the motor-car whirls by in a cloud of dust, and the electric tramcar glides smoothly along on its appointed course undisturbed by the hubbub around it. Sugar-cane, newspapers, post-cards, and a miscellaneous assortment of "curios" are being hawked at one street corner ; and at another, a café proprietor has set out his chairs on the pavement to entice the wayfarer. A barrel organ, a monkey-trainer, and a couple of youthful acrobats have taken possession of a third corner, and on the fourth a yawning policeman listens drowsily to the expostulations of a street-sweeper quarrelling with a donkey-boy. And all the while the glorious sun looks down from an azure sky upon the motley crowds of all nationalities and



A HOUSE IN CAIRO.

buildings of all architectural styles ; and the kite, the city's self-appointed scavenger, circles above minarets and towers or swoops with sudden swiftness into shady alley or sun-baked square.

From time to time a native procession moves up the street to the wild rhythm of Oriental music played on fifes, bag-pipes, and drums. Now it is in honour of a pilgrim who has just returned from the Holy City and is anxious to be seen by his co-religionists, throwing small coin to the beggars who surround his carriage. At another time, it is a wedding party. First come supercilious camels bearing kettle-drums, and followed by more of the ungainly creatures loaded with the bride's household furniture. Behind these the future queen of her husband's harem is conveyed in a carriage with the blinds drawn or else in a moncharabia sedan-chair slung between camels, whilst hireling guards walk on either side. Anon it is the circumcision procession, which corresponds to our baptismal ceremony, the eight-year-old boy, who is on his way to the mosque for the first time, being seated high on a gilded and draped chariot. Of native funerals, there are many kinds. First, that of a wealthy pasha, whose august remains are being borne along to the music of bag-pipes and cymbals and the loud wails of female mourners. Next, that of one of humbler clay, whose coffin, shaped like a Noah's ark, with a flag-pole attached, is being carried shoulder-high to the chanting of mourners. If the departed were a man, his tarbouche crowns the pole ; if a woman, locks of her hair are twined around it. In the case of a child, the tiny coffin is not infrequently placed on the back of an ass, in front of a venerable bearded man, and thus the chanting conclave of fellahs moves off to the distant cemetery.

If the inhabitants of Cairo are cosmopolitan to an extent unequalled elsewhere—Arabs, Soudanese, Levantines, Greeks, Turks, Syrians, and Western peoples being included in this mixture of races—the general aspect of the city is not a whit less varied. In the European quarter, shady avenues, parks, squares, handsome villas and buildings in all imaginable styles of architecture, from Græco-Renaissance to modern French, remind one of Western Europe. Though less elegant, the native quarters are more picturesque. These parts are particularly filthy and malodorous, for Cairo has no drainage system, no gutters, no sewerage. When rain falls, as it does three or four times during the winter months, lakes of stagnant water are formed in the thoroughfares. After much delay, due to international considerations, this reproach is about to be removed. A drainage scheme, proposed by the Government—Cairo, it may be explained, has no municipality—and approved by the Powers, will shortly be undertaken. Another necessary improvement is a better system of street-lighting in the native quarters, which are at present dependent upon the goodwill of the inhabitant who can afford to hang a large lantern above his door. In the European portion of the city, electricity and gas turn night into day.

The rapid growth of metropolitan and suburban Cairo corresponds with a similar growth in the population, which in 1897 numbered 570,000 inhabitants, or 200,000 more than at the commencement of the Occupation. Included in this total there were 35,385 foreigners. According to the census of 1907, the population was 654,476, and there are now over 50,000 foreigners in the city. The largest European colony is that of the Greeks, followed closely by the Italians, French, British, Austrian, and German, in the order given. There are some 7,000 Jews belonging to various nationalities, the majority of whom, however, are descendants of the Hebrews banished from Spain in the sixteenth century, and still speaking their classical Castilian. Turks, Circassians, and Syrians, are also numerous in Cairo ; but, practically, they constitute part of the "native" element. There is a veritable Babel of tongues in Cairo, but the languages generally spoken

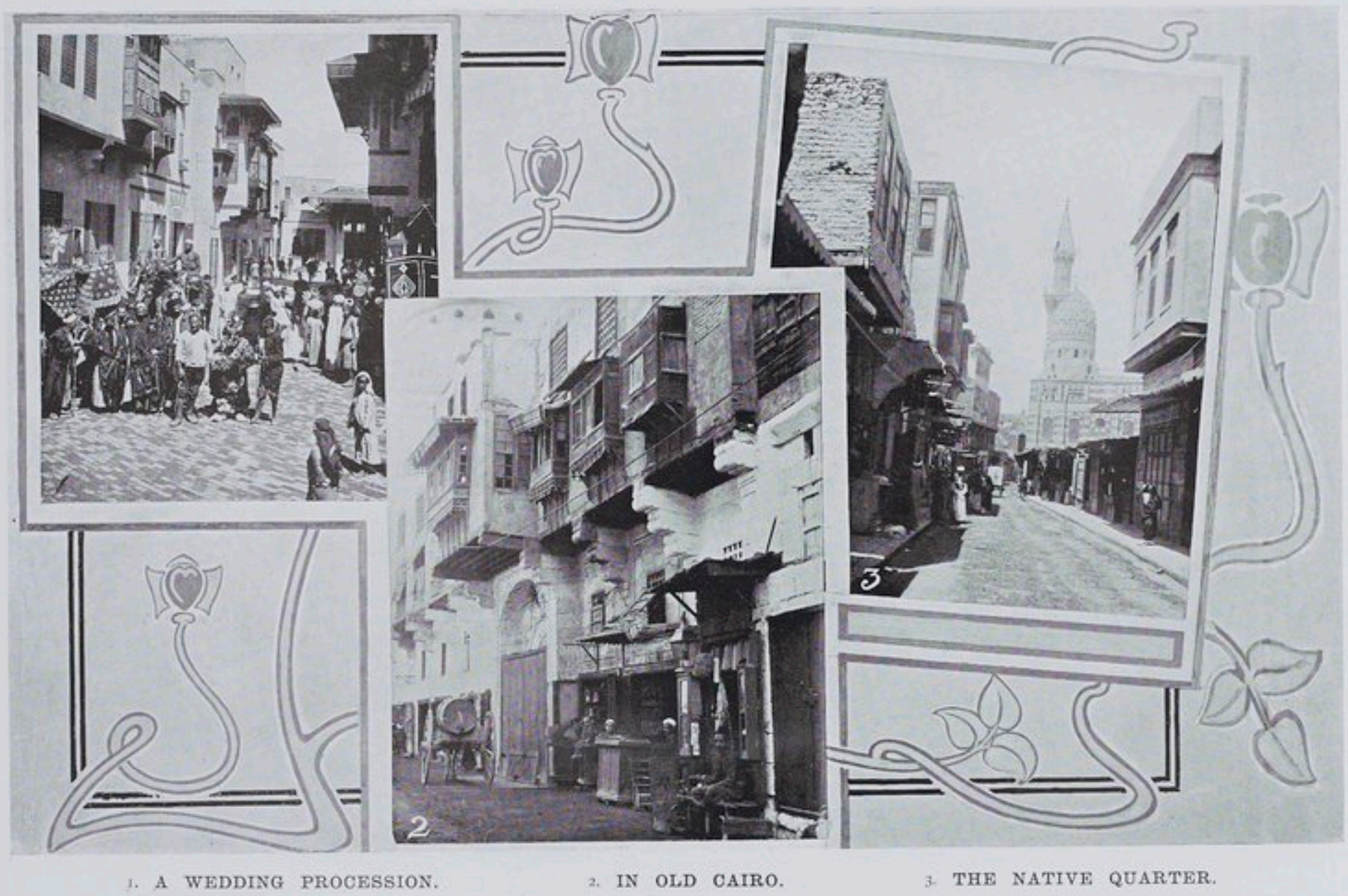
are Arabic and French. English is the official medium; but French is the *lingua franca* of the country.

The best general view of the city can be obtained from the terrace of the Mehemet Ali Mosque on the citadel. Thanks to the clearness of the air, and the almost total absence of chimney-stacks, the panoramic scene from this coign of vantage is unique. The horizon is bounded by the hills and plateau of the Libyan desert. To the west, the Pyramids of Gizeh are opaque triangles against the sky; towards the south, those of Sakkara are as faint dots in the landscape. Nearer at hand, flowing northward, is the broad and placid Nile, like a tortuous thread of silver, bordered by green, on a ground of Tussah silk. In the autumn and early winter the flood of waters from Upper Egypt increases, and then, like an immense lake, the great river stretches from the city almost to the Pyramids. Following with our vision the northward course of the river, dotted with the white sails of feluccas, we can just descry Roda Island, upon which has been built the old Nilometre, dating, it is said, from 716 A.D., though it is more probable that the present building, with its sixteen pointed arches, and its pillar divided into cubits, was constructed by Jezid in 861. It is here, according to tradition, that the daughter of Pharaoh found the infant Moses lying in the bulrushes.

Two bridges connect the island with the mainland on either side. The larger of these was built in 1907. Twice a day, one of its sections revolves upon its own axis in order to permit the passage of sailing vessels up and down the stream. An electric tramcar line crosses these two bridges, enabling the passenger to ride from the centre of the city to the Pyramids, less than 10 miles distant. Turning to the right, after crossing the second bridge, the visitor will come to the Zoological Gardens, charmingly laid out, and containing animals from Equatorial Africa. Passing down a broad avenue lined with palatial residences and villas, he may reach another bridge giving access to Cairo's second island in the Nile, called Gezireh, or Boulac. This is the larger island of the two, and upon it are located, amidst palms and acacias, the grounds of the Khedivial Sporting Club. Here also are a casino and theatre, as well as the Gezireh Palace Hotel, which was built by Ismael Pasha as a residence for the Empress Eugénie when she visited Egypt on the occasion of the opening of the Suez Canal. This was not the only extravagance in which the Khedive indulged in honour of his royal visitor. It was for her that he built the road to the Pyramids in a few days—a road which is still the best in the neighbourhood of Cairo. The island of Gezireh is connected with the right bank of the river by means of a large iron bridge built by French engineers under Ismael Pasha. Like Roda Bridge, it is closed to traffic twice a day in order to allow boats to pass up and down the river. Moreover, and owing to the fact that it constitutes a link between the two fashionable Cairo drives, namely, the Kasr-el-Nil Street and the Gezireh promenade, it is generally the scene of great social animation towards five o'clock in the afternoon. It is also a busy and interesting point to visit in the early morning, when hundreds of fellahs on camels, mules, or asses, come in to town with the produce of the neighbouring farms.

The third bridge over the Nile can just be seen from the terrace of the Mehemet Ali Mosque. It is that of Embabeh, and connects the village from which it derives its name with the Cairo railway station (Embabeh, it may be mentioned, was the scene of the battle of the Pyramids, fought between the French and the Turks in 1798). Owing to the great increase of traffic between the two banks of the Nile, a fourth bridge will span the river within a few years between the Kasr-el-Nil and Embabeh Bridges, and connect Boulac with Gezireh. The Nile flows under the Embabeh Bridge northwards. South of this point, the Ismailia Canal turns off to the right. To the north lies Boulac itself, at one time the river port of Cairo, but to-day incorporated in the city, and the home of almost all the principal factories. Another important district of modern Cairo is situated further north. It bears the name of Shoubra, and is the centre of the cigarette-making industry. A village of the same name, nestling among palm trees, lies further down the river; it its proximity, Rod-el-Farag's wharves and wheat stores mark the site of Cairo's present-day river port. An electric tram-line, passing the Tewfikieh College, joins the mother city with its offspring, which, by the way, is the headquarters of the Waterworks Company.

From Rod-el-Farag the celebrated Delta Barrage is easily reached by steamer. Another route is by rail direct from Cairo. The dam, which is about 14 miles north from the capital, was initiated by Mehemet Ali in 1837, though not finished in his lifetime. It crosses the Nile just above the point at which the



1. A WEDDING PROCESSION. 2. IN OLD CAIRO. 3. THE NATIVE QUARTER.

river bifurcates to form the Delta. Hurriedly and badly built, it could not resist the pressure of the current, and had to be entirely reconstructed in 1890 by British engineers. As it stands to-day it consists of 142 arches and four locks, and regulates the flow of water during flood-time into the Damietta and Rosetta arms of the Nile. The tongue of land formed by this bifurcation has been transformed into a delightful park, which is a favourite resort for visitors, particularly on moonlight nights.

One of the principal buildings of Cairo is the Mosque of Mehemet Ali, standing sharply defined against the background of the Mokattam Hills. It was built towards the beginning of the last century by the founder of the present dynasty of viceroys. The Khedivial mausoleum lies within. The pencil-shaped minarets, standing like sentinels beside the massive cupola or dome, can be seen miles away, and are as characteristic of Cairo as are the bazaars and pyramids. The mosque itself is a counterfeit of the Osmanieh Mosque at Constantinople, and is visited by tourists rather by reason of its size and the gorgeous decorations of its interior than because of any originality of design or artistic beauty in its architecture. Incomparably superior is the Sultan Hassan Mosque in the Mehemet Ali Square, just below the citadel. Erected in the fourteenth century, it belongs to the classic period of Arabic art, and is generally admitted to be not only the largest but also the most perfect mosque in the world. Its minaret is the highest in Cairo, and marvellous in every way is the projecting cornice running around the whole building. The portal, the bronze-wrought door to the left of the court, and the mihrab itself are unique specimens of the art motives peculiar to the Arabs. Opposite the Hassan Mosque a new Mahomedan temple, that of Bifayeh, is in course of erection. The original intention was to make it even larger and more beautiful than its older neighbour. A cornice to rival that which is the charm of Hassan's Mosque was to have been constructed. But, try as they may, the architects, so far, have found the task to be beyond their powers. At every attempt the cornice has succumbed to the laws of gravity. Slightly to the right of Sultan Hassan's Mosque, and between it and Old Cairo, lies the Tulun Mosque. Dating, as we have seen, from the ninth century, it is the oldest existing religious building in Cairo, with the exception of 'Amr's Mosque. The distinctive feature of the building is the use of the pointed arch, prior, by nearly two centuries, to its appearance in Gothic architecture. As for the mosque of 'Amr, it was almost entirely rebuilt in the ninth century and practically remodelled in 1798. The most interesting mosque, however, is that known as Al Azhar, lying to the north of the citadel, just below Windmill Hill and not far from the Tombs of the Caliphs. Originally built in the tenth century it has suffered from frequent attempts at restoration in the course of years, and is to-day a medley of the most contradictory styles. As a Mahomedan university it is famous wherever Islam holds sway, and students travel from Morocco, Turkey, Russia, and the heart of India and Africa to learn the precepts of the Koran under its arches and within its arcades. Its fame is so great as an educational institution that, though Constantinople is looked upon as the political axis of the Mahomedan world, Cairo must be regarded, owing to the Azhar University, as the centre of religious learning and influence. One of the finest examples of the fifteenth-century Saracen art is to be seen behind the Tulun Mosque in the Mosque of Kait Bey. It has been called —and not inaptly—a "jewel of Arabic art," more perfect in its style than the magnificent halls of the Alhambra. Its decorative mosaics are of exquisite workmanship, and the wood-carving of the pulpit or minbar is an equally fine specimen from the graver's chisel. It would be impossible to name, much less to describe, the whole of Cairo's mosques. There are hundreds of them, as can be judged by the forest of minarets visible from the terrace on the citadel. These elegant structures are as characteristic of the landscape as church spires in an English town. Their history, yet to be written, would be more interesting than the Arabian Nights. It would portray those stormy times when Caliph succeeded Caliph, and dynasty superseded dynasty, when sensuous luxury struggled against barbaric heroism, and cruel ambition outshone virtue, and when proud women-folk of tenacious purpose were the real rulers of the land in spite of their apparent submissiveness to the puppets who wielded the sceptre of power. In those early days, before the dawn of Ottoman Imperialism, Cairo was the queen-city of Islam. Her palaces were famed for their wealth and magnificence, and her mosques for the exuberant splendour of their golden accessories. The history of Cairo then was the history of Egypt. The masters here were rulers of the Valley of the Nile. After Saladin, the famous, and the hapless dynasty of the Ayubides, came the Bahrite and Bargite Mamelukes (= slaves), who built tombs in the desert, in proximity to the citadel. These "villages of the dead" remain to-day in spite of wind and weather. That of the Bargite Mamelukes on the southward side dates from the sixteenth century and it is the more impressive of the two. The time to visit this spot is at sunset, when the colours are rich and mellow, or by moonlight, when the general outline is buried in mysterious shadow. The most handsome of these tombs of the dead is that of Kait Bey, the Pericles of Egyptian art. These monuments of Saracenic power have romantic tales clinging to their brick walls like ivy to the stones of an old castle. They are of great historic interest to the student, and artist. But with the advent of the British in 1882 they fell more or less into oblivion. The Occupation marked, in more ways than one, a departure from an old state of affairs. A new era was opening for the harassed Turkish province—an era of material prosperity and progress. The contemplation of a Mahomedan past could hardly find a prominent place in the plans of practical statesmen and administrators. The citadel was occupied and modern guns were placed on its walls. They dominate the city and guard its tranquility. The headquarters of the Army of Occupation, however, are established in the centre of the city.

Other barracks have also been provided for the use of the "red coats," one of them being situated beside the Kasr-el-Nil Bridge at Abbassieh. In the vicinity of Heliopolis and of Koubbeh, where the Khedive has a beautifully located palace on the Cairo-Matarieh and Marg line of railway, there is another series of barracks, and behind the Khedive's Abdin Palace the British police patrol have quarters. The Egyptian army, under European officers, occupies barracks in the vicinity of Abdin Palace, at Abbassieh, and elsewhere. From the Citadel, Abdin palace can be seen—a long low, grey building. It is surrounded by gardens and high walls on three sides, while its uninteresting front faces a large naked square.

A broad street leads to the Opera Square, distinguished by its bronze statue of Ibrahim Pasha, the son of Mehemet Ali, great-grandfather of the present Khedive, and the conqueror of Syria and the Soudan. The Khedival Opera House, which is in this square, was erected by Ismael Pasha to celebrate the inauguration of the Suez Canal; and herein Verdi's "Aïda," expressly composed for the occasion, was played for the first time. The accommodation afforded by the building is limited, and hence the companies engaged are, as a rule, mediocre in spite of the fact that a subvention is received from the Government. Performances are given nightly during the winter months, but, although intended ostensibly for the entertainment of tourists, it is almost impossible for any but subscribers to obtain seats. The northern end of the square is occupied by the Ezbekieh Gardens, a beautiful enclosure containing a large and attractive collection of Asiatic and African trees. Selections of music are performed here in the afternoon twice a week during the winter by an Egyptian military band, and on two nights a week through the summer by a British military band. There are also in the garden a theatre, restaurant, and fencing school. The Ezbekieh Gardens serve to separate modern



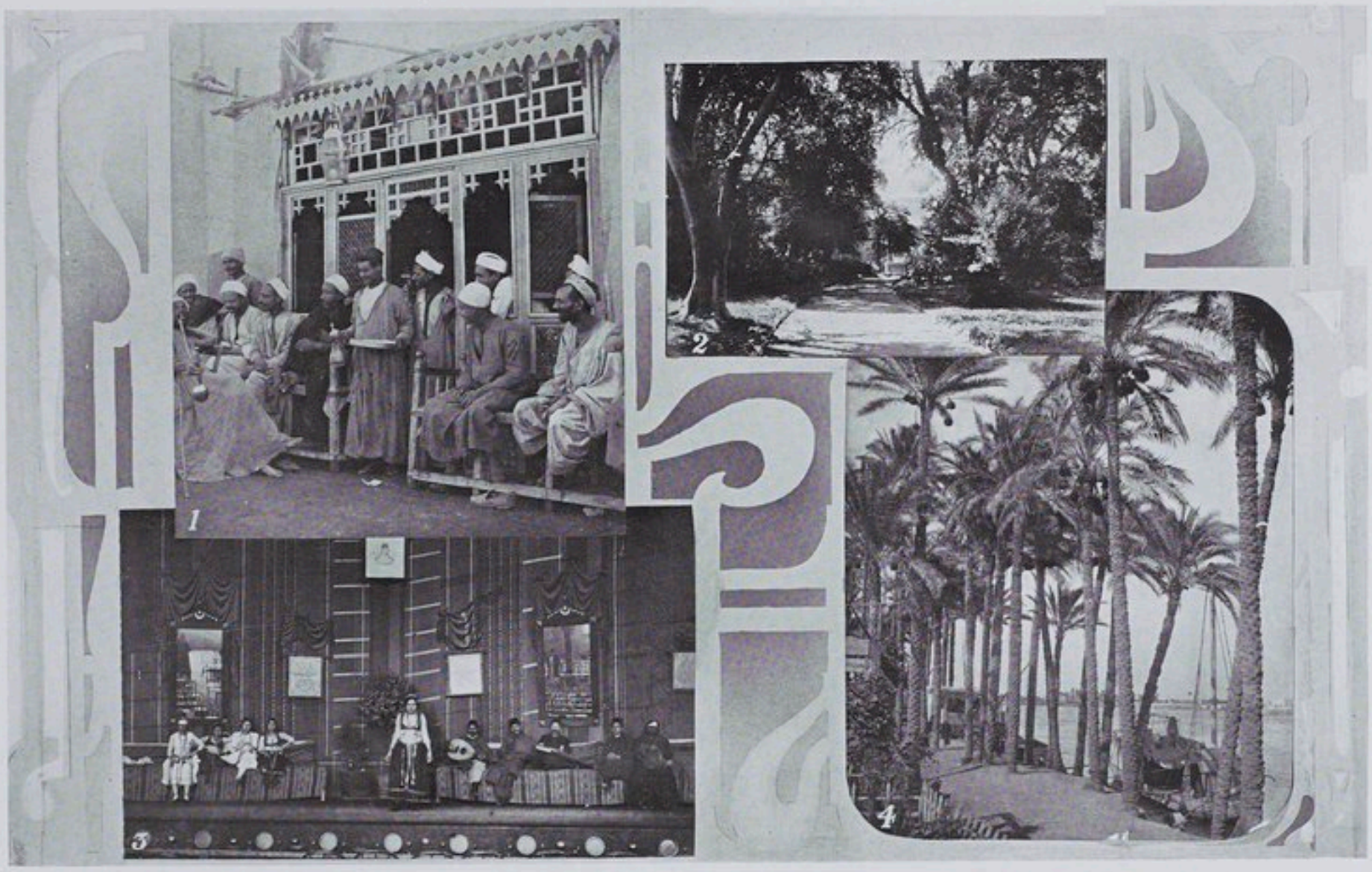
THE ARAB CEMETERY.

Europeanised Cairo on the west from the native quarters on the east. This demarcation is accentuated by Kamel Street. This main artery of traffic, running north and south, emerges from the Opera Square to lose itself in the neighbourhood of the railway station. If the quarters lying to the east are busy and crowded throughout the year, those on the opposite side are empty and deserted in summer, for the two seasons—summer and winter—are as antithetic as it is possible for them to be anywhere, that is to say, so far as the European quarters are concerned. This difference is due in the first place to the climate, and in the second to the fact that neither commerce nor industry characterise the life of the capital. In summer, when the thermometer registers ninety-seven degrees Fahrenheit in the shade, tourists are as rare as snakes in Ireland. Many European officials go home on leave, and there are few resident European families who do not contrive to leave the city, even if only to go as far as Alexandria. Those whose duties or interest oblige them to remain, repair to the outskirts or suburbs. Most of the large hotels and many of the more elegant shops are closed. The clubs are deserted, the theatres empty, and the fashionable drives abandoned. Where a few weeks before the streets, squares, and avenues of the great city pulsated and throbbed with vivacious animation, the placidity of Orientalism and the silence of desertion reign supreme.

A wonderful transformation takes place in the winter. The weather is agreeable and bright, not too hot nor too cold, the hotels overflow with tourists, Government departments and regiments have their full complement, and the clubs are crowded with members. Social life is at its zenith. Balls are held at the viceregal palace, at the diplomatic agencies, and at the hotels. Race meetings, gymkhanas, sporting events, and out-door amusements follow one another in quick succession. There is a continual round of revelry, lasting from the return of the Khedive and the British Agent in November until their departure again in May. It is at this season of the year that the Sharia Kamel, with its cosmopolitan crowds, must be seen, as well as the other streets which run from the thoroughfare in the direction of the Nile. This seasonal change, however, is but very slightly reflected in the native quarters, which are almost as crowded, noisy, and malodorous in summer as they are in winter.

Leaving the terrace overlooking the city and descending by the Bab el Azab into the square at the foot of the citadel, no difficulty is experienced in reaching the heart of the city. An electric tram-car, a bus, cab, or donkey takes one quickly down the Mehemet Ali Street. On the way the Bab el Khalk Square is crossed. Here, until quite recently, a canal cut across the city from Roda Island to the Ismailia Canal, but, as it was the breeding ground of many pestilential diseases, it was filled in and a tramway line now runs along the site of what was formerly one of the most picturesque waterways of Oriental Cairo. The "Cutting of the Khalig," or the opening of the canal at the beginning of the annual Nile flood, used to be a very impressive ceremony. To-day, though the canal is a thing of the past, the ceremony, shorn, however, of much of its pomp, lingers on, accompanied by gunshots and fireworks for the amusement of the native population of the town.

In the Bab el Khalk Square stand two handsome buildings, one being the Governorate, corresponding to London's Mansion House, and the other the newly erected Khedivial Library and Arabic Museum. The library contains the finest existing collection of illuminated Korans, while the museum is stocked with objects of incalculable artistic and historic value. This museum is not to be confounded, however, with the National Museum of Egyptian art, which is situated in the vicinity of the Kasr-el-Nil Barracks and is unsurpassed as regards its collections of ancient Egyptian relics. By way of the arcades of Mehemet Ali Street the Ataba-el-Khadra Square is reached. Here is the heart of the city, three minutes drive from the Opera Square, past the new Post Office, the Fire Brigade station, and the buildings occupied by the Mixed Tribunal. In the same street are situated the offices of the Public Debt Commission. The Ataba-el-Khadra Square is the crowded converging point of all the tramway lines. In and adjacent to it are the four largest drapery and clothing stores in Cairo. Without doubt it is the noisiest part of the city. What with the raucous shouting of the pedlars, the rattling of the water-carriers' tiny brass trays, the blowing of motor car trumpets, and the ringing of tram-car bells, the grinding of wheels, and clanging of iron-shod hoofs against cobbles—the uproar heightened now and again by the voices of men and women



1. OPIUM SMOKERS
2. VIEW IN THE EZBEKIEH GARDENS.
3. A NATIVE THEATRE.
4. THE BANKS OF THE NILE AT GEZIREH.

in passionate controversy—it is as though an Oriental Bedlam had been let loose. At the same time, and from a neighbouring crowded café, comes the monotonous tric-trac, tric-trac of backgammon, a game as popular in the Levant as skittles in Germany.

Here, more than in the Opera Square, East meets West. In the Opera Square, the crowd is semi-Oriental in a European setting, and the might of Western wealth has crushed the *vis inertia* of Eastern fatality. But in the Ataba-el-Khadra Square the struggle between the two elements still rages at its height. To the west lies Europe, to the east the Orient. Gradually the former is encroaching upon the latter, so much so, in fact, that in the Mousky, a Levantine thoroughfare intersected by Arab lanes, the huge sign-board of a well-known whisky firm, tops a wakf or religious establishment.

and in its place we have a Levantine Street—picturesque certainly, but no longer Oriental—practically straight, and reaching as far east as Windmill Hill, in the vicinity of the tombs of the Caliphs. To the right and to the left of this most famous of Cairo's native thoroughfares are the native bazaars, which impart a fair idea of what the Mousky was years ago. The lanes leading to and from these quarters are completely roofed in, with here and there a chink, through which the sun occasionally darts a ray on a fine display of brass and copper utensils; on a goldsmith's bracelets and bangles; on carpets and rugs, imported from Turkestan in Persia; on silks and laces and coloured shawls of exquisite design; on old grey-bearded merchants leisurely sipping their coffee whilst counting amber beads or golden sovereigns; or on a veiled woman dressed in black, who is

of the Prophet is met riding a caparisoned ass, whose bright brass necklace shimmers in the dim light. Above are seen the beautifully-carved mucharabiyas, or shutters, of the overhanging upper storeys of the houses. These Egyptian "bow-windows" project until they almost touch their neighbour on the opposite side of the lane, leaving but a tiny speck of sky visible, in which, at night, a stray star or two shine out like diamonds from a bed of diaphanous blue velvet.

Before leaving these quarters the tourist usually visits an Oriental coffee-house or music-hall. In the former he will drink his tiny cup of spiced coffee; in the music-hall he will listen to the metallic notes of a zither or to the cadenced love-song of a Syrian artiste. Or he may go to a *soi-disant* fashionable European theatre in the neighbourhood of the Ezbekieh Gardens. Again,



1. HARNESS-MAKER'S STALL. 2. A WATER CARRIER. 3. A BRASS-WARE STALL.

Immediately behind the square, and lying between the Mousky and Mehemet Ali Streets, are the New Market Halls, where throughout the morning an animated and picturesque scene may be witnessed. Camels being unloaded, Egyptian fellaheen squatting with their wives, a rich display of fruit and vegetables, streams of buyers, porters, Bedouins, and pedlars, are so grouped together as to make this corner of the capital one of the most interesting for the study of Oriental life and character. The Mousky used to be equally interesting; but it has changed in aspect within recent years. The present generation can still remember it when it was a winding lane, like some mediæval Spanish alley, partly covered by means of boards and strips of canvas, like the streets of Canton, and the more elaborate galleries of Naples and Genoa. All this has now been changed

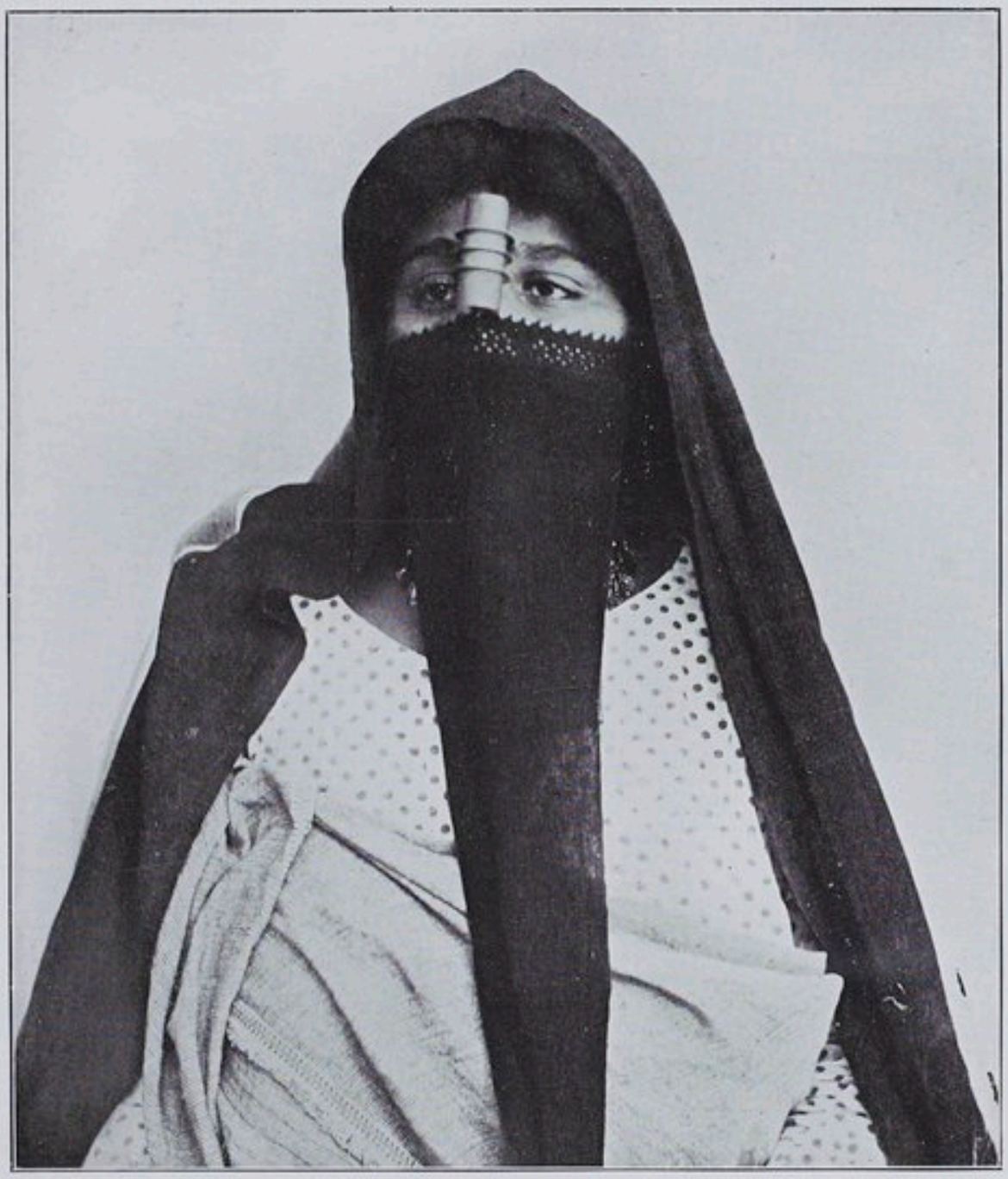
haggling over the price of a bottle of perfume. Articles of Eastern manufacture are exposed for sale, but the days have gone when antique subjects of rare workmanship could be bought for a mere song.

Among tourists and foreign visitors it is a pleasing experience, touched with romance, to ride out on donkeys to the Tombs of the Caliphs, and back through these Oriental quarters in the moonlight. The evil smells are forgotten as the rider passes a mosque half buried in gloom, an Armenian church, or an Arab coffee-house—small and dingy, and containing a crowd of Arghile or Turkish-pipe smokers. The heavy ponderous lanterns which hang above most of the doors have been wholly, or partially extinguished, and the worthy citizens in this quarter have retired for the night. But now and again, upon turning a sharp corner, a dignified son

the Nouveautés Music-hall may attract him, or he may finish his evening in the Parisian atmosphere, either of the St. James's Restaurant or the Sphinx. If the spirit of gambling move him, there is within a stone's throw, the Spanish frontón, or Basque ball in progress, and when a good game is announced he will find it a pastime of great animation. At the Sheikh Salama Theatre Egyptian actors and Jewish actresses may be seen performing plays of Shakespeare or Schiller, the scenes being varied with Oriental, German, Austrian, and Belgian bier-halls, and Greek and Italian restaurants are met with everywhere. In short, night-life is one of the characteristics of Cairo throughout the year.

From Ataba-el-Khadra Square, there is a service of tramcars and 'buses up the Sharia Abd-el-Azis to the Nasrieh district of the

city. Most of the ministries or government buildings—handsome edifices surrounded by well-kept gardens—are situated in this locality. Bab el Luk, the terminus station of the Cairo-Helouan railway line, is also in this quarter; whilst to the west and in the direction of the Nile the Europeans have laid out the most elegant avenues and villas to be found in Cairo. Nothing all the way from Old Cairo to the Kasr-el-Nil Bridge is native, excepting it be a Soudanese porter seated on a bench outside a sumptuous mansion, half hidden by palms and tropical shrubs. Coming from Old Cairo the huge Kasr-el-Aini hospital building is first passed. Between these and Kasr-el-Dubara, properly speaking, used to stand some of Ismael Pasha's gorgeous palaces. They have been razed to the ground, and a new residential quarter, garden city, is in course of formation. At Kasr-el-Dubara stand both the British agency and the residence of the general officer commanding the Army of Occupation. Cairo's latest gigantic hotel, the Semiramis, has been erected on the banks of the Nile, and slightly to the rear, and on the Sharia Kasr-el-Nil stands the huge, high-walled palace of Shazi Mouhktar Pasha, the late Ottoman High Commissioner. It forms, with all its dependencies, a veritable feudal stronghold.



A NATIVE WOMAN.

The Kasr-el-Nil Street, running west from the bridge to the Opera Square, is the fashionable drive during the season. Towards five o'clock in the afternoon, when the setting sun is flooding the west with crimson and gold, an incessant stream of vehicles flows out to Gezireh. The Savoy, one of the best-known of Cairo hotels, occupies a commanding position in this street; and, opposite it, the Italian Risotto Club has constructed a handsome terrace for its members. Nearer the Opera Square are the National Bank, the French Legation—a beautiful building in the Arabesque style—the Bank of Egypt, the Ottoman Bank, the Crédit Foncier, and the Eastern Telegraph Company's offices. From the Opera Square the Sharia Kamel takes direction towards the north-east, past the sunny terrace of the Continental Hotel and the ever-crowded pavilion of historic Shepheard's Hotel, to the Cairo Central Railway Station. This is the route along which the Khedive passes almost every morning during the season when he comes from his Koubbeh Palace to spend the day at Abdin. Military and other processions frequently pass along the same street, and, consequently, it can be regarded as the principal artery of Cairo's life. Hereabouts are the State Telegraph Offices and most of Cairo's clubs, the principal of which are the Turf Club, almost exclusively British, the Khedivial Club, and the French Cercle Artistique, the last named now transformed into an enterprising automobile club. Most of the churches, also, are in this quarter of the town. Behind the Turf Club stands the Anglican Church of All Saints; and between the club and the fashionable Hotel d'Angleterre is the Jewish Synagogue, with the German Protestant Church opposite. The Roman Catholic Cathedral occupies a prominent site off the Kasr-el-Nil, and St. Mary's (Episcopalian) has recently been established in Kasr-el-Dabara. St. Andrew's Church is situated in close proximity to the Army headquarters; and the American Mission have their chapel and schools in a small street running off the Sharia Kamel opposite Shepheard's Hotel. Greek, Coptic, Orthodox, and Armenian churches are as characteristic features of the narrow streets to the north and south of the Mousky as are the still standing gateways of Saracen architecture. Of these portals three—Bab-au-Nasr, Futuh, and Zumela—practically date from Gawar's fortifications. The remainder belong to a more recent period; but are not less interesting on that account. Beside the Central Railway Station, and built in the Arabesque style, with a handsome portal of panels embossed with copper decorative motives, is the Pont-Limoun Station, from which runs out the suburban line to Marg, passing Koubbeh and Matarieh *en route*. There is a proposal to supersede steam locomotion on this line by electricity, and then to lay the rails across the desert to Heliopolis and Suez; but nothing definite has yet been decided regarding this project.

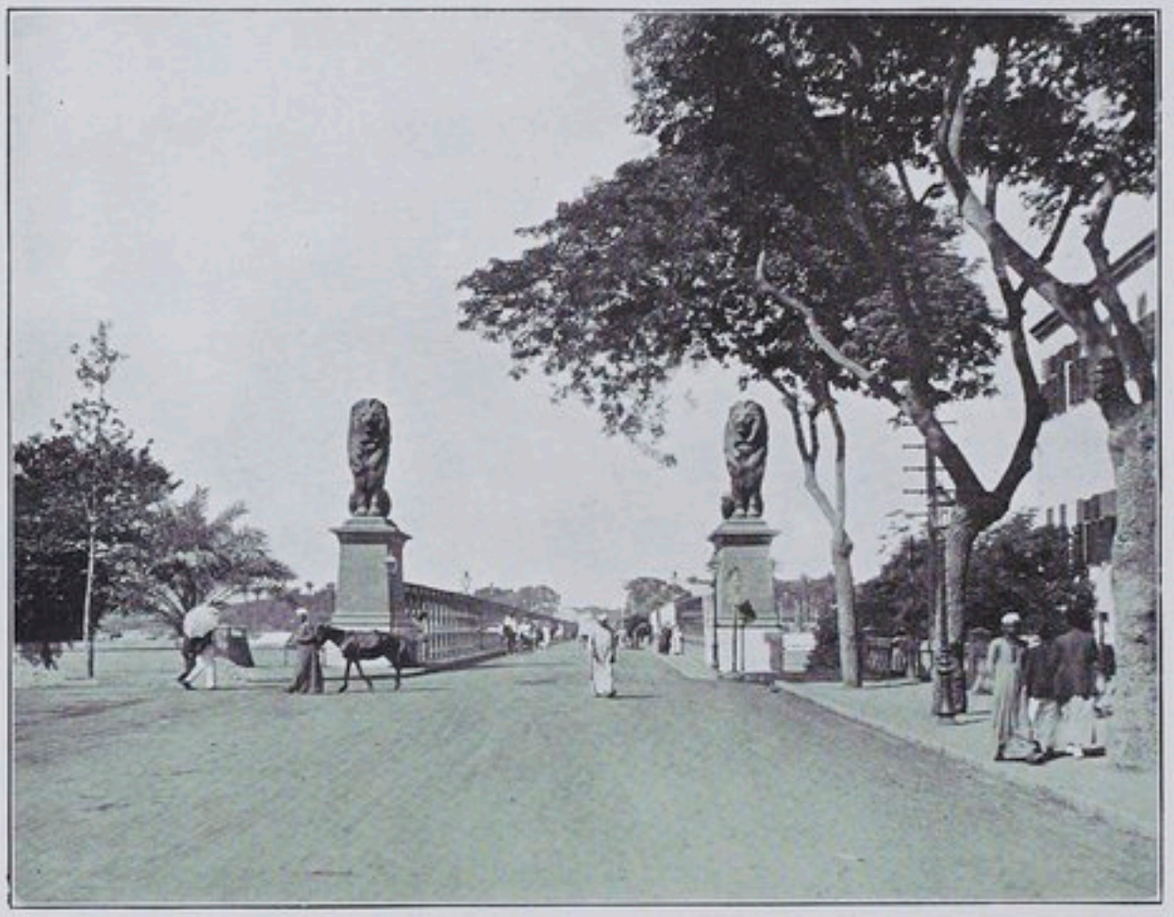
From the large Station Square many important streets radiate. One leads northwards, passing by a viaduct over the lines of the State Railway to Shoubra village; while another goes to Ziftieh, a populous native quarter of Cairo. At right angles to the Shoubra Street, and crossing the square from one extremity to the other, is the Ismailia-Abbas Avenue. By taking direction to the south-west, and past the Alpine châlet, where the Swiss colony has its headquarters, Boulac is reached; to the north-east is Koubbeh. The large Jesuit College, and the new buildings of the American Mission are to be seen lining this avenue, down which the Khedive drives in the morning before turning into the Kamel or Nubar Pasha Streets. To the left of the last-named thoroughfare, the Faggalah Street runs out to Abbassieh. This is one of Cairo's latest and healthiest suburbs. It dates from the days of the Khedive Abbas I., who endeavoured to colonise it. Only within recent years, however, has it become important; but now its progress is rapid.

While referring to the surroundings of Cairo, mention must be made of the trip on the Delta Light Railways from Bab el Luk to Helouan. This oasis in the desert, with its hot sulphur springs and interesting desert surroundings, possesses attractions peculiarly its own. The train passes Old Cairo and Fustat. On the way are to be seen the imposing structure of the aqueduct, the Christian cemeteries (the Mahomedan cemeteries are at the foot of the citadel), and the recently laid-out streets of Meadi. This latter spot has a great future before it. Already, furnished or unfurnished villas are acquireable, and the view across the Nile appeals to the lover of the beautiful. At Old Cairo, a mound of ruins may be examined by the archæological student, conspicuous among them being the Coptic churches, dating from the eighth and ninth centuries. These monuments are highly interesting, as they give a clue to the latter-day development of

Mahomedan architecture under Coptic and Byzantine influences. They contain, moreover, many precious accessories, some of them of sterling artistic value. At Tourah, a village beyond Meadi, large and imposing State prisons have been erected. On the Mokattam Hills opposite can be seen the famous quarries of Tourah stone, which were opened by the ancient Egyptians, and are still in use to-day. These quarries, some of them containing valuable inscriptions, are enormous tunnelled caves, with galleries piercing deep into the mountain side. Due east from Tourah, beyond the Mokattam Hills, and in the Arabian desert, lies the Petrified Forest, and in its vicinity Moses' Well.

Helouan-les-Bains, or Helouan, the terminus of the light railway, is practically a new city, though it appears from ancient records that the medicinal virtues of its hot springs were known so far back as the days of the Medes and Persians. There are several hotels, a casino, racecourse, and sporting club, as well as other attractions in this health resort, which is becoming increasingly popular year by year.

If Cairo and its environment on the right bank of the Nile do not offer the Egyptologist a suitable field for excavation, the same cannot be said of the left bank of the river, which has always been and will continue to be an archæological treasure house. For here, on a plateau overlooking the placid waters, are situated the fine pyramid fields or platforms which make Egypt as famous as the Alps make Switzerland. The first of these fields, from the north, is that of Abu-Roash, where the monuments, however, are in ruins, and, consequently, but little visited. They are reached on camel-back from Mena House or from the platform of Gizeh. This platform, within a tram ride from Cairo, is at the end of the long shady road built by Ismael Pasha in forty-eight hours for his guest the Empress Eugénie. The terminus of the tram-line is at the foot of the pyramid plateau. To the left lies an Arab village—Kafr—and to the right, the Mena House Hotel, standing in a refreshingly green garden. A short walk or ride up the hill and the Great Pyramid of Cheops is reached. Beside it stand two others—the first is Khafra's, and the other, smaller and more distant, was built by Menkaura. They have stood unchanged amid this ever-changing world for well over fifty centuries, having been erected in the fourth dynasty of the Egyptian kings, about four thousand years before the coming of Christ. Each of the two larger ones is a stupendous mass of stone standing higher than St. Paul's. The exhausting climb to the top is rewarded by a panoramic view over the Valley of the Nile, its immediate neighbourhood, the desert, Cairo, and the Delta. The interior, with its long, low, narrow sloping passages leading to the Chambers of the Dead, is well worth exploring, though centuries of pillage have robbed the various chambers of their original mummified contents.



KASR-EL-NIL BRIDGE.



THE TRAMWAY CENTRE.

But perhaps the greatest attraction in the neighbourhood of the Gizeh platform is the Sphinx, which is far older still than the Pyramids and of a totally different style of architecture, having features of rounded beauty unknown in Egyptian art. It was designed in an age of which nothing now is known. It is a huge monolithic statue of a crouching feline with a human head, and was probably used to guard the entrance to an adjacent temple, which still exists, though it was buried beneath the driving sands for many centuries. Much has been written about the Sphinx, yet as little is known to-day concerning it as a hundred years ago when Napoleon's soldiers aimed at shooting off its nose. Most impressive is this great solid remain of an unknown long-ago, especially if seen in twilight at dawn, or under the moonlight, when the harsh and cruel lines which time and vandalism have inflicted upon what was once a beautiful face are strangely softened.

Little need be said about the third pyramid field, that of Abu Sir. The monuments there are supposed to date from the fifth or sixth dynasties; but few excavations have been made here, and consequently little is known about their history.

Far more important are the Pyramids of Sakkara. They can be reached by camel ride or desert-cart across the desert over Abu Sir from Gizeh, or else by train from Cairo to Beduchein, a small village lying opposite Helouan. The mud-huts of this hamlet, the fallen colossus of Rameses the Great, and the Pyramids of Sakkara are all that remain to-day to indicate the site of the once splendid city of Memphis. Archæological expeditions, however, are busy endeavouring

to learn the secrets of the mounds in the vicinity of Bedreshein, which probably conceal many treasures of antiquity. As regards Sakkara itself, its most important monument is the Step Pyramid, seen plainly from Cairo. Excavations made here by Mariette and his successors have resulted in many important discoveries, foremost among them being the Serapeum, the burial vaults of the Apis Bulls. The oldest statue in the world, that of the Sheikh-el-Biled, now in the Cairo Museum, was found in this neighbourhood.

A few miles to the south lie the fine pyramids of Dahshud, where M. de Morgan unearthed some valuable collections of jewels. To reach it, the desert from Sakkara must be crossed on camels from Bedreshein, the return to Cairo may be made by one of Cook's steamers, which lands passengers in the proximity of the Nile bridge.

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME DES EAUX DU CAIRE.

THE Société des Eaux du Caire was constituted in 1870, and obtained a concession to supply water to Cairo and its suburbs for a period of 99 years. The principal founder of the society was H.E. Nubar Pasha, who was the first chairman of the Board of Directors.

The capital at the present day is made up of 68,000 ordinary shares of Frs. 125 each, 302,000 deferred shares and 3,360 founders' shares of no determined value. The receipts during 1908 amounted to £E186,700, and the expenses to £E56,400, leaving a profit on the year's working of £E130,300.

The pumping station is situated in the Rod el-Farag quarter. The installation is of the most modern type and the pumps have an aggregate delivery of 100,000 cubic metres every twenty-four hours.

In 1904 the Société des Eaux turned their attention to enlarging their ice business and constructing refrigerating rooms. They formed a company known as the Compagnie Frigorifique d'Egypt, and opened a large factory at Boulac, fitted with an elaborate refrigerating plant. During 1908 the output of the factory amounted to 950,000 blocks of 25 kilos each, or 23,750 tons.

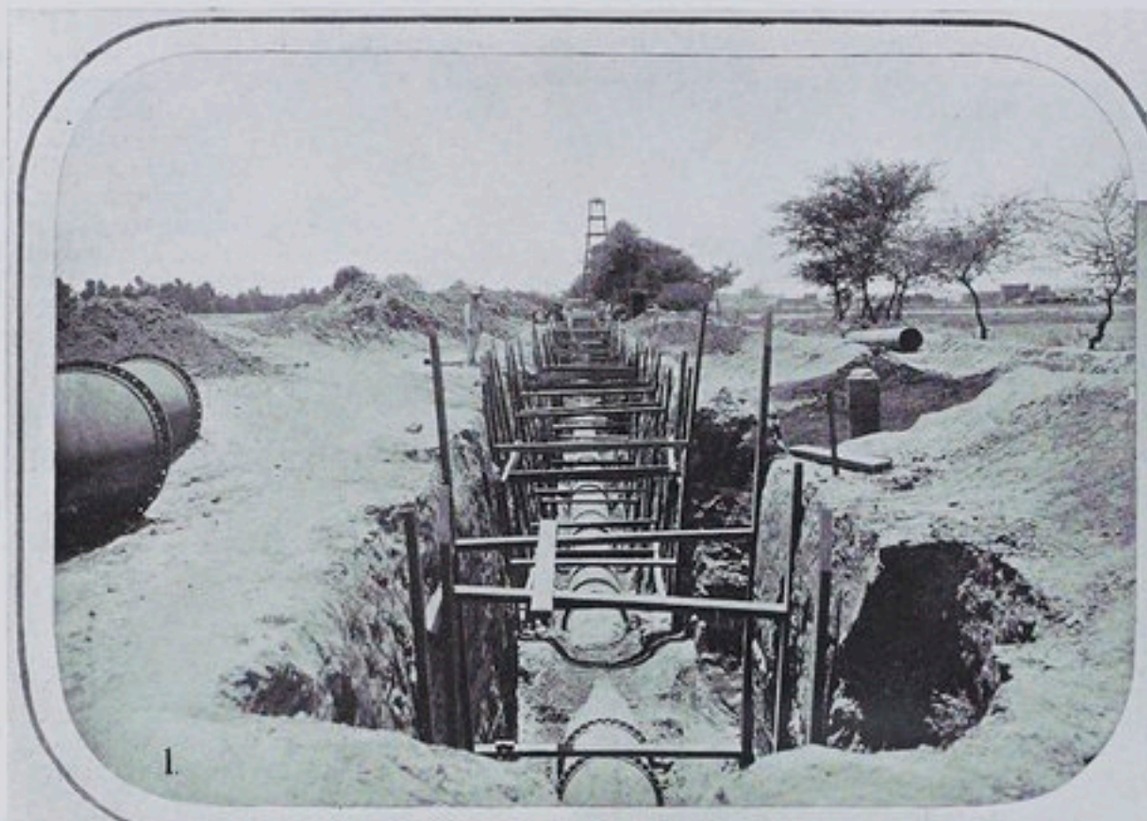
The present board of directors of the Société des Eaux includes H.E. Boghos Nubar Pasha (president), Mr. L. Escoffier (vice-president), Sir Joseph Saba Pasha (managing director), Mr. César Adda, Piot Bey, Mr. Miriel, and Mr. W. P. G. Graham (Government delegate). The technical manager is Mr. Astley P. Friend, M.Inst.C.E.

FIRE BRIGADE.

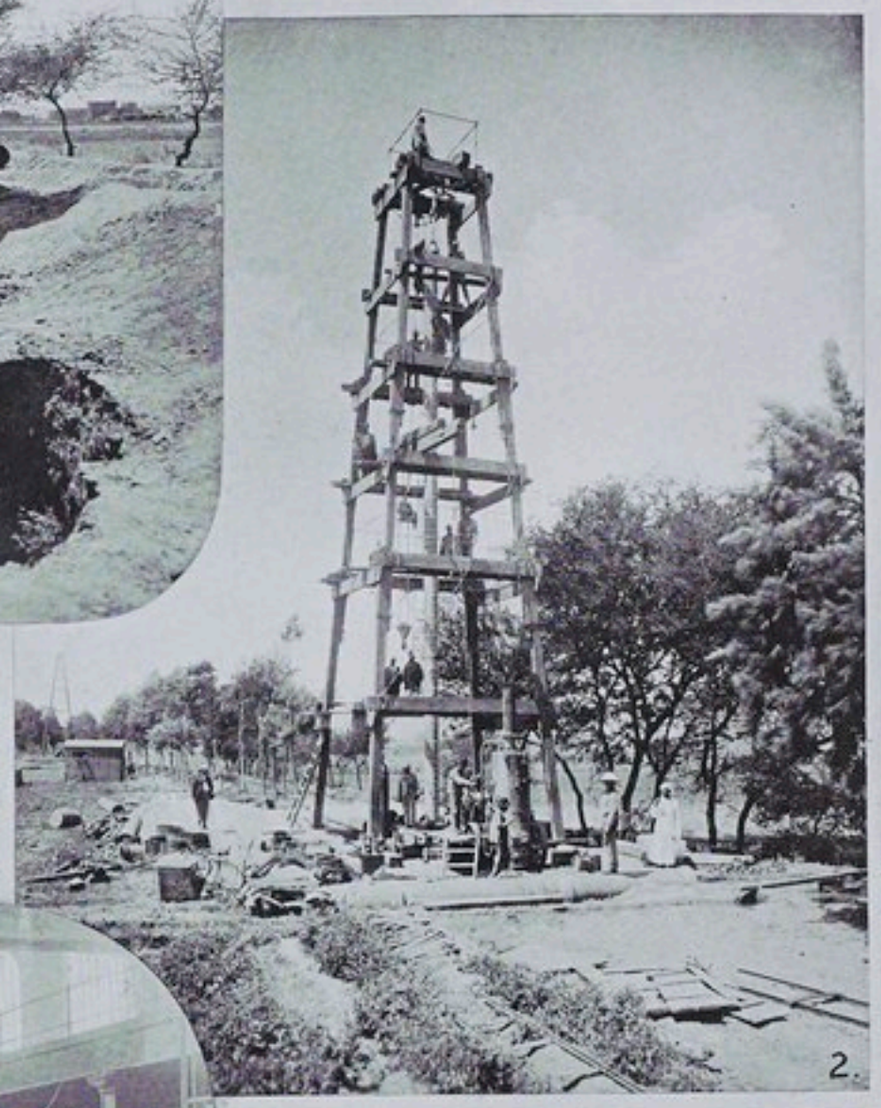
THE Cairo Fire Brigade has been in existence since the days of Ismael Pasha, when there were some two thousand conscript firemen under Miralais. Within the last twelve years it has been brought thoroughly up to date, and the opening of the Central Fire Station near the General Post Office four years ago added greatly to the utility of the organisation. The station was constructed from plans based on those of the Glasgow and Belfast fire stations, with, of course, certain modifications to meet local requirements. In the main portion of the building the engines and other gear stand ready; immediately to the rear are the boxes for the horses; while on the first floor are quarters for the firemen. The brigade now numbers three Europeans, including the engineer, and about one hundred native conscript firemen, these latter being recruited from amongst men who have served five years in the Egyptian Army. They are chosen on account of their physique, and their special capacity for hard work; and their previous discipline makes them the more amenable to the requirements of the service. The Superintendent is Major W. D. Blake, who has been in charge of the fire brigade for ten years.



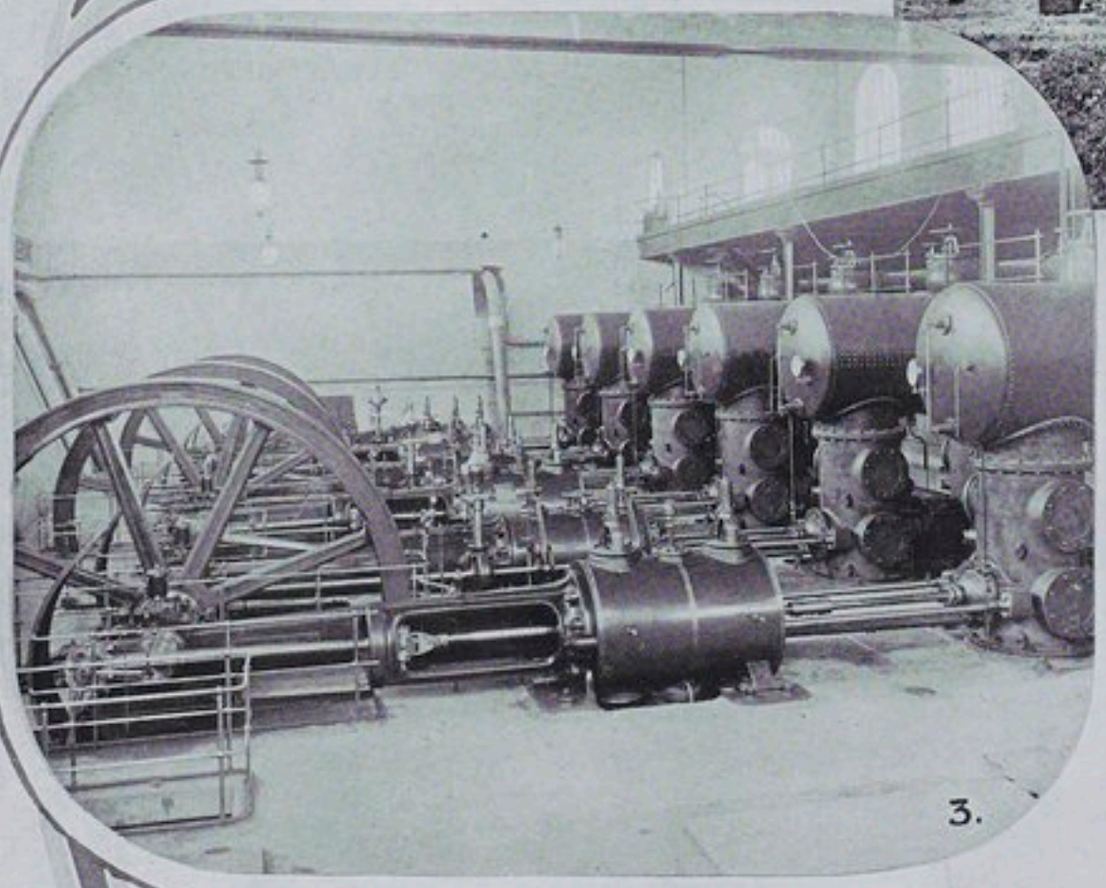
CHAREH KAMEL.



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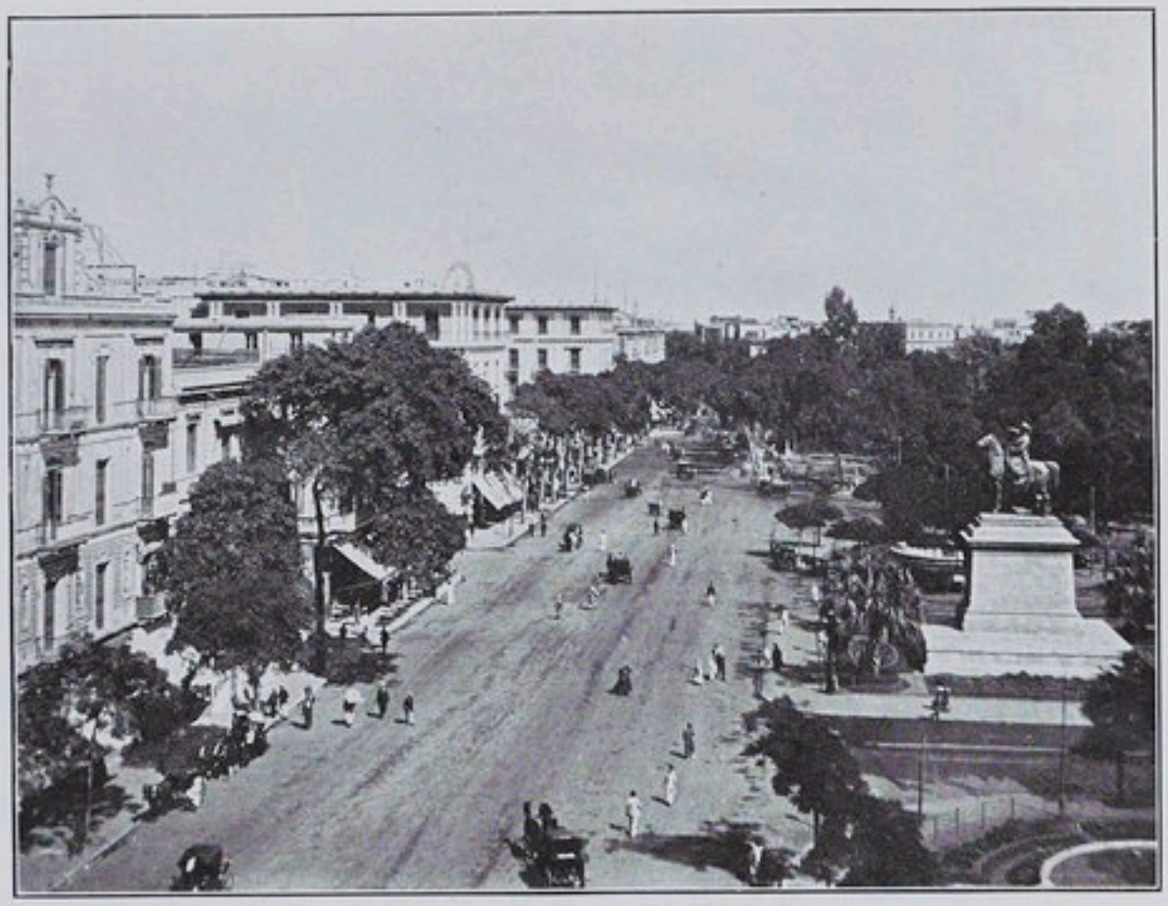
4.

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME DES EAUX DU CAIRE.

1. Syphon Pipes. 2. An Artesian Well. 3. Power Station and Engine Room. 4. The Cairo Premises.

The gear includes five Shand-Mason steamers—one of 600 gallons, two of 300 gallons, one of 260 gallons, and one of 200 gallons; an 80-feet turntable fire escape of the latest pattern; and several manual fire engines, hose reels, and small telescopic ladders. Thirteen young English horses, specially imported, are kept in readiness for horsing the engines. Fire appliances are also kept at all the police stations in Cairo. The water supply available for purposes of fire extinction is usually somewhat limited. There are at present 546 fire hydrants, but the number is being steadily augmented, as Government makes an annual grant of £E1,000 for this purpose. Exclusive of this grant the annual cost of the brigade is about £E4,000.

The number of fires or supposed fires reported during 1908 was 261; the estimated value of property at risk was £E816,000; and the loss sustained was roughly £E17,500. Of the property at risk £E92,000 worth was insured; and of the property lost about £E7,000 worth was covered by insurance. One of the most serious fires of recent years was that which occurred at the railway workshops some five years ago. Damage of the estimated value of £E35,000 was done. Within the present year (1909) an extensive fire took place in the Mousky. About an acre of house property was involved, and, owing to the narrowness of the streets and to the limited supply of water, the brigade experienced some difficulty in attacking the flames. The damage done amounted to about £E14,000.



CHAREH KAMEL (LOOKING EAST).

LE THEATRE PRINTANIA.

Le théâtre Printania est construit dans l'un des plus beaux quartiers de la ville; il occupe une superficie de plus de 2.000 mètres. Il a deux étages sans compter le rez-de-chaussée. Il possède plus de mille cinquante places assises et trois cents places debout ou assises dans les quatre vastes promenoirs de la salle, soit plus de 1.350 places. La scène est vaste et peut contenir plus de 200 artistes elle mesure 11 mètres de large, sur 14 mètres de long, et 20 mètres à l'intérieur; elle est admirablement construite et possède une installation de tout 1er ordre quant à la machinerie et l'électricite, etc., e'c. Les meubles et les décors sont riches et nombreux. La salle qui a une acoustique merveilleuse et qui a été décorée dans un style floréal du meilleur effet mesure 26 mètres de long, sur 28 mètres de large. Un élégant pérystile, un coquet foyer et un bar bien aménagé complètent cette élégante installation. En 1908 Monsieur Emile Camel-Toueg acheta avec Monsieur J. Ayrout le théâtre Printania qui, grâce à son habile direction rivalise avec le théâtre de l'opéra.



CHAREH EL MAGHRABY.

Monsieur Emile Camel-Toueg est né le 6 Août, 1877, fut Bâchelier-es-Sciences en 1897 et finit ses études de Droit français en 1901. Fils de l'une des plus anciennes et riches familles du pays. Monsieur Emile Camel-Toueg s'occupa de ses propres affaires et de ses propriétés jusqu'en 1903 date à laquelle il fonda la maison de Banque et de Reports E. Camel-Toueg et Cie dont il est le principal intéressé. En 1906 et 1907 il devint administrateur de plusieurs sociétés, entre autres la City and Agricultural Lands of Egypt de The Egyptian Economical Residences.

KHEDIVIAL SPORTING CLUB.

There is scarcely any form of sport possible under the climatic conditions of Egypt which is not fostered by the Khedivial Sporting Club. At their spacious grounds at Ghezireh, facilities are afforded for race meetings, gymkhanas, athletic sports, cricket, lawn tennis, golf, polo, racquets, hockey, croquet, football, and other games, while an excellent club house furnishes everything which can in any way contribute to the convenience of members.

The grounds, 150 feddans (or about the same number of acres) in extent, originally passed under deed of gift from the Khedive to the officers of the British Army of Occupation. Some twenty-five years ago, however, it was thought that the usefulness of the ground for the purposes of recreation might be greatly extended if a club admitting civil members was formed, and accordingly, on the initiative of several leading members of Cairo Society, in co-operation with a number of Army Officers, the Khedivial Sporting Club came into existence. The grounds were leased from the Government for a period of sixty-six years, and their development has since proceeded as requirements have dictated. To-day there are thirteen tennis courts, eight croquet grounds, four polo grounds, hockey, cricket, and football grounds, six squash racquet courts, a golf links (twelve-hole course,) courses for races and steeplechases, and a training track. The "distance" on the racecourse is a little over a mile.

The principal fixtures of the year are, of course, the Winter Race Meetings, of which there are three; and upon these occasions the course presents a gay and animated appearance, the crowds rivalling in all respects save size, those of Epsom or Newmarket. The first Winter Meeting falls early in January, the events including the Newmarket Stakes of £E250 (£E100 of which is presented by the Egyptian Government) for all horses, the Cairo Derby, value £E200, for maiden Arabs, and the Jubilee Stakes, value £E500, for maiden Arab ponies. The second takes place towards the end of the month, the big event (in fact, the biggest of the year) being the race for the Eclipse Stakes, value £E1,000, for maiden Arabs; while the third is held in the last week in February. Popular, but less important meetings, take place in November and December.

Some ten or twelve polo tournaments are held in the course of the year, and several valuable cups are offered. A great stimulus has been given during the 1908-9 season by H.E. Seifoullah Pasha Yousri, who kindly presented a handsome challenge cup; while for the coming season it is hoped that a scheme will be carried through to induce polo players to come over from Europe. A committee of influential people in Cairo has been formed with this object in view, and if all expectations are realised, tournaments on the lines of those held at Ostend and Cannes will be arranged on the club grounds.

Golf, tennis, and other tournaments also excite much enthusiasm, whilst a horse show and various military tournaments are held annually in the club grounds. During the 1908-9 season, Prince Mohammed Ali Hassan initiated four valuable prizes for tennis.

The club enjoys influential support. The patron is H.H. the Khedive, who is often to be seen with his suite at race meetings and other gatherings, and the list of vice-patrons includes H.H. Prince Mohamed Ali, H.H. Prince Hussein Kamil Pasha, H.E. Riaz Pasha, Sir Eldon Gorst, K.C.B., Major-General G. M. Bullock, C.B., Mons. A. Sinadino, and Major-General Sir R. Wingate, K.C.B., K.C.M.G. The president of the club is Sir Eldon Gorst, and the vice-president is Major-General G. M. Bullock, C.B. The president and vice-president, together with the financial adviser to the Egyptian Government and the adviser to the Department of Public Works are *ex-officio* members of the committee, which includes also three members delegated by the racing stewards and nine members elected by the general body of the club. Six members form a quorum. The permanent secretary is Mr. Keith H. Marsham, and the treasurer is Mr. F. C. Bonham-Carter.

The Khedivial Sporting Club is cosmopolitan, but its membership is restricted to applicants elected by the committee on the proposition of two members. Exclusive of Army officers, the roll now numbers 750 members. The entrance fee is P.T.200, and the various subscriptions are as follows:—Life members, £E50; resident members (married), P.T.500, (unmarried) P.T.360; country members (*i.e.*, those living outside a radius of fifteen miles from Cairo Post Office), P.T.200. Special terms are made for officers of regiments stationed in or near Cairo. Visitors, upon introduction by a member of the club, may obtain from the secretary passes as temporary playing members on payment of P.T.500 for the season, P.T.250 for one month, P.T.150 for two weeks or P.T.100 for one week. Daily passes are issued to non-playing visitors on band days (Tuesdays and Thursdays) for P.T.25 a day, and on other days for P.T.15 a day; while friends of members, when accompanied by those members, may obtain these passes for P.T.5.

CLUB AUTOMOBILE D'EGYPTE.

THE CLUB AUTOMOBILE D'EGYPTE was formed as a natural result of the general increase of automobilism in the country, and has a large membership. Its objects are to unite all who are interested in motoring, to guarantee the proper upkeep of the roads, to organise local and international sports meetings, to facilitate the establishment of garages and repair-shops in the principal towns, and, generally, to encourage the pastime in every possible way. The club enjoys the patronage of H.H. the Khedive, and counts among its honorary members Baron de Zuylen de Nyvelet de Haar, President of the Automobile Club of France. It is composed of honorary members elected by the committee, associate members possessing one share or more in the club, and permanent members paying full subscription and having the right to vote. Persons living in other countries may be admitted as foreign members on payment of half the subscription,



1. THE PRINTANIA THEATRE. 2. INTERIOR. 3. EMILE CAMEL TOUEG, PROPRIETOR.

but they have no power to vote. Automobilists in general are made welcome at the head quarters, 25, Chareh el-Madabegh, Cairo, while the members of other recognised clubs are permitted to avail themselves of the club's privileges for three months. For a longer period they are required to subscribe as foreign members. The committee are empowered to raise at any time the annual subscription, which is now £6, to £10, but the entrance fee of £5 cannot be increased. The president is H.H. Prince Aziz Pasha Hassan; the vice-presidents are H.E. Hussein Oassif Pasha and H.E. Dr. O. Abbate Pasha; the general secretaries are Mohamed Khourchid Bey and Mr. Paul Oziol; and the treasurer is Mr. Gustave Cattaui.

RAMSES CLUB.

THIS club was established early in 1905 by the leading members of the Coptic Community, and its headquarters situated in Halim Buildings, have since served as a rendezvous for the Party of Progress, whose aim is to reform the internal affairs of the community—ecclesiastical, social, and educational. It is to the efforts of the members that many of the reforms effected lately have been due, notably the re-instatement of the "Meglis," or Council, which administers charitable endowments, &c., and sits as a supreme court for cases of personal statute. The club has a membership of about one hundred and seventy, and is in a flourishing financial condition, thanks to the munificence of a group of its members, who have undertaken to guarantee its well-being. The president is Khalil Bey Ibrahim; the vice-presidents are Sawaris Bey Mikhail and Wahba Bey Shalabi; the hon. treasurer is Girgis Bey Henein; and the hon. secretary, Selim Effendi Barati. These gentlemen, with seven others, form the committee.



CLUB AUTOMOBILE D'EGYPTE (GYMKHANA AT THE PYRAMIDS).

SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO ANIMALS.

THE Cairo Branch of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was established about fourteen years ago, Lord Cromer and several leading residents manifesting great interest in its formation. From small beginnings the work has assumed fairly large proportions, and there are now local branches at Port Said and Alexandria, and in all the provinces in Egypt with the exception of Beheireh Mudirieh. Nearly all these branches owe their existence to the benevolent efforts of the resident gentry.

The Society's objects are preventive rather than punitive, for it is recognised that in the majority of cases the people are not naturally cruel. The Mahomedan religion, in fact, is extremely insistent upon the necessity of humanity to animals; but Mahomedans and Christians alike are wont to forget their duty towards the dumb creation, carelessness and lack of education being usually chiefly responsible. The more noticeable forms of cruelty are those observed in the treatment of cab horses and of animals employed in the carting of stone. The former are often but indifferent animals, their owners not being in a position to afford the price asked for a sound horse; and owing to the high price of fodder they are at best but ill-fed, and at worst literally starved. The drivers take the last ounce out of their beasts, supplying with the lash the stimulus which should rightly be afforded by rest and food; and a further cause of cruelty is that in many cases the animals have never been properly "mouthed," and have to be guided by means of the whip instead of the rein. Draught animals, especially those employed in hauling building materials, are usually overloaded, and have frequently to drag their loads over ill-made tracks, forced into the necessary exertions by a perfect rain of blows. The introduction of motor vehicles is doing something to lessen the cruelty now prevalent; and the relaxation of building activity in Cairo has tended to reduce the evils in connection with the stone carts.

The existing laws in respect of the neglect or ill-treatment of animals unhappily differentiates between the native and the European. An animal belonging to a native may be seized, and, by an order from the Court, may be detained at the owner's charge in one of the S.P.C.A.'s infirmaries; but one belonging to a European may not be so detained in the infirmary if the owner is unwilling, the power of the authorities being limited to an order that the animal be given the necessary rest and treatment in the owner's stables. It is hoped, however, that before long new enactments will be passed to put an end to this anomaly. The maximum penalty which the Court is empowered to inflict on either natives or foreigners is a week's imprisonment, with an alternative fine of P.T. 100.

Other cruelties against which the Society arrays itself are those involved in cock, dog, and ram fighting, and in such revolting practices as that in which some of the lowest class of Berberine servants delight, namely, placing a rat in a trap, pouring oil on it, and setting it alight.

The Society's infirmary in Cairo is situated at Boulac, and during the year 1908 a total of 1,421 animals were treated. Of these, 88 had to be destroyed as unfit for further use. Kennels for stray dogs are also situated on the infirmary premises; the care of the kennels is, however, under the Department of Public Health. The total expenditure of the Society during 1908 was £E2,962. The expenses are met by subscriptions and donations, and by a small annual subvention from the Government. The unofficial receipts include those from a fancy dress ball given annually in connection with the Society at the Gezireh Palace Hotel.

Of work of a general character in which the Society has taken the initiative may be mentioned the provision of water-troughs for animals in various parts of the city. The most handsome of these is one recently presented by H.E. Boghos Nubar Pasha. The question of watering and feeding cattle in transit on the railway lines has also had the serious consideration of the Society, and thanks to the co-operation of the Soudan Government and the Railway Administration it has now being satisfactorily settled. Until recently, animals were brought from Upper Egypt, or even from the Soudan, in slow trains, with an insufficient supply of food and water, and, in some instances, none at all. Now a fast service has been instituted, and at intervals during the journey the trains are run into special cattle sidings where the animals are rested, fed, and watered, before proceeding on their way.

Perhaps the chief difficulty which the

Society has to encounter is the apathy of the public in the matter of reporting cases of cruelty. Frequently recourse is had to a letter to a local newspaper, when the far more effective method of procedure would be to call the attention of a constable to the act, and at the same time to make a note of the officer's number, and forward particulars either to the honorary secretary of the Society at the offices of the Ministry of the Interior, or to the Commandant of the Cairo City Police.



THE GREAT GYPSUM ROAD.

HELOUAN.

HELOUAN is known to-day as a modern town situated about 15 miles to the south of Cairo, and two miles east from the Nile. The situation is well chosen, due more, however, to nature than the choice of man.

The town is built on a plateau commencing about 115 feet above the Nile, and rising gently towards the east and the Arabian hills to about 250 feet. On this plateau are the world-renowned sulphur springs and other waters, around which this modern health resort has been built.

Of the early Egyptian history connected with these waters little is known. From the fact that fragments of flint implements were found in the neighbourhood of the springs, it would lead one to believe that the waters were made use of in pre-historic times, and it is hardly conceivable that the inhabitants of the vast Necropolis of Memphis, on the opposite bank of the Nile, were not aware of the existence of these waters, and their health-giving properties, before the year 1600 B.C., the period they are first recorded.

Helouan, or Helouan-les-Bains, takes its name from the ancient village of Helouan, or Hulwan, on the right bank of the Nile opposite Bedreshein. There are various reasons given for the existence of this village. It was the terminus of one of the principal highways—the great gypsum road—into Egypt, and to Memphis, where the caravans were ferried across the Nile, and probably also the place where the alabaster taken from the Arabian hills for the construction of Memphis and the Pyramids was loaded into boats.

The celebrated Arab writer, Macrisi, mentions Helouan, as also the historians Abd el-Hakem and El-Kendi. From these it appears that Helouan takes its name from Helouan, son of Babylon, grandson of Emir el-Keiss, King of Egypt. Abd el-Aziz, who reigned in Egypt for twenty years (A.D. 706), came to live in Helouan when the plague broke out at Fostad, near Old Cairo. He built mosques and palaces and planted date trees there. The death of Abd el-Aziz frustrated his intention of making Helouan the capital of Egypt instead of Cairo.

In the year 1849 the Government of Khedive Abbas I. sent some soldiers, under the advice of the Professor of the Cairo Medical School, to partake of the Helouan waters. The sulphur springs were then enclosed in a wooden tank, with two small rooms adjoining. The results obtained by the soldiers induced the Egyptian people to go there in great numbers. Few Europeans, however, visited the place, the accommodation at that time being most unsuitable and the journey from Cairo difficult and uncomfortable.

In the year 1868 the Khedive Ismael sent a commission to Helouan, composed of professional men, to report on the waters, and on receipt of this report the Khedive gave orders for a bath establishment to be built by the Minister of Public Works. On digging to lay the foundations for these baths an interesting discovery was made, viz., a semi-circular basin, 26 feet in diameter, with red

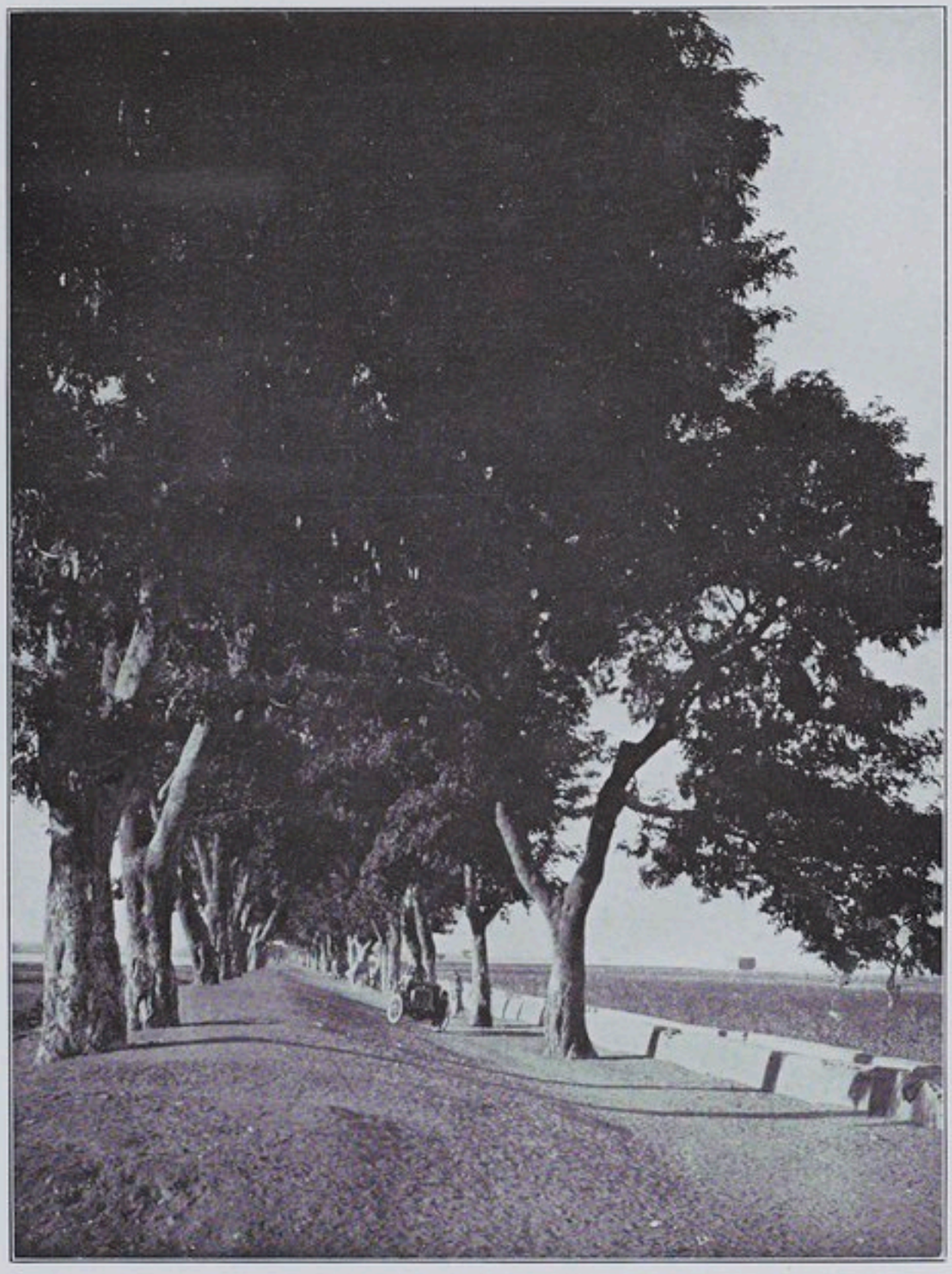


OLD CAIRO-HELOUAN COACH ROAD.

brick sides, and 10 inch thickness, flagged with limestone balatter, and bordered with stones carved in arabesques; and by the side of this basin were found broken columns, capitals, and socles. This bath disclosed four springs which flowed at the rate of about 600 cubic feet per hour. This is believed to be the spring spoken of by Macrisi, above referred to. It was enclosed in a well 15 feet deep and 9 feet 6 inches in diameter.

During the year 1870, Dr. W. Reil, afterwards physician and director of the baths, Helouan and invited the public to profit by the taking of the waters. Many Europeans came from Alexandria and Cairo, and accommodation soon proved insufficient.

Among other visitors was the wife of the Khedive Ismael, who arrived at Helouan with His Highness and a considerable suite. The Princess undertook a three weeks' cure with great success. Ismael, having paid continual visits to Helouan, and being charmed with the purity of its air, decided to make the place a real health resort. The buildings, so long delayed, were actually commenced



THE PALACE AVENUE.

states that the works at Helouan were suspended and abandoned to the care of two Bedouin guards. As the Government continued to delay the construction of the baths, Dr. Reil, being convinced more and more of the efficacy of the properties of the waters, approached Ismael and obtained a grant from him of £E200 for temporary construction, as well as an order for the War Office to supply him with tents and furniture. On July 2, 1871, with the accommodation thus afforded, Dr. Reil established himself at in February, 1872, and on other excavations being made further masonry remains were found.

Dr. Reil, who was in charge of the work, decided that the springs should be enclosed anew, and as a result of the work then carried out the output of the well increased to 21,050 cubic feet in twenty-four hours.

The buildings erected at this time were a bath establishment for Europeans, containing the private bath of the Khedive and fourteen bathrooms for the public; also a bathing establishment for Arabs, containing three saloons and six bathrooms, besides a large open-air swimming bath containing 175,000 cubic feet of water always changing. A hotel containing forty bedrooms, known then as the Grand Hotel, but now as the Hotel-des-Bains, was also erected.

At this time the new site of Helouan was laid out by order of the Khedive. Favourable conditions to those wishing to build were accorded, and, amongst others, stone was delivered to the site free.

Until the completion of the railway in 1877, communication between Cairo and Helouan was maintained by means of an omnibus with six seats, drawn by four mules, going three times a week and returning the following day, the fare being 10 francs. The hire of a carriage and four horses from Cairo cost 50 to 80 francs. The old road along the banks of the Nile by which this coach travelled, since the opening of the railway, has been forgotten and abandoned by the Government, and in some places houses have actually been erected upon it by the Arabs.

When Tewfik Pasha became Khedive he took a special interest in Helouan and built a palace there, and interested himself in the developing of the place as a first-class health resort. During his reign the greater part of Helouan as it exists to-day was built up. He died in his palace at Helouan on January 7, 1892, and with his death Helouan suffered a great set-back in its development. Had he lived longer he would no doubt have reaped the benefit of his foresight and made Helouan probably one of the best known watering places in the world.

In the year 1899 a new bathing establishment was completed and formally opened by Abbas Hilmi II. These baths were built by the Metropolitan and Cairo-Helouan Railway on their having obtained a concession over the Helouan waters on May 21, 1896. They were sublet by them to the George Nungovich Company on their completion, and are now exploited under their management.

In addition to the hot and cold sulphur waters, there are the saline and chalybeate waters. The following table shows the analysis of the sulphur water of Helouan-les-Bains by Professor F. Attfield, F.R.S. (October 30, 1896):—

Dissolved solids.	Grammes per litre.	Grains per gallon.
Potassium chloride ...	0·2923	20·4610
Sodium chloride ...	5·0690	354·8300
Calcium sulphate ...	0·0694	4·8580
Calcium carbonate ...	0·8250	57·7500
Magnesium sulphate ...	0·5069	35·4830
Iron and alumina ...	0·0160	1·1200
Silica	0·0290	2·0300
Sulphuretted hydrogen	0·0918	6·4260
Total dissolved solids	6·8994	482·9580

The following is an extract from the book of Dr. W. Page May, for some time medical director of the baths:—*

"Helouan is unique in Egypt in three important particulars, and in what follows therefrom, viz., in being surrounded on all sides by the desert, in being not on the level of the Nile, but about 200 feet above it, and

* "Helouan: a Guide to the Health Resort of Egypt." George Allen, 156, Charing Cross Road, London.

in the possession of thermal, sulphur, and muriated saline waters; moreover, so far as I know, no other resort within such easy reach of London possesses a combination of thermal sulphur waters, &c., and a warm, dry climate during the winter months. Helouan possesses certain special characteristics, and, undoubtedly, if these are properly utilised, must be of distinct benefit to a large number of persons.

"The class of cases in which I have seen most marked improvement or cure take place are in rheumatic and gouty subjects with joint affections, cases of Bright's disease, and in pulmonary and asthmatic cases. Neurasthenics also do very well.

"In conclusion, I can corroborate the testimony of Dr. Fenyes, who was for some years in practice at Helouan, and who has not seen a single case of diphtheria, dengue, malaria, or so-called specific disease, which had originated at Helouan."

These waters are richer in natural constituents and more efficacious than any waters known. The natural temperature is 91° F. (33° C.), but this can be regulated. A competent staff is in attendance from Harrogate and Aix-les-Bains during the winter months.

Helouan is prepared to receive visitors all the year round, the baths never being shut; but the principal months for visitors may be said to be from the beginning of November to the end of April. Perhaps the months of November and December are the best in Helouan. The air here is said to be better than at any place in Egypt; as it lies well above the Nile level it does not feel the effect of the high Nile and the dampness due thereto. The sunsets, as seen from Helouan in the winter time, are of marvellous grandeur.

This place is now in its infancy so far as a health resort is concerned, but it possesses all the requisites to make it the most renowned and most popular in the world. There are many excursions and rides for tourists to be had in the immediate neighbourhood, and amusements and entertainments are being increased annually.

The following are a few of the most popular excursions:—



RUINS OF TAMWAIH MONASTERY.



VIEW ON THE NILE NEAR SAN GIOVANNI-HELOUAN.

The Ancient Quarries and Caves of Massourah and Tourah.—Five to seven miles from Helouan by camel or donkey. These are the quarries from which the stone was taken for the construction of the Pyramids and Memphis. Four of these caves are of immense size and extend far into the mountain. On the walls are to be found various inscriptions; in one of them is the picture of a sledge bearing a huge block of stone and drawn by six oxen.

About the year 400 A.D. a large Christian monastery was built on these hills by Arcadius the Great; this monastery was known as Al Kusair, or Monastery of St. John the Dwarf, and in the year 1175 A.D. contained ten churches. It is said to have been one of the largest Christian monasteries known, and 6,000 monks lived there and in the neighbouring caves.

Old Helouan.—About two and a half miles distant, was the intended capital of Egypt. There is here a modern restaurant, beautifully situated on the Nile bank amongst the palm groves.

Bedreshein, the Serapeum, Memphis, the Tombs and the Pyramids of Sakkara, Abu Sir, and Dashur.—All these are situated on the western bank of the Nile and within easy reach of Helouan, and form the object of many pleasant excursions. On the west bank of the Nile, opposite Helouan, the Christian monastery of Tamwaih was situated amongst beautiful gardens, vineyards, and palm trees. It was renowned for its wine, and its beautiful gardens were the resort of people from all parts of Egypt and other countries. This monastery is said to have been built about the year 400 A.D. and traces of its ruins can still be seen.

The various wadis in the neighbourhood of Helouan are frequently visited. The principal of which are the Wadi Hof and the Wadi Gerraui. Situated in this latter, about eight miles to the south-east, are the ruins of a weir built to dam up the rain water in the wadi by the workers in the alabaster quarries. This weir consists of an embankment 33 feet high, 200-260 feet long, and 145 feet thick, stretching completely across the ravine, and constructed of solid masonry faced with limestone slabs on the east side. The construction is peculiar as being built in steps similar to the Pyramids.

The various wadis and paths in the Mokattam Hills furnish some of the best rides one could wish for. There are frequently to be found traces of the hand of men in ancient times. Beneath the sands lie many relics of a byegone age.

The flora in the neighbourhood is rich in variety, and has formed the subject of a special and interesting study by Professor G. Schweinfurth.

At Helouan is situated the Astronomical and Meteorological Observatory of Egypt, where

the time is regulated. A gun is fired automatically from here in Cairo at midday, and a ball lowered in Alexandria and Port Said. Visitors are admitted between certain hours on presentation of a card.

There is situated in the centre of the town a casino and gardens under the management of the Railway Company. There are many forms of amusement to be had here, including a skating rink, tennis and croquet courts, and a playground for children. In the theatre there are frequent performances throughout the season, and a band or orchestra plays at different times, and on certain days, such as Christmas and New Year, special fêtes are held in the casino. This is a favourite spot for many who come from Cairo on Sundays and holidays.

Admission to the grounds can be obtained on payment of P.T.2, or the purchase of a season ticket.

There is a racecourse at Helouan, where frequent horse races are held throughout the season, as well as athletic sports. It was the scene this year of the finish of Egypt's first Marathon Race. The course was from Cairo to Helouan (18½ miles) and the race was won by an Egyptian, Ibrahim Asr Ibrahim, private in the 5th Battalion Egyptian Army, in 2 hrs. 5 mins. 17 secs. Out of 59 competitors, 34 finished.

This year His Highness the Khedive paid his second visit to Helouan. His previous visit was made ten years ago on the occasion of his opening the Baths and Thermal Establishment. On the recent visit His Highness went to Helouan to see the Observatory and Al Hayat, both of which had been erected since his previous visit. He was pleased to express his pleasure with all that he saw, and particularly expressed admiration for the splendid Al Hayat building.

As an instance of the growing popularity of Helouan, it should be stated that every year the number of visitors have steadily increased, and this notwithstanding that this delightful resort is very little brought to the public notice by advertising. The hotel accommodation is of the best and is unsurpassed anywhere in Egypt.

The following amongst many other well-known people have visited Helouan at different times to benefit by its waters :—Prince Luitpold (now Regent) of Bavaria ; the unhappy Empress Queen Elizabeth of Austria-Hungary and her son Rudolph, the Crown Princess (now Queen) of Sweden, the Prince of Wales (King Edward VII), and the three last Khedive's and Khedivah's ; also Lord Cromer, Sir George Elliott, and General Lord Arbuthnot were frequent visitors, the latter being in command of the 7th Dragoon Guards and 19th Hussars when they were sent in 1882-83 to Helouan to recover from typhoid fever which they had contracted at Tel-el-Kebir.

The following information is derived from the report made by Dr. W. Page May, M.D., D.Sc., F.R.C.P., from his own observations taken at Helouan, being the average of four seasons at Helouan during five months, November to March.

SUNSHINE.—Eight hours per day and total of 1,250 hours 19 minutes for five months. No single day occurred without sunshine.

TEMPERATURE.—The average temperature was 60° F. at 9 a.m., increasing steadily to 70° at about 3 p.m., and returning slowly to 60° at 9 p.m. At night time the average temperature is 50° F. No sudden fall in the temperature occurs, it being gradual from maximum to minimum.

HUMIDITY.—The average humidity maximum and minimum taken by a recording hygrometer was 80·2 and 28·6 respectively. Average relative humidity 9 a.m. Glaisher's tables 59·8 and at 9 p.m. 57·6. There is very little wind and no dust. The average rainfall for four months in three successive years was less than half an inch.

The only means of communication with Helouan are at present by the railway and the Nile. The trains are frequent, being half hourly at certain times of the day. The station in Cairo for Helouan is Bab el Luk, about four minutes' drive from the centre of the town. Fare P.T. 8, first-class return.

The Government have under consideration the building of a road to Helouan, or at least the re-building of the old Avenue and Coach road, which before the advent of the railway was the only means of communication with Helouan. When this road is built and motors are able to go from Cairo to Helouan, there is no doubt that it will add materially to the popularity of this highly endowed health resort.

HELIOPOLIS.

SITUATED on a high plateau some seven or eight miles from the heart of Cairo there flourished in the dim ages of the past the sacred city of On, where the Patriarch Joseph found his wife. All that now remains to tell of its former glory is the famous red granite obelisk of Senusert I. (B.C. 2433) standing some 66 feet high, for Cleopatra's Needle was removed some years ago to its present site on the Thames Embankment, and all else has succumbed to the forces of nature.

Near the site formerly occupied by this centre of Egyptian learning a new town, planned in accordance with the most modern ideas of hygiene, elegance, and convenience, is rapidly springing into existence. Where once nothing was to be seen but an arid waste, there are now brilliant white buildings of imposing dimensions and mauresque design ; wide avenues, intersected by smaller roads ; and electric tramways that furnish rapid means of communication with Cairo. It was the increasing congestion of Cairo, with its inevitable concomitant of high rentals, that suggested the idea of transforming this site into a fine residential suburb, the choice of "the Oasis," as it is called, being decided by its splendid position. Exposed to the fresh north winds and bounded on the south and east by hills, it stands at a height varying from thirty to one hundred metres above sea-level and commands a view of the valley of the Nile and the town of Cairo.

Already between two and three hundred flats and villas are in course of construction, and in many instances they are nearing completion. Some of them, indeed, are already inhabited, the number of residents being about three hundred. In addition to these villas and flats a group of buildings, massive in structure and beautiful in design, has been erected in a central position. Included in this group are a huge hotel, a casino, and several charming private residences. The dominant feature is the hotel, which is probably the largest in Egypt. With its main aspect facing west, it stretches from north to south for a distance of 600 feet. In the centre of the façade, which is terminated by two large wings, is the great rotunda, with its wide, circular galleries and verandahs. This, when finished, will serve as a dining-hall, restaurant, and tea rooms. The four floors of the hotel will contain more than three hundred bedrooms, in addition, of course, to spacious public rooms. The Arabic style of architecture has been closely followed. The building is rapidly nearing completion and has already been let on lease. Not far away is the Casino, a handsome structure conceived in modern Arabesque style and surmounted by an octagonal cupola. It has three lofty stories and contains rooms and halls of noble dimensions, tastefully decorated in rich Arabesque. It is surrounded by a circular verandah and overlooks the racecourse and recreation-ground, which are now in process of formation.

The principal avenues or plantations are the Avenue des Pyramides, which has a length of 800 metres and a width of 40 metres, and will comprise seven squares laid out in lawns and with flowers and palms ; the Avenue de Palais, which runs parallel with the Avenue des Pyramides, and has a length of a kilometre and a half, and a width of 40 metres, in which four squares, with a total length of one kilometre, are already finished ; and the Avenue Ramses, which extends from the Casino to the Avenue de Palais.

"The Heliopolis Oasis" is lighted by means of electricity generated at a temporary station at Demerdache pending the completion of the permanent power-station at Shoubra ; it is supplied with fresh water through mains 40 kilometres in length from a reservoir of 5,000 cubic metres capacity, which has been constructed on the summit of one of the small hills in the neighbourhood ; and it is drained by an up-to-date system of sewers, the contents of which, now treated septically, will eventually run into the Cairo main sewer.

The bold project for creating this new suburb owes its conception to the imaginative genius of Baron Empain, one of the leading financiers of Belgium. With the co-operation of H.E. Boghos Nubar Pasha and several other important financiers, he acquired from the Egyptian Government some 6,000 feddans of land at a price of £E1 per feddan, under contract dated May 23, 1905, and in the following January formed an Egyptian Company for the purpose of developing the scheme. The Company has the right, under certain conditions, to purchase a further area of 11,900 feddans on similar terms within a period of seven years, and it has obtained concessions for the construction of (1), an electric tramway from the Sharia Boulac to the Place Bab el Hadid ; (2), an electric railway, connected with the foregoing, and running from the Place Bab el Hadid to the Oasis; (3), an electric tramway from Abbassieh to "the Oasis" ; and (4), an electric tramway connecting Koubbeh Palace Station, on the State Railways, with "the Oasis." These concessions have been granted for a term of seventy years, at the expiration of which they will revert without compensation to the Government. It is incumbent upon the



CAIRO ELECTRIC RAILWAYS AND HELIOPOLIS OASES COMPANY.

1. Palace Hotel, Heliopolis. 2. Sir Reginald Oakes, Bart., General Manager. 3. Casino, Heliopolis.



CAIRO ELECTRIC RAILWAYS AND HELIOPOLIS OASES COMPANY.

1. Head Office, Heliopolis. 2. Villas, Corner of Avenue des Pyramides and Ramses. 3. Heliopolis House.

Company to maintain the part of the old road to Suez which runs through its property, and to build four hundred residences, which shall be let to Government officials at rentals based on the cost of construction.

The real object of the Company, which has an authorised capital of Frs. 50,000,000, is to dispose of the land in their possession for building purposes. Every purchaser of a plot must undertake to build a house within eighteen months, and, upon the fulfilment of this obligation, a deposit which is required at the outset of 20 per cent. of the cost of the site is refunded. The owner of the house is given the option either of buying the land or of paying for thirty or sixty years an annual rental of 3 per cent. on the purchase price. The first sales of land realised from £1 to £1 10s. per square metre. Compared with house-rents in Cairo, those in the Oasis are very reasonable. Nice flats may be obtained for £80 a year or even less, and detached villas at prices ranging from £140 to £200 per annum. Poor people are provided for at much lower rates. The Company is ready to sell the houses which it is erecting by a system of annual instalments.

With confidence it may be predicted that when the British Army of Occupation is transferred to its new quarters at Abbassieh, when the Heliopolis Sporting Club comes into existence, and when the Grand Hotel is opened, the success of the Oasis will be an accomplished fact. At the same time there is no danger of congestion, however popular Heliopolis may become, for, under the terms of the contract, the Company may not devote more than one-fourth of the land to streets, buildings, and plantations.

SIR REGINALD LOUIS OAKES, the director-general of the company which is engaged, at the present time, in transforming Heliopolis into a fine residential suburb of Cairo, is the son of Henry Frederick Oakes, who died at Louvain in 1849. The present baronet succeeded to the title when only three years of age, on the death of his grandfather, the third baronet, in 1850. The first baronet was a distinguished military officer. He received the dignity in 1813, and two years later obtained a second patent granting the title, with remainder, to his brother, a Lieutenant-General in the E.I.C.S. The third baronet was a Lieutenant in the 52nd Regiment at Waterloo. Sir Reginald received his education at the University of Ghent, where he studied with a view of following subsequently the profession of engineering. After obtaining several years' experience in railway construction and management in France, Belgium, and Luxemburg, he established engineering works in Italy, and later, in the South of Russia. For eight years he was engaged with a large engineering firm at York, England. For the last two years he has been in Cairo. His present position as director-general of the Heliopolis Company places upon his shoulders the chief burden of responsibility for the successful organisation of the work. Sir Reginald Oakes married, in 1882, Florence, daughter of Charles de Bels Brounlie, H.B.M. Consul at Turin.

PROFESSIONAL AND MERCANTILE.

VACUUM OIL COMPANY.

THE Vacuum Oil Company of Rochester, New York, was established in Egypt eleven years ago. The products sold by this company are all kinds of lubricating oils, refined oils, stoves, lamps, heaters, oil cabinets, &c. It has bulk stations all over Egypt, especially in the towns and large villages such as Assiout, Benha, Beni Souef, Chebin-el-Kom, Damanhour, Fayoum, Keneh, Luxor, Mansourah, Mehalla Khebir, Menuf, Samanud, and Zagazig, but the two most important are at Alexandria and Port Said. At the former place there is also a large can factory, which turns out upwards of 5,000 tins or bidons a day. The oil thus packed is sent to all parts of Egypt, while from the different bulk stations already mentioned oil is conveyed in tank waggons to the outlying districts and sold either to small retail dealers or direct to the consumer. In places where the roads are not sufficiently good for tank waggons, camels are employed as a means of transport. In addition to the bulk stations mentioned above, others will shortly be constructed, so that the whole of Egypt will soon be within easy reach of the Vacuum Oil Company's different depôts. The various depôts already mentioned, as well as Cairo, have the oil sent to them in bulk and tins by railway tank cars, or by a bulk barge, where practicable, from the two principal bulk stations, Alexandria and Port Said. At the latter station, benzine in bulk is also kept to supply the needs of Egypt in this particular. The Vacuum Oil Company has throughout Egypt an army of more than five hundred employés, which number is continually being increased. The Company intend shortly establishing branches in Khartoum, Port Soudan, and the island of Cyprus.

The general manager for Egypt is Mr. C. Xippas.

GUSMAN & DENTAMARO.

THE above firm of engineers and contractors was established in 1905 by Felix Gusman and Emmanuel Dentamaro. Their first big undertaking was the Khargeh Junction, for the Corporation of Western Egypt. Several other contractors had refused the work, owing to the shortness of the time allowed, for the junction, including the banks, pitching, and skew-bridge, had to be completed in forty days, before the time of flood Nile. Gusman & Dentamaro, however, completed the work within the time specified, and the Corporation then entrusted them with the construction of the line from Khargeh Junction to Khargeh, across about 120 miles of desert separating the Oasis from the Nile Valley and the trunk railway. The work was quite a triumph of engineering skill under most difficult conditions. The Nile Valley is about 60 metres above sea level, and there is a steady climb of something like 40 kilometres to the summit of the scarp, which is approximately 400 metres above sea level. The contractors practically lived in the desert during the five hundred days which it took them to complete the line. They employed between two and three thousand men per diem, and had to supply them with fresh water rations, and, during the winter, with wood. Apart from this question of supplies for so large a staff of men far removed from any human habitation, innumerable difficulties were presented by the extraordinary formations of sand dunes, rocks, and wind-swept gorges through which the line had to pass. When the line was opened, the firm were publicly thanked, and were given a substantial bonus.

In the meantime, Mr. Felix Gusman secured the contract for building the station dwellings on the Upper Egypt line for the Egyptian State Railways, at Mouddah, and the work was carried through by Mr. Felix Gusman to the entire satisfaction of the authorities. The firm also undertook the construction of an important section of a line through the Mokattam Hills, near the Citadel, Cairo, for the Egyptian Delta Light Railway. The work involved a huge cutting in solid rock and the piercing of the only two tunnels in Egypt, and was satisfactorily completed in less than one year. Their next contract was for reclaiming the foreshore and making a quay round the Roda Island estate for the United Egyptian Land Company, the work having been retroceded to them by Mr. Clifford Beckett. This work is still in hand, powerful hydraulic machinery being employed in carrying it out, and when it is completed there will be a fine boulevard round the island.

Another branch of the firm's business is the supply of bricks and other building materials. They have large kilns at Khatatbah, Lower Egypt, and they have a large standing order from the Egyptian Government for over twenty thousand specially manufactured bricks a day. They have also a concession of six quarries in the neighbourhood of Cairo, and they supply large quantities of stone to Government and to private contractors.

Finally, they own various tracts of land for building and agricultural purposes, and they undertake all kinds of surveying, land reclamation, and irrigation work. Quite recently they have taken on a large and important contract in the Beheireh Province for the Irrigation Department of the Egyptian Government, the work being estimated to cost £E20,520.

Mr. Felix Gusman, like his father, the late Xavier Gusman, a merchant trading in Europe, America, and Algeria, is a British subject. He was born on February 4, 1874, at Bona, Algeria, and was educated at the Algerian School of Fine Arts, in Paris, and in London. On leaving school, he was engaged in railway construction in Algeria, and in European and Asiatic Turkey. In 1897 he came to Egypt as an engineer under the Egyptian Delta Light Railways, and was employed in making extensive surveys and in the construction of various railway lines. Some four years later he joined the Egyptian State Railways as civil engineer in their technical department, and remained with them two years. During that time he took three months' leave in order to assist in making a model plaster plan of Egypt for the Daira Sanieh for exhibition at St. Louis. Leaving the State Railways he joined a private engineering firm, for whom he made large surveys of waste land with a view of carrying out extensive schemes of irrigation; and later he was employed upon similar work by Prince Ibrahim Hilmi Pasha. In 1905, having secured the contract already mentioned with the Corporation of Western Egypt, he took Mr. E. Dentamaro into partnership with him. Mr. Gusman is a member of the British

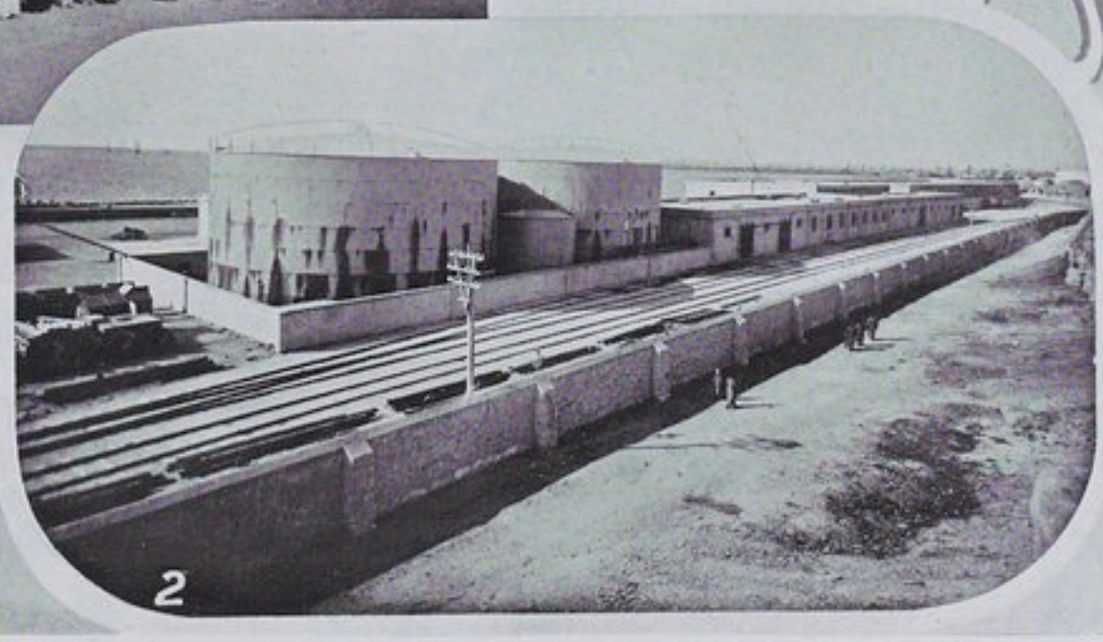


VACUUM OIL COMPANY.

THE CAIRO STAFF.



1



2

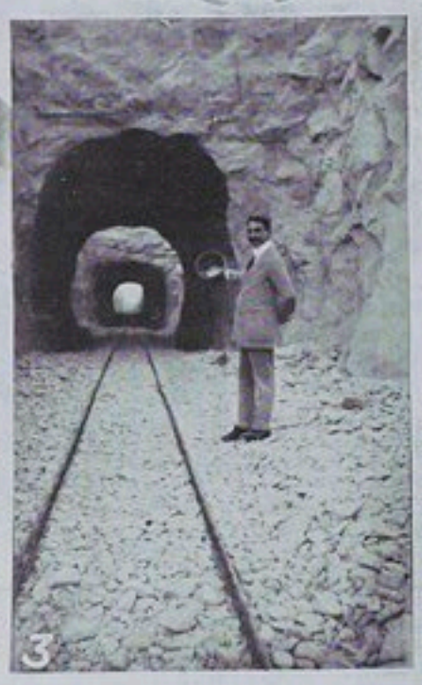
VACUUM OIL COMPANY.

1. INSTALLATION AT CAIRO.

2. INSTALLATION AT ALEXANDRIA.

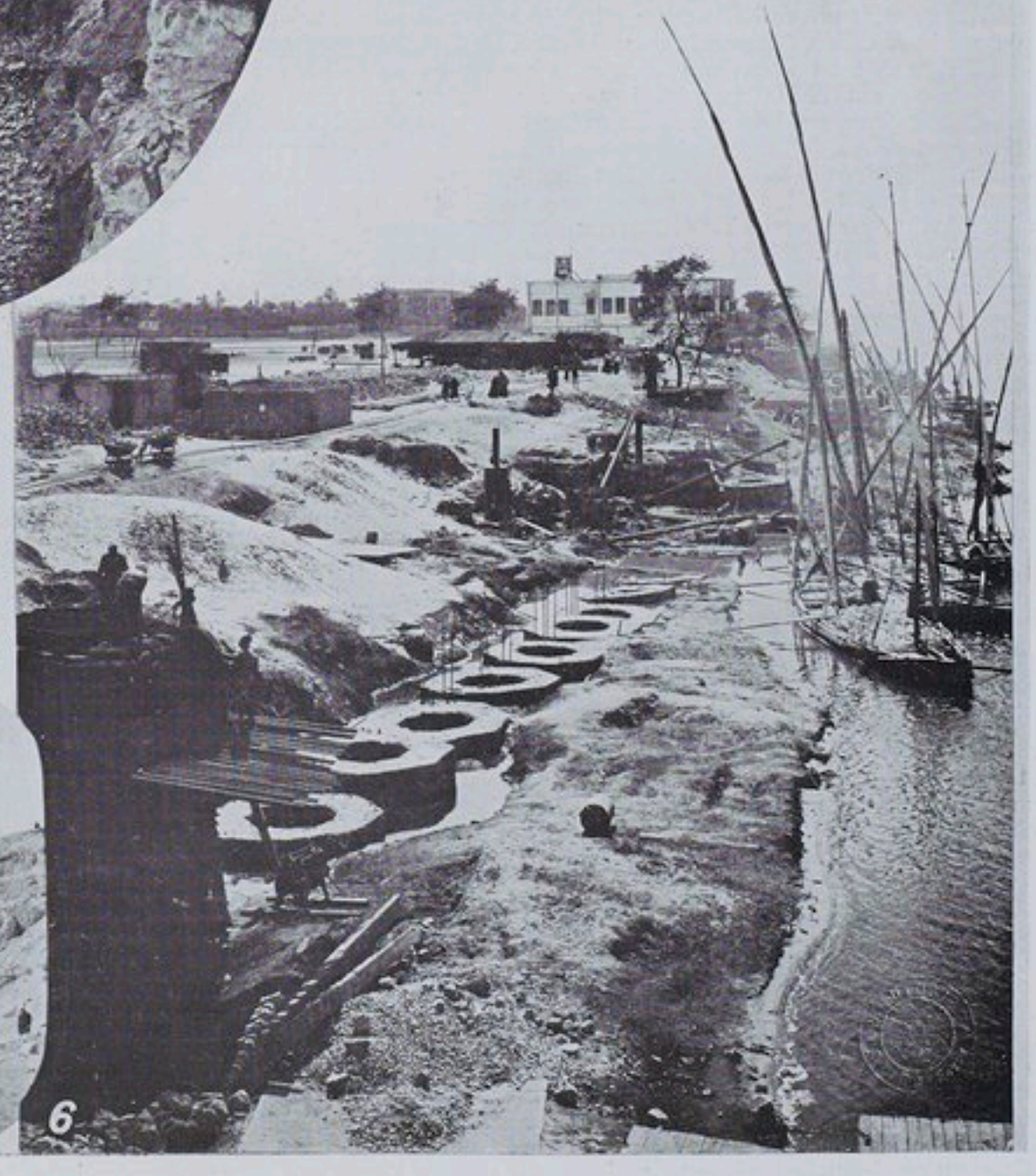












GUSMAN AND DENTAMARO.

1. Hard Rock Cutting near the Cairo Citadel.
2. E. Dentamaro.
3. Tunnel near Cairo Citadel.
4. F. Gusman.
5. Constructions on the Western Oases Railway.
6. Quay Wall, Roda Island.

Chamber of Commerce and of several other local institutions.

Mr. Emmanuel Dentamaro, a son of the late Francesco Dentamaro, a landed proprietor of Bari, Italy, was born in 1880. A self-educated man, he was apprenticed at an early age to the masonry trade, and improved his leisure by attendance at night schools. In 1896 he joined a well-known firm of contractors in Egypt, and was engaged on work for the Egyptian Delta Light Railways. He continued his studies by means of a course of technical correspondence and with the help of private teachers, and in course of time he acquired a knowledge of the English, French, and Arabic languages. After seven years with the firm he started business on his own account, and eventually he joined Mr. Gusman.

La maison ci-dessus nommée, ingénieurs et entrepreneurs, a été établie en 1905 par Félix Gusman et Emmanuel Dentamaro. Leur première grande entreprise fut le Khargeh Junction, pour la corporation de l'est de l'Egypte. Plusieurs autres entrepreneurs avaient refusé le travail à cause du peu de temps donné, parce que la jonction et les rives comprises, le tangage et le pont oblique devaient être terminés en 40 jours, avant la crue du Nil. Gusman et Dentamaro, cependant accomplirent le travail dans le laps de temps spécifié et la corporation, se fiant en eux, leur donna la construction de la ligne de Khargeh Junction à Khargeh, à travers 120 miles de désert, séparant les oasis de la Vallée du Nil et de la chaussée du Tramway. Cet ouvrage était un vrai triomphe d'habileté et de génie à cause des conditions difficiles. La vallée du Nil est à environ 60 mètres au dessus du niveau de la mer et il y a une montée d'environ 40 kilomètres au sommet de l'escarpe, ce qui fait à peu près 400 mètres au-dessus du niveau de la mer. Les entrepreneurs vécurent dans le désert pendant les 500 jours que duraient les travaux pour compléter la ligne. Ils employèrent entre deux et trois cents hommes par diem et devaient leur fournir des rations d'eau fraîche pendant l'hiver avec du bois. A part les questions d'approvisionnement pour un aussi nombreux personnel loin d'habitations humaines, de nombreuses difficultés se présentaient par la formation extraordinaire de dunes, des rochers des gorges par lesquels la ligne devait passer. Quand la ligne fut ouverte, la maison fut remerciée publiquement et reçut une gratification.

En même temps M. Félix Gusman s'assura le contrat pour la construction des maisons d'habitation des stations des lignes de la Haute-Egypte pour les chemins de fer égyptiens à Mouddah. Cet ouvrage fut fait par M. Félix Gusman à l'entière satisfaction des autorités. La maison entreprit aussi la construction d'une importante section de ligne à travers les collines du Mokattam près la citadelle au Caire, pour les chemins de fer du Delta Light Railways; le travail comprenait une masse de coupures dans le roc solide; il fallait percer deux tunnels, les seuls en Egypte; ceci fut fait à la satisfaction complète en moins d'un an.

Leur contrat suivant fut de raccourcir et de faire un quai autour de l'île de Rhoda pour the United Egyptian Land Company, ce travail leur ayant été rétrocédé par M. Clifford Beckett; ce travail est toujours en main, des machines hydrauliques sont employées, et une fois terminé il y aura un joli boulevard autour de l'île.

Une autre branche de leur maison est pour fournir des briques et d'autres matériaux de construction. Ils ont de grandes briqueteries à Khatatbah, Basse Egypte. Ils ont une grande commande du gouvernement égyptien pour plies de 20.000 briques manufacturées chaque jour. Ils ont aussi une concession de six carrières dans les environs du Caire, et ils fournissent de grandes quantités de pierres au gouvernement et aux entrepreneurs.

Finalement, ils possèdent plusieurs pièces de terrain pour construction et pour projet d'agriculture; ils entreprennent toutes sortes de travaux tels que surveillance de terrains, et travaux d'irrigation. Tout nouvellement, ils ont reçus un important contrat dans la province de Behera pour le service d'irrigation, département du gouvernement égyptien. Ce travail est estimé de £E20.520.

Monsieur Félix Gusman, comme son père, feu Xavier Gusman, marchand en gros en Europe, Amérique, et Algérie, est un sujet anglais. Il est né en février le 4, 1874, à Bône, Algérie, et a été eduqué à l'école Algérienne des Beaux Arts, à Paris et à Londres. Après avoir quitté l'école, il a été engagé dans la construction en Algérie, en Europe, et en Turquie d'Asie. En 1897 il vint en Egypte comme ingénieur aux Egyptian Delta Light Railways et a été employé pour surveiller de grandes constructions dans plusieurs grandes lignes de chemins de fer. Quatre ans plus tard, il extra aux chemins de fer égyptien comme ingénieur civil au service technique et resta avec eux deux ans. Pendant ce temps, il prit trois mois de congé avec l'idée de faire un plan de l'Egypte en plâtre pour la Daïra Sanieh; ceci pour l'exposition de Saint Louis. Il quitta le service des chemins de fer et entra dans une fabrique de machines pour laquelle il fit des sondages dans des terrains vagues; plus tard il travailla dans la même branche pour le Prince Ibrahim Hilmi Pacha. En 1905, ayant assuré le contrat déjà mentionné avec la corporation de l'est de l'Egypte, il prit Monsieur Dentamaro comme associé. M. Gusman est un membre de la Chambre de Commerce Anglaise et de plusieurs autres institutions locales. Monsieur Emmanuel Dentamaro, un fils de feu Francesco Dentamaro, propriétaire de terre à Bari, Italie, est né en 1880. Il s'est éduqué lui-même, était apprenti très jeune dans la maçonnerie et occupa ses loisirs dans des écoles du soir. En 1896, il entra dans une maison bien connue d'entrepreneurs, en Egypte, et fut engagé au travail par le Egyptian Delta Light Railways. Il continua ses études au moyen d'un cours de correspondance technique et avec l'aide de professeurs privés, avec le temps, il acquit les connaissances des langues anglaise, francaise et arabe. Après un stage de sept ans dans la maison, il commença des affaires pour son propre compte et éventuellement s'associa à M. Gusman.

CAIRO SEWAGE TRANSPORT COMPANY, LTD.

In former years the arrangements in Egypt for the clearance of fosses and other receptacles for offensive matter were of the most primitive description, and not only caused considerable inconvenience to the public but were also fruitful sources of epidemic diseases. In 1887, however, the Government admitting the urgent need for more scientific methods, commissioned the Cairo Sewage Transport Company, Ltd., to carry out the necessary reforms. The company introduced the Talard steam vacuum system, by means of which the entire contents of a fosse can be extracted without causing the faintest odour, leaving the slightest trace, or giving any trouble. Moreover, the operation can be carried out by day or night with the utmost rapidity. Since 1895 the Company have directed their attention also towards the supply of manures. The clearances brought to the depôtoirs are treated scientifically, and some of the best qualities of fertilisers so obtained, contain as much as from 1¾ to 3 per cent. of nitrogen, about 2½ per cent. of phosphoric acid, and about ½ per cent. of potash. The products are supplied direct to cultivators in different parts of the country. In recognition of the services which they have rendered to agriculture, the company have been awarded four silver medals at various exhibitions in Cairo. In 1899 the Company absorbed the business of the Société générale egyptienne des Engrais, and in the following year added to their activities the preparation of abattoir manures, such as poudre d'os, poudre de viande, and sang pulvérisé.

The capital of the company is £16,000 sterling, with a reserve fund of £9,500 sterling. In 1908 a dividend of 10 per cent., with a bonus of 2 per cent. was paid on the ordinary shares, whilst a dividend of 7 per cent. is paid regularly on the ordinary shares.

In Cairo the general offices of the company are in the Sharia el-Cherifien, while the works and depôtoirs are situated at Old Cairo, the Tanneries, Abou-Seoud, and Abbassieh. Branches have also been opened at Tantah, Damanhour, Mansourah, Damietta, Zagazig and Port Said. The general manager is Mr. Henry Meyer, a Swiss, whose connection with the company dates from 1886. He was one of the founders of the Artesian Boring and Prospecting Company, and of the Manure Company of Egypt. The directors are Messrs. E. H. Day (president), T. Hunter Jones, A. Bircher and G. Blum.

BOYES, SHILSTON & CO.

During their six years' existence the firm of Boyes, Shilston & Co., engineers, shipbuilders, and contractors, of the Cairo Engine Works, have secured a number of important Government contracts from the railways, posts and telegraphs, prisons, and sanitary departments, which have kept their works on the banks of the Nile continuously at work. They undertake all descriptions of iron work, construction work, and general repairs, for which they have ample facilities. Their foundry can make castings up to two tons, and their repair shop is equipped with the machinery necessary for all classes of engine work. They also do a considerable amount of outside construction and erecting work. Of late their shipbuilding business has largely increased. In this department their work consists chiefly of the construction of dahabeas, lighters, barges, and various types of sailing vessels such as are seen in such numbers on the Nile. The general conduct of the business is under the personal supervision of the partners, Mr. Mark G. Boyes and Mr. V. G. Shilston, while two skilled English engineers have charge of the outside work and the workshops respectively. The mechanics and workmen are Europeans and Arabs who have been specially trained in the service of the firm. Boyes, Shilston & Co., are the agents in Egypt for Blackstone & Co., Ltd., of Stamford, who supply portable and stationary oil engines and corn-grinding mills; E. R. & F. Turner, Ltd., of Ipswich, manufacturers of corn-grinding mills and flour-dressing machines; and other well known firms. For the specialities of these firms as well as for machines used for irrigation and general purposes Boyes, Shilston & Co. are able to place numerous orders. Mr. Mark G. Boyes started the business in 1902, and was joined about the middle of 1907 by Mr. V. G. Shilston, who was formerly manager of works to the Hamburg and Anglo-American Nile Company.

GHEZZO & FEDRIGO.

DURING the past ten years Ghezzo & Fedrigo have carried on business in Cairo as building contractors, and have completed many large undertakings, including two syphons at Abonumberos for the Irrigation Department in 1900, one school in Fayoum Province, a new prison at Zagazig, enlargements to the prisons at Tantah and Manchia, renovations to the ancient Fortress of Babylon at Old Cairo, the new reformatory at Ghizeh, the building of which occupied three years, two mansions for the Wakfs Administration, &c. The partners in the business are both of Italian origin. Mr. Luigi Ghezzo is a son of the late Ciriaco Ghezzo, a former contractor and stevedore at Trieste. He was educated at the Milan Polytechnical School, where he took his diploma in 1881, as engineer. He was then for twelve years engaged on the Parma-Suzera and Parma-Spezzia Railways. In 1893 he joined the Salonica-Constantinople Railway as chief engineer, and two years later accepted a similar post on the Sofia-Roman Railway. He came to Egypt in 1897 as chief engineer in charge of the construction of the Palais de Justice, Cairo. He is an assessor judge of the Mixed Tribunals. Mr. Ercole Fedrigo, born in 1866, joined his father, the late Luigi Fedrigo, a building contractor, in 1882, and worked for three years in the construction of tunnels through the Romano mountains. Since the completion of that work he has been variously employed; the chief works in which he has taken part being the Nuoro Railway, near Naples; the Arsenal at Taranto, Italy; works at Massana, Africa, for the Italian Military Engineering Department, and the Arsenal at Campo di Marti. He came to Egypt in 1893, and was engaged in the construction of the Palais de Justice, Cairo, until 1899, when he started business in partnership with Mr. Ghezzo. He is an assessor judge of the Italian Consular Court.

MINOTERIE ANTOINE SANT.

FONDÉE EN 1870, la Minoterie Ant. Sant, située sur la rue el Cheikh Said (Saptieh), au Caire, est la seule munie d'appareils de meunerie les plus perfectionnés importés récemment d'Europe au moyen desquels elle donne une production journalière de 180 à 200 sacs, outre les produits qu'elle retire pour son compte personnel; la Minoterie s'occupe aussi à travailler pour le compte d'autres négociants qui portent leur blé et le font préparer au moulin moyennant un prix convenu par quantité de graines.

Sujet britannique M. Ant Sant est né en 1877 et depuis 1898, date de la mort de son père, il devint propriétaire de la dite Minoterie et s'est occupé de suite de cette industrie et en même temps du commerce des farines importées de l'Etranger.

FERRERO & CO.

WITH a turnover of £200,000 per annum, Ferrero & Co., general merchants and commission agents, rank among the largest firms of the kind in Egypt. Their chief imports are textile goods, iron and earthenware, and colonial produce. They represent numerous English and Continental houses, among them Cochran and Fleming, pottery manufacturers, of Glasgow; Jas. Kenyon and Son, Ltd., of Bury, wholesale suppliers of Manchester goods; Newman, Smith and Newman, Ltd., furniture dealers; the Compagnie Française des Indes et de l'Extrême Orient, shippers of colonial produce; R. Ditmar, Gebrüder, Brünner, Ltd., a Viennese firm of lamp manufacturers and metal workers; Heinrich Brinkmann & Co., wholesale ironmongers, of Iserlohn; F. Schmitt, Vienna, dealer in woollen goods; the Neukirchner Druckfabriks, manufacturers of cotton prints; the Verreries Rénies et Famillereux, a Belgium Company exporting glassware; and Messrs. Zosenheim & Co., of Leeds, makers of woollen goods. The firm are also agents for the Netherlands Fire Insurance Company, the German Marine Insurance Company, the Cosmos Life Insurance Company, and the Fatum Accident Assurance Companies. Their Cairo offices are situated. in the Rue Mousky, and they have branches at Alexandria, Port Said, and Suez. The business has been carried on continuously since 1866, though the style of the firm has twice been changed. It was established by Zachmann & Co., and was taken over in 1875 by Bretschneider & Co. The present proprietor, Mr. A Ferrero, joined the firm as manager in 1892, was admitted into the partnership ten years later, and assumed control of the business in 1906. He was one of the founders of the International Chamber of Commerce, and under the article on that body which will be found elsewhere, appear further personal particulars concerning him.

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME AGRICOLE ET INDUSTRIELLE D'EGYPTE.

CETTE Société a été constituée à Anvers le 5 Octobre 1895, sous la forme d'une commandite par actions Georges A. Eid et Cie, au capital de 2.500.000 francs.

Par décret Khédivial du 15 Mai 1897 elle a été transformée en Société Anonyme, au capital initial de 5.000.000 de francs. Son Siège Social est établi au Caire, rue Gameh Charkass, avec bureau à Anvers, 11, Place Léopold.

D'après ses Statuts, la Société a pour objet le progrès de l'industrie agricole en Egypte, et, à cet effet, l'entreprise de tous travaux d'amélioration du sol, notamment par irrigations, drainages, endiguements, dessalements, desséchements et défrichement; la distribution et la vente de l'eau, la fabrication et le commerce des engrais, la transformation des produits agricoles; la participation dans des entreprise industrielles, dont le succès pourrait contribuer au but social; enfin tous achats, ventes, échanges, locations de terrains et immeubles ruraux ou urbains et l'exploitation d'entreprises agricoles ou foncières quelconques.

Cette Société a actuellement près de 12 ans d'existence, son capital a été augmenté progressivement jusqu'au chiffre actuel de 46 millions de francs, dont frs. 12.500.000 d'actions et frs. 33.500.000 d'obligations.

Ses propriétés représentaient au 31 Janvier 1908 une superficie de 40.672 feddans ou près de 17.000 hectares, ayant coûté 45.729.241 de francs et valant actuellement près de frs. 58.000.000.

De plus, la Société a pris une participation de 3 millions de francs dans le capital de la Société Agricole de Kafr el Dawar, constituée le 22 Mai 1907.

Pour l'année 1907, la Société a obtenu 1.075.000 francs de revenus agricoles nets de ses propriétés et frs. 2.652.000 de bénéfices sur vente de 1.288 hectares de terrains.

La moyenne des dividendes distribués aux actions de capital, pendant les 12 années écoulées depuis la constitution de la Société est de 7½ pour cent par an, auxquels vient s'ajouter le dividende alloué aux parts de fondateurs et qui équivaut à près de 3,70 pour cent, soit ensemble une moyenne de 11 pour cent. Ces dividendes ont nécessité la distribution d'une somme globale de frs. 7.914.497, tandisque la Société prélevait en même temps sur ses bénéfices des prévisions et réserves qui s'élevaient à la date du dernier bilan à une somme dépassant les deux tiers de celle-ci, soit frs. 5.937.980 équivalant à 45 pour cent environ du capital de la Société.

Le montant total des achats et ventes de terrains faits par la Société, depuis sa fondation est de :

Achats...Hectares 26.430 pour frs. 52.826.520
Ventes... „ 9.344 „ „ 33.800.795

Ces ventes ont donné un bénéfice total de frs. 15.193.800.

Ces bénéfices ont été obtenus sans que les prix de vente puissent être taxées d'exagération aucune. En effet, les terrains de la Société ont été vendus pour la plupart à des cultivateurs indigènes avec facilités de paiement et ceux-ci, à leur tour réalisent sur leurs acquisitions un bénéfice très sensible et dépassant souvent celui obtenu par la Société. Ce résultat s'explique par le fait qu'en achetant des domaines de rapport généralement négligés ou des terrains en friche, la Société y exécute tous les travaux de nivellement, irrigation et drainage, construction de fermes agricoles, etc., tandisque les acheteurs en prenant des terrains déjà dotés des améliorations nécessaires n'ont qu'à s'adonner aux travaux ordinaires de culture, pour obtenir ces brillants résultats.

Les propriétés de la Société, composées de cinq domaines principaux et de quelques fermes de grande ou de moyenne importance, sont réparties entre la Basse, la Haute Egypte et le Fayoum.

On voit par ce qui a été exposé plus haut, que la Société non seulement figure parmi les plus grands propriétaires fonciers d'Egypte, mais qu'en même temps elle est un facteur de progrès social et technique pour l'agriculture égyptienne.

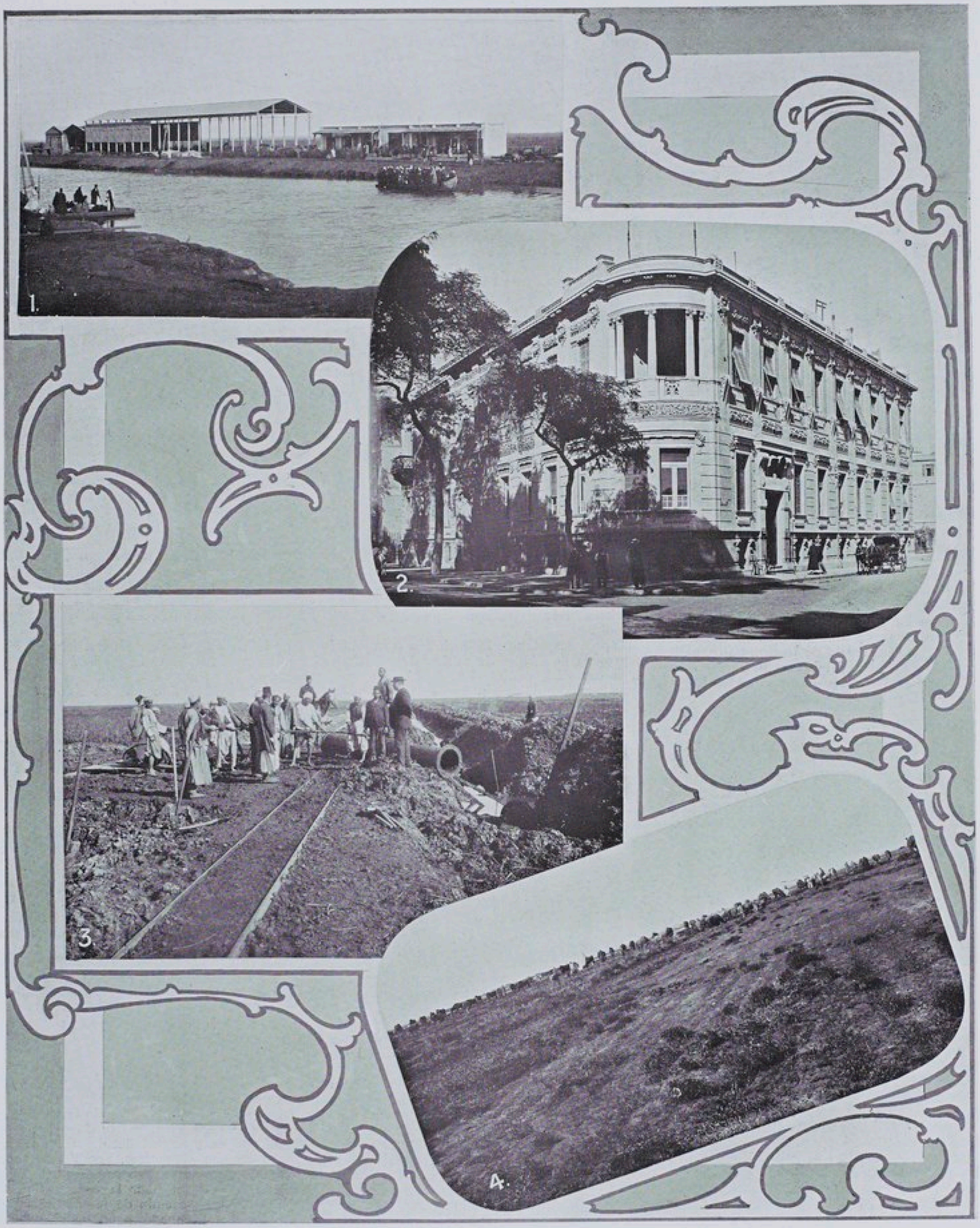
Le fellah d'Egypte en général laboure bien son champ, le fume et l'entretient suivant les règles de l'art; mais tout d'abord il faut doter le terrain qu'on lui confie, de voies d'accès, de constructions pour son habitation, de canalisations pour irrigation et drainage, de machines en vue d'en faire le nivellement, etc.; ces améliorations, pour être menées à bon fin, doivent être dirigées par des techniciens compétents disposant de capitaux considérables; c'est là précisément le rôle de la Société Agricole et Industrielle d'Egypte, qui, en mettant à la portée du cultivateur, des terres autrefois en friche, se trouve être un facteur économique important pour le progrès agricole du pays.

Le Conseil d'Administration sont MM Alfred Havenith, à Anvers, Président; Maurice Bretschneider, au Caire, Administrateur-Délégué; Georges A. Eïd, au Caire, Administrateur-Directeur Général; Frédéric Jacobs, à Anvers; Charles Le Grelle, à Bruxelles; Ernest de Hulst, au Caire; Alphonse Van de Put, à Anvers; Alois Verbeke, à Gand. Les Commissaires sont MM. Ullens Osy, à Anvers; Léon Fuchs, à Anvers; Raphaël Finzi, au Caire.

LUIGI GAVASI.

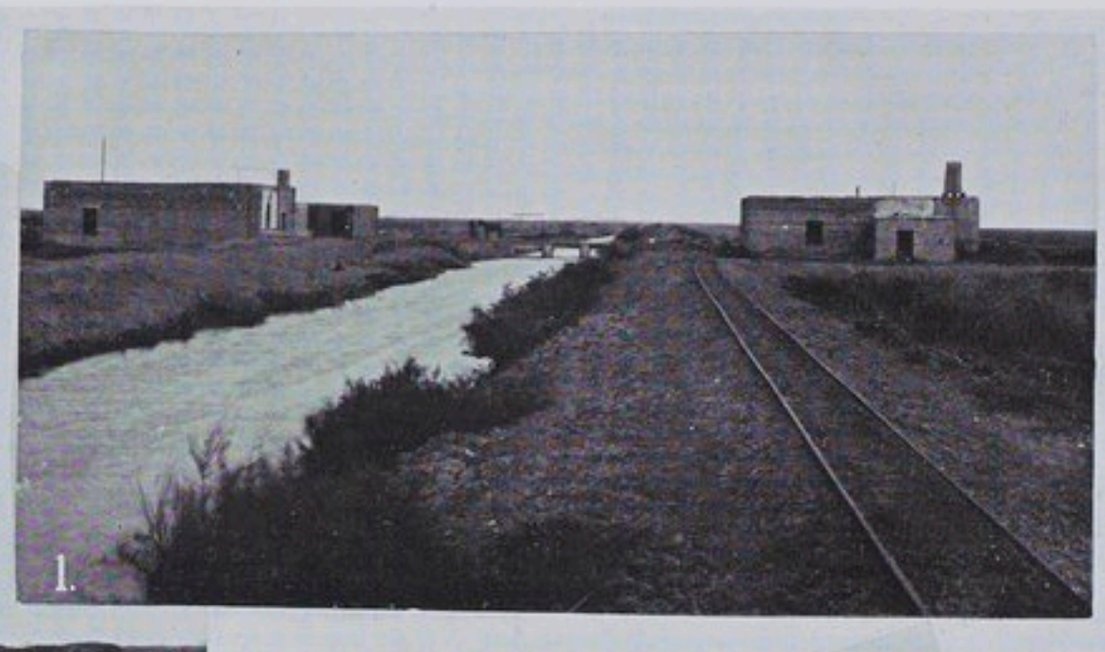
LUIGI GAVASI vint en Egypte comme ingénieur en 1881 à la Compagnie Générale des Travaux Publics, et quand la Compagnie eut liquidé, il y a 4 ans, il décida de rester au Caire comme ingénieur, architecte constructeur pour son propre compte. Son premier contrat fut pour la construction de 25 kilomètres de chemin de fer de Chiben el-Kom, et il fut engagé pour de semblables travaux dans la Haute Egypte.

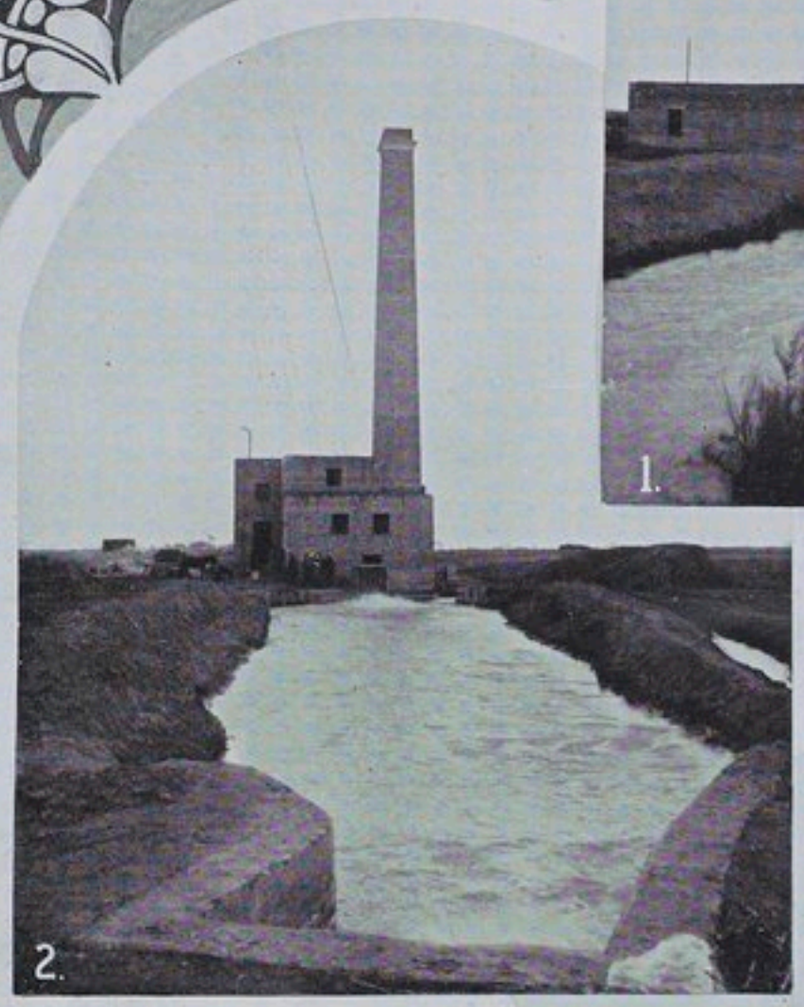
Depuis ce temps, il prit lui-même comme ingénieur architecte, l'interprète de plusieurs travaux, parmi lesquels nous pouvons mentionner: The Udland Building, les immeubles



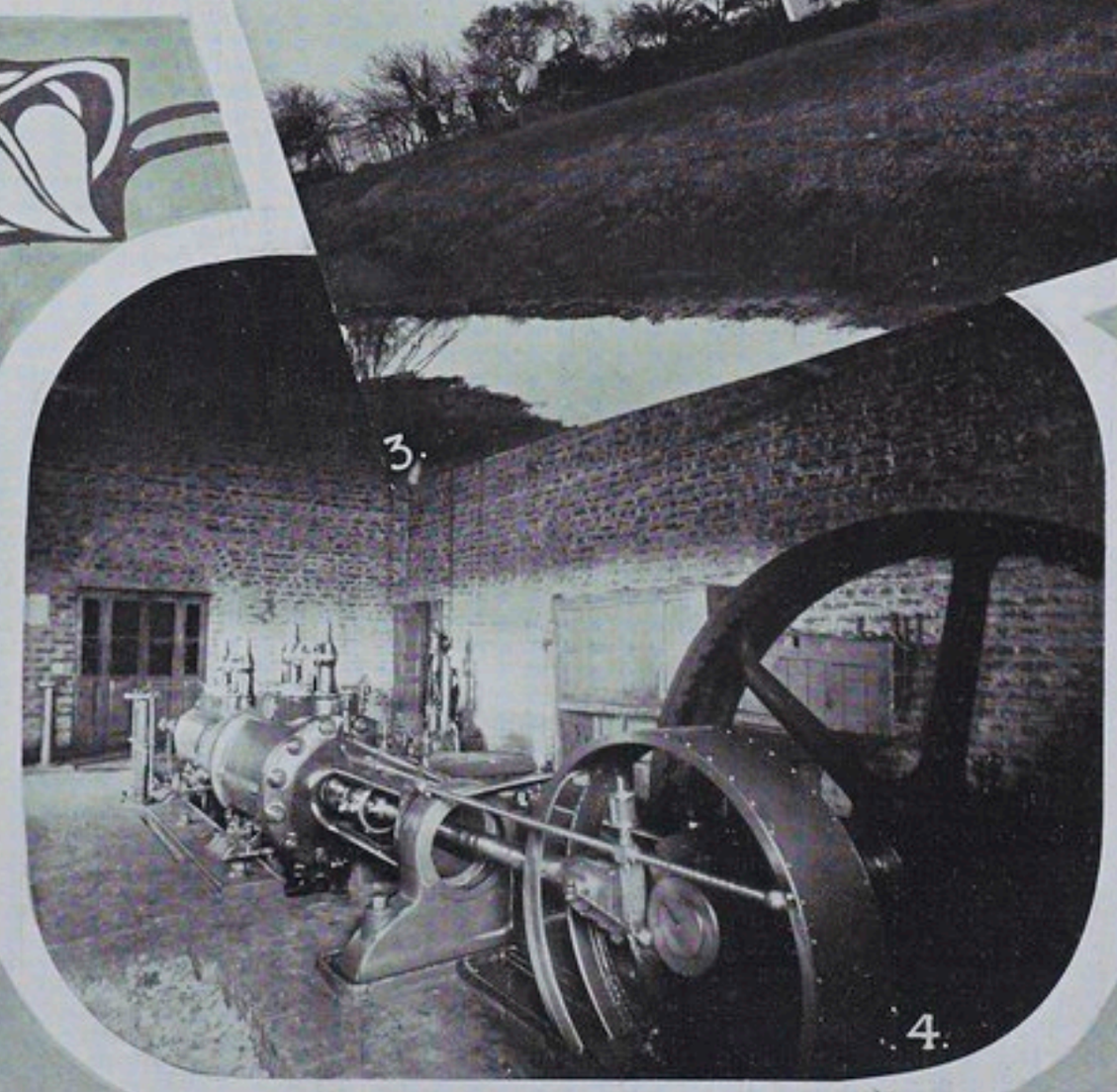
SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME AGRICOLE AND INDUSTRIELLE D'EGYPTE.

1. The Workshop on the Estate at East Beheireh on the Mahmoudieh Canal. 2. The Cairo Office. 3. Laying Pipes for Irrigation. 4. Cattle on the Estate.









THE EGYPTIAN ENTERPRISE AND GHARBIEH LAND COMPANIES.

1. Pumping station on the Estate. 2. Another Pumping Station. 3. The Manager's House on the Estate. 4. One of the Engines.

Cormel, the Green Buildings, l'immeuble Gabalarry Bey; les maisons de Mesiaca Pacha, de Mesiaca Bey, la ville Mosseri, la ville Moïse Suarès, et beaucoup d'autres importantes constructions. Monsieur Gavasi est fils du défunt Carlo Gavasi, un commerçant connu de Voghere (Italie), et est né en 1848. Il fit ses études à l'Université de Pavie, où il reçut son diplôme d'ingénieur à la Chambre des Députés de Rome en 1877. Il entra dans la construction des chimins de fer du Gouvernement italien, comme ingénieur sur la ligne de Catanzaro-Reggio, et trois ans après il y vécut pour douze mois avant de venir en Egypte.

Il épousa Mademoiselle Vernoni, la fille du défunt Alexandre Vernoni, un ancien fonctionnaire du Gouvernement. Il a quatre enfants.

De ses deux garçons l'aîné, Charles, s'est engagé dans la carrière de l'agriculture, et le plus jeune, Guido, est architecte, et aide son père dans la direction de ses affaires.

P. BOYER & L. PARIZOT.

THE first big contract undertaken by Boyer & Parizot, engineers and architects, Cairo, was for the construction of the Economical Railways in Lower Egypt, now called the Delta Light Railways. This occupied five years, and they have since erected the various tramway stations in Cairo. Among other general works for which they have been responsible may be mentioned the buildings and installations for the sugar refineries at Abu Kurkas and at Beba, iron sheds for the Kom Mombo Company, two wharves on the Red Sea for the Gabel el-Tor, several iron structures for the Suez Canal Company, besides numerous bored cisterns, sluice regulators, and other irrigation works, bridges, dahabiehs, barges, &c. They are also general contractors to the Public Works Department for Cairo, Helouan and Gizeh, and have built or renovated several Government schools, and three bridges over the Ibrahimieh Canal, while various other works at Minieh in Upper Egypt are still in hand. Messrs. Boyer & Parizot hold concessions for the employment of the Matrai system of reinforced concrete, and for the Pauchot system of armoured stone. The firm are represented on the International Chamber of Commerce.

SIEMENS-SCHUCKERT-WERKE.

Two of the leading firms of electrical engineers on the Continent, Siemens-Schuckert-Werke and Siemens & Halske, are represented in Egypt and the Soudan by Mr. Gustav Grob, who has his offices in the Rue Kasr-el-Nil, Cairo. The firms Siemens & Halske and Schuckert-Werke amalgamated in 1904, and since that date Siemens-Schuckert-Werke have undertaken the supply of apparatus, such as dynamos, cables, &c., for strong currents, while Siemens & Halske have devoted themselves to the manufacture of smaller kinds of apparatus, such as telephones, laboratory instruments, &c. The two firms have a joint capital of about Mks. 200,000,000, and own large factories at Berlin, Nürnberg, and Vienna. They were originally represented in Egypt by Messrs. Bretschneider & Co., but in 1900 they opened a branch in Cairo and entrusted the management to Mr. Grob, who had been sent out by them in the previous year as consulting engineer. During the past ten years they have completed a great number of large installations of electric light and power plants in Egypt, among which may be mentioned those for the Société Général de Pressage, the Customs House, and the British Consulate, at Alexandria; the Savoy Hotel at Assouan; Prince Djemil Toussoun's estate at Benha; Shepheard's, the Gezireh Palace, and the Semiramis hotels, the Post Office, the Egyptian State Railways buildings, and the cigarette factories of M. Melachrino & Co., Vafiadis, and Melkonian, in Cairo; the electric lighting works for the Ezbekieh Quarter of the Société Belge-Egyptienne in Cairo, and those for public lighting at Ismailia, Port Tewfik, Suez, and Khartoum; the British Barracks and Government Workshops at Khartoum; and the Winter Palace Hotel at Luxor.

Mr. Grob is also managing director of the Electricity and Ice Supply Company, Ltd., who have large installations at Suez and Ismailia. Born at Wintertour, Switzerland, in 1873, he took his diploma at the Polytechnic School at Zurich in 1898, and before joining Siemens & Halske obtained a practical knowledge of engineering with Sulzer Bros., of Wintertour, and Brown, Boveri & Co., of Baden. He is a member of the German and of the Swiss Societies of Electricians.

EGYPTIAN ENTERPRISE AND DEVELOPMENT COMPANY.

THE Egyptian Enterprise and Development Company was founded in 1904 with the object of undertaking all kinds of enterprises in land or real property, urban or rural. The capital, originally £E160,000, is now £E400,000, fully paid up, in addition to which 16,000 founders' shares of no determined value have been created.

The properties of the Company consist of about 4,000 feddans of good agricultural land and a certain area of building land well situated and purchased at cheap prices before the boom that preceded the present crisis. The Company also has an interest in various other similar companies.

It has lately extended its sphere of action to Turkey, where a wide field of enterprise will be opened as soon as the political horizon has cleared.

Since the formation of the Company large profits have been made in the sale of property and in other business. The gross profits amounted approximately in 1905 to £E42,000, in 1906 to £E77,000, and in 1907 to £E41,000. The Company has several well-known local financiers upon its board of directors, which is composed as follows:—Mansour Naghib Pasha Shakour, general manager; Mr. Georges A. Eid, Mr. Ernest Rolin, Habib Ney Ghanem, Mr. Albert Nourrisson, Col. H. Aylmer, and Mr. Ed. Thys.

The offices are situated at No. 9, Chareh Kantaret El-Dekka, Cairo.

GHARBIEH LAND COMPANY.

THE Gharbieh Land Company was founded principally with the object of purchasing and improving land in the neighbourhood of Ras-el-Khalig. The greater part of this land was Government property, which presented certain characteristics that rendered comparatively easy the carrying out of such a project. The Government, however, put off the sale of its land until the Assouan Dam was raised, and the company therefore started work on some 8,700 feddans it had purchased from private owners. Though it was anticipated that the reclamation of this land would occupy a period of eight or nine years, it has been possible to carry it out in a much shorter time, owing to the exceptional qualities of the soil and to the activity with which the operations have been carried out. The most important improvements were finished in less than two and a half years, and their effects are already being felt in a manner which exceeds the expectations of the promoters.

Now that realisations have commenced, the reconstruction of the capital is only a matter of time. The capital consists of £E400,000, in shares of £E4, besides which 100,000 founders' shares of no fixed value have been issued. At the present day the Company have altogether some 8,300 feddans of land in the province of Gharbieh; and up to the end of 1908 they had sold 504 feddans at a profit of £E23,765. The chairman and managing director is Mansour N. Shakour Pasha, and the other members of the board are Colonel H. L. Aylmer, Messrs. Léopold Du Monceau, Ernest Rolin, Phillipe Louis von Hemert, and Ed. Thys, Wacyf Bey Boutros Ghali and Abdel Hamid Sioufi Bey. The offices are at No. 9, Chareh Kantaret El-Dekka, Cairo.

THEODORE NICOLAS CORESSY KORESSIOS.

As contractor, engineer, and architect, Mr. T. N. Coressy Koressios has carried on business in Egypt for the past nine years. He built the Kasr-el-Nil married quarters for the British Army of Occupation, a work which, owing to the proximity of the Nile, and the fact that the big mains of the waterworks traversed the site, presented considerable difficulty. Other buildings erected by him includes the Meteorological Station at Helouan, the Munderia Tribunal building, and the Post Office at Zagazig. It was he who opened the Abou Zabel basalt quarries to provide road metal for the Alexandria Municipal Council. He is a director of the Nile Transport Company, the Loans Bank and Warehouses Company, Ltd., the auto-cabs and Auto Garage Company, Ltd., and many other concerns. A son of the late Nicolas Koressios, a former London merchant, he was educated in France, taking diplomas for engineering and architecture at l'École National des Pouts et Chaussers, and l'École des Beaux Arts, Paris. He spent eighteen months as an engineer on the Paris-Lyons Railway, and then joined Ecersley, Godfrey and Liddelerv, an English firm of contractors who were constructing the line from Piræus to Larissa, in Greece. For two years he was manager of the North Eastern Railway of Greece, and in 1895 he accepted a similar position on the Mondania-Broussa Railway in Turkey. Eventually he was appointed chief engineer and manager of the harbour works at Clio, an island opposite Smyrna, and prepared plans, which were accepted without alteration by the Turkish Government, for a harbour scheme involving the expenditure of 5,000,000 francs. He superintended the carrying out of the work, and the harbour at Clio is now one of the finest in Turkey. For his services in this connection he was decorated by the Turkish Government with the Order of Mejidieh, 2nd class, and the Order of Osmanieh, 3rd class. Mr. Koressios is a member of the Paris Association of Engineers.

LES GRANDS GARAGES D'EGYPTE.

EGYPT is no exception to the rule that when motor-cars are introduced to a country they soon cease to be merely luxuries and become necessities in the business and commercial life of the more prosperous inhabitants. As a natural consequence, openings are created for the investment of capital in such enterprises as Les Grands Garages d'Egypte, which engages in all branches of the motor trade, from the importation and garaging of cars and launches to the execution of repairs and the supply of spare parts. The Company was formed in 1905, with a capital of £E80,000, for the purpose of taking over and extending the business of La Société Anonyme Egyptienne d'electricité.

The directors are J. W. Williamson, Allan Joseph, Henry Phillpots, and E. A. Perkins (managing director), while the manager is Mr. E. W. Flower. The Cairo garage, offices, and shops, situated in the Quartier Maarouf, belong to the Company. At the showrooms in the Rue Kasr-el-Nil, near the Savoy Hotel, may be seen cars of many descriptions, the Company having the sole agency for such well-known makes as the Renault, Mors, Brasier, Brooke, Rover, and Clement Cars, and for the Krieger electric carriages. Private motor carriages may be hired at reasonable rates, and private cars may be garaged in specially constructed fire-proof buildings. For electric cars there is a separate garage. The repair shops are equipped with the most modern requirements, and special departments have been provided for vulcanising tyres and painting cars. The machinery is electrically driven from motor plant of 75 h.-p. The staff employed numbers on an average seventy men, most of whom are Europeans. The Company was responsible for the introduction of taxi-cars, and has now no fewer than thirty of these vehicles at the disposal of the public.

There is a branch establishment in Alexandria, the offices being in the Rue Antoine and the showrooms in the Rue Rosette. Both in Cairo and Alexandria the garages are open day and night.

ALBERT TOMICH.

AFTER three years' practical experience with a local firm of building contractors, Mr. Albert Tomich started business on his own account in Cairo in 1899, and he has received many certificates testifying to the good work done by him. A son of the late Adolphe Tomich, he is of French origin, and was born in Cairo in 1876. Educated primarily in Egypt, he continued his engineering studies in Italy, and then went to France to study architecture. He was unable to complete the last-named course, however, circumstances obliging his return to Egypt in 1896. He is married to Louisa, a daughter of Samuel Kasmir Bey, late of the Treasury.

A. ST. JOHN DIAMANT.

DURING his six years' residence in Egypt, Mr. A. St. John Diamant, who is entitled to a prominent position among local architects, has designed numerous important buildings, including branches of the National and Agricultural Banks; the Savoy Chambers, which comprise offices and bachelors' flats and are unique in their way in Cairo; houses for the Delta Land Investment Company, Limited; private residences for Judge Vere Alston, Judge Bond, Cassim Bey Emin, Major Charles Spong, Mr. Montague Summers, Mr. R. E. Monteith-Smith, and others; and a large warehouse for the Vacuum Oil Company, Limited. Before establishing his own practice, he was for a time employed on the Daira Sanieh, under Sir William Willcocks, and designed various engineering works in Upper Egypt. He was next appointed Assistant Architect for the Standard Life Assurance Company's offices at Cairo, the building of which, occupied two years; and in February, 1907, was appointed official architect to the Agricultural Bank of Egypt. At the present time he is engaged in the erection of an important building for the Gresham Life Assurance Society, Limited. He was born in Smyrna in 1874. After being educated at Bedford Grammar School, and on the Continent, he was articled in 1894 to Mr. George Highton, F.R.I.B.A., Vice-President of the Society of Architects. Later on he joined King & Son, architects to the London and County Bank, with whom he remained from 1898 till 1902. Whilst in London he attended the Royal Academy Schools of Architecture. In 1901 he married Margaret, a daughter of the late Phineas A. R. Oldfield, of London and Bombay. Mr. Diamant is the owner of a charming Jacobean residence, "Nordeslinge," Eastling, near Faversham, Kent, where he spends his summer vacation. He is a member of the Cairo Turf and Khedivial Sporting Clubs.

G. GAROZZO & SONS.

A LONG list might be made of all the buildings which G. Garozzo & Sons, either alone or in partnership with other firms, have erected in Cairo and further afield during the past thirty-five years. It would include the Khedivial Palaces at Abdin and Gizeh; residences for various members of the Khedivial family and leading people among the Egyptian nobility; many of the principal hotels—the Savoy, Shepheard's, the Grand Continental, in Cairo, the Winter Palace at Luxor, and the Grand at Helouan; the Museum for Egyptian Antiquities at Cairo; the San Stefano Casino at Ramleh; the Italian College; Abbas School, Tewfikieh School, the Arabic Hospital at Alexandria; Tantah Hospital; the Cairo Fire Brigade Station; barrages at Kochecha, Pont de Tewfikieh, Pont de Mazura, and elsewhere—the first named being 600 metres in length; numerous regulators and other irrigation works, &c. The founder of this business, which is certainly one of the largest of its kind in the country, was the late Mr. Guiseppe Garozzo, a native of Catania, Sicily. Born in 1847, he was early in life apprenticed to a mason, and at the age of fifteen he came to Alexandria in the employment of a company known as the Operaia Italiano, contractors. His skill quickly won him promotion, and he was appointed foreman of their works, which included a palace for Khedive Ismael Pasha at Sidi Gaber, near A'exandria. He was with the Company for twelve years, and then, in 1874, he began business on his own account. One of his first contracts was for the erection of a palace at Gizeh for Khedive Ismael Pasha, and from that time onwards his success was assured. From 1884 to 1890 he was in partnership with Mr. Nicola Marciano, and during that time established a record by building Shepheard's Hotel in the short space of four and a half months. He then worked for a time in conjunction with Messrs. Zuro & E. Patonna, and in 1896 he joined Mr. Francesco Zaffrani. It was during this latter partnership that the Egyptian Museum contract was undertaken. The work presented peculiar difficulties and took over three years to complete. It is interesting to note that when the Italian Hospital Umberto Primo was undertaken at Abbassieh in 1901, Mr. Garozzo generously gave a donation of Frs. 12,000 to supply a deficiency in the funds—an act of benevolence which was recognised by his sovereign, who bestowed upon him the title of Cavaliere della Corona d'Italia. Mr. Garozzo also received the Order of Mejidieh at the hands of the present Khedive. He died in 1903, and of his twelve surviving children—eight sons and four daughters—the two eldest, Fillippo and Francesco Garozzo, who entered into the partnership in 1901, now hold the firm's power of attorney. Both were born at Alexandria, and were educated at Naples with a view to joining their father. Two other sons, Umberto and Victorio, have also been admitted to the partnership.

ENRICO NISTRI.

PROFESSOR ENRICO NISTRI, contractor, painter, and decorator, has found ample scope for his talents in Egypt. Among his principal works have been the decoration of the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, the Palace Suares, the Villa Beyerly, the Scuola Duretto, and the Government Polytechnical School; while he is still engaged on extensive schemes of decorative work for the Heliopolis Oasis Company, and for the Egyptian Government. He was born at Pisa in 1871, and, having received a general education, he entered upon a three years' course of study at the Academy des Beaux Arts in his native town. He spent two years at Lucca, and a further year at Florence, and in 1890 he gained a diploma for designs and painting. He became a professor in the Government Schools at Spezia, where he remained for ten years, during which time he qualified as a professor of caligraphy. In 1891 he came to Cairo to join one of the leading local photographers as artist and colourist (or aquerolist). Six months later he acquired an interest in a firm of painting and decorating contractors, but in 1906 he decided to start business on his own account.

COMMERCIAL LOANS BANK AND WAREHOUSES (EGYPT), LTD.

J. GALLET was chiefly responsible for the establishment of the Commercial Loans Bank and Warehouses (Egypt), Ltd., and is now the largest shareholder as well as being the managing director of that institution. He has had the advantage of a legal and business experience. Born in Poitiers, France, in 1870, he studied law in the Faculté de Droit à Paris, and afterwards at l'Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales de Paris. For a time he travelled through Europe, and then proceeded to Algiers, where he practised law for eight years, becoming a diplomé de droit Musulman. Six years later he returned to Paris to take over the management of the Magasins Généraux Français Agrées par l'Etat. In 1907 he came to Cairo, and laid before a number of capitalists the idea of establishing the business of which he is now manager. Mr. Gallet, who is a son of the late Mr. Charles Gallet, is married to Louise, daughter of the late Mr. Rajaud.

MR. JOSEPH SEGRÉ, sub-manager of the Commercial Loans Bank and Warehouses (Egypt), Ltd., was intended for the police service, and had attained the rank of Sous-Commandant of the Alexandria Quay Police, when he was compelled by ill-health to resign, much to the regret of his men. Entering upon a civil career, he was for three years manager of Caffari's Forwarding Branch in Cairo, and in that capacity received testimonials from Baron Nathaniel de Rothschild and the Crown Prince of Germany. The Nile Transport Company, Ltd., having been started, Mr. Segré was given the position of general manager, and during the three years that he remained with the company his services gave such satisfaction that H.E. Shakour Pasha, the chairman, presented him with testimonials expressing the thanks of the directorate. Mr. Segré is a son of the late Mr. Moise Segré, a cotton merchant, of Tantah. He was born at Tantah, in 1877, and received his education at the Lycée Tewfikieh, Shoubra, Cairo, where he obtained his primary certificate. In 1903 he married Rebecca, a daughter of the late Mr. Joseph Rousso, and by her has a son and a daughter.

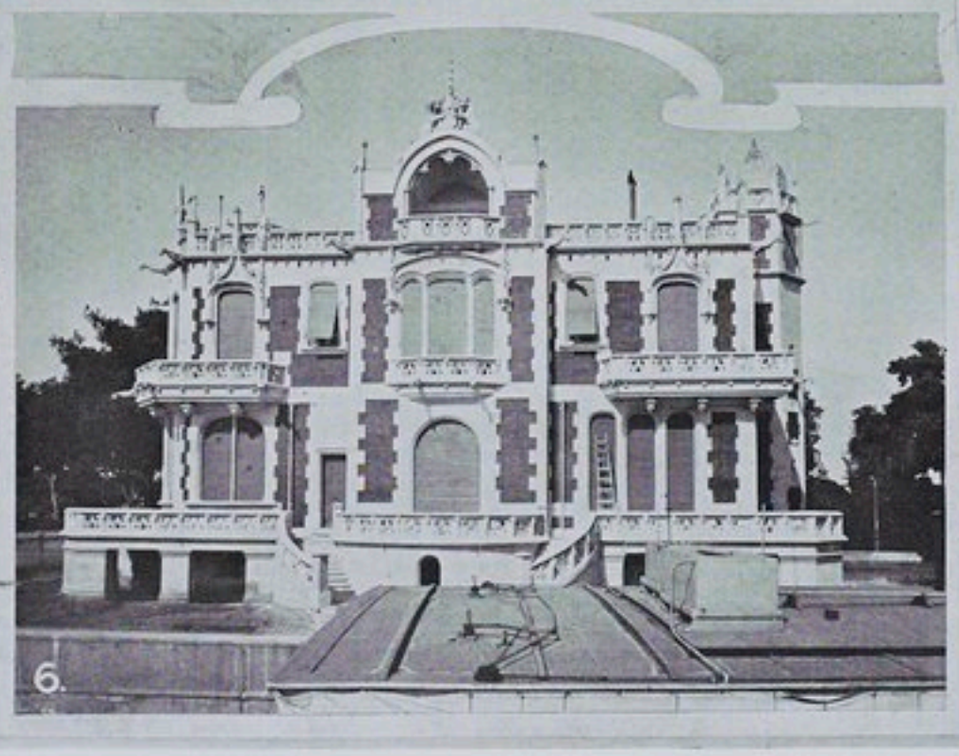








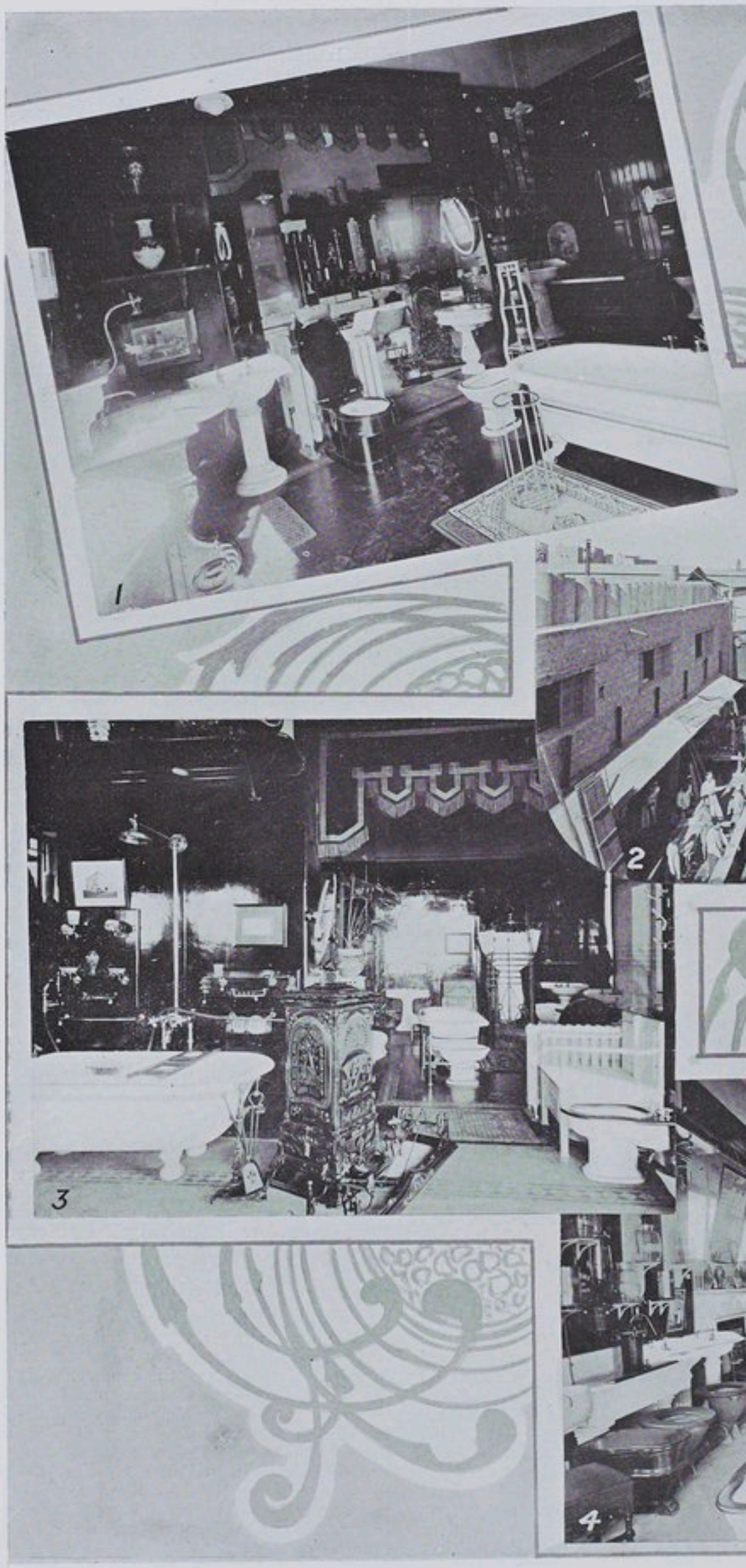


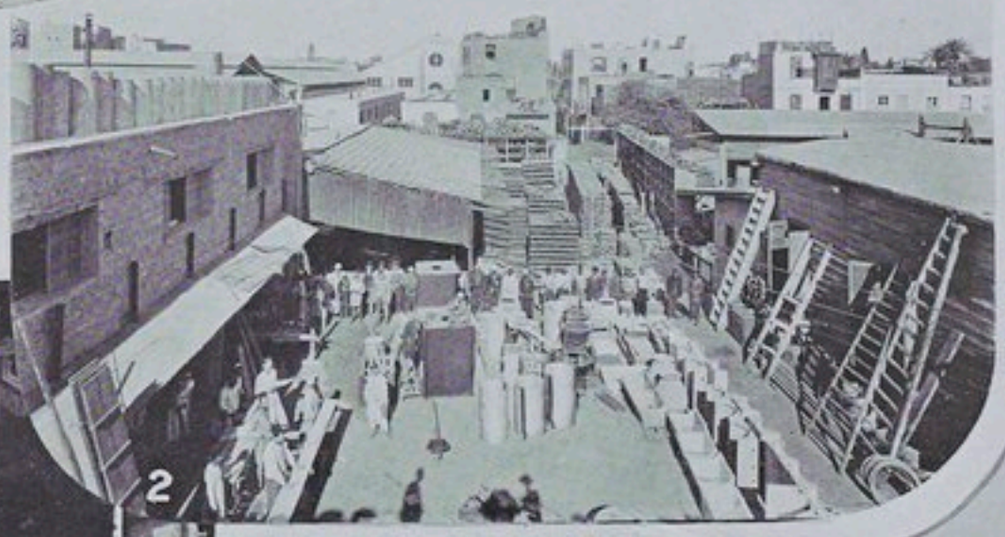


G. GAROZZO & SONS.

1. Restaurant at Heliopolis.
2. The Late Cav. Giusseppe Garozzo.
3. Cairo Fire Brigade Station.
4. Francesco Garozzo.
5. Filippo Garozzo.
6. Villa Hug, Gezireh.

1, 3, & 6, built by G. Garozzo & Sons.







MAX STEINAUER & CO.

1, 3, and 4. The Showrooms. 2. The Stores.

MAX STEINAUER & CO.

ALTHOUGH established only since the commencement of 1903, Max Steinauer & Co. have attracted the attention of the public by their enterprise and energy, and have achieved in a short time a remarkable reputation in sanitary engineering.

They have had the honour of being appointed sanitary engineers to His Highness the Khedive, and in addition they have been entrusted with numerous Government contracts.

The absence of any drainage system in Cairo hitherto has received the personal attention of Mr. Max E. Steinauer, the head of the firm, with the result that he has produced and patented a septic tank, which obviates the periodical emptying of cesspools. The success of this system has exceeded all expectations, and it is now employed in most of the principal buildings in Cairo. There are in existence to-day over two hundred of these installations in the capital and provinces.

The showroom of the firm is remarkable as much for the taste shown in the display of the goods as for the variety of the articles exhibited, with all the latest improvements in sanitary engineering. Moreover, the workshops of Steinauer & Co. at Boulac (Sahel Sanitary Works, Regd.) are furnished with the fullest equipment for turning out any appliance or fitting likely to be required. The plumbing department is under the supervision of qualified registered British plumbers.

Steinauer & Co. stock the products of all the leading firms of British sanitary manufacturers.

Amongst the numerous contracts for the installation of sanitary appliances carried out by the firm may be mentioned those for the following:—Khedivial Palace, Abdin; Government and military schools, hospitals, prisons, and barracks; the principal banks, both in the capital and in the provinces; drainage works at Port Tewfik; works at Gel el-Tor Quarantine Station; the drainage of the quarantine parks (cattle, &c.) at Mex, Alexandria, and at Port Said; Palace Hotel at Heliopolis, near Cairo (upwards of four hundred rooms); and His Highness the Khedive's Summer Palace at Tchiboukli, on the Bosphorus.

LEON LUYCKX.

ESTABLISHED in Cairo as a consulting engineer since 1904, prior to that date Mr. Leon Luyckx had spent eight years in Egypt. He came out, in the first instance, as consulting engineer to the Grand Hotel Company, now the Egyptian Hotels Company, Ltd., and installed the necessary plant for water filtration, steam heating, sewage transport, &c. He was then concerned in the extension of the business of the Wagon-Lits Company to Egypt, for which service the Khedive created him an Officer of the Order of Mejidieh, and, finally, before opening an office on his own account, he was for two years engaged on railway construction and other engineering work under the Public Works Department. In 1907 he was appointed an expert adviser to the Mixed Tribunals in Cairo. Born in Brussels in 1866, Mr. Luyckx was educated at the Louvain University, where he obtained his professional diploma in 1892. Subsequently he was admitted a member of the Louvain Society of Engineers. He has travelled extensively, and some years ago spent several months in Central America perfecting a process for obtaining citric acid from lemons in order to obviate the necessity for sending the fruit to Europe. Other works engineered by him include the construction of the Canal du Centre, in Belgium, and of the Port of Burgas on the Black Sea; and the opening of a stone quarry, equipped with diamond saws, in Belgium. Mr. Luyckx was on the provisional committee for the formation of the Cairo Society of Engineers and Architects.

VICTOR M. MOSSERI.

A SON of the late Moses Mosseri, a former well-known landed proprietor, Victor M. Mosseri is an authority on local agricultural questions. Born in Cairo in 1873, he was educated in Egypt and in France. He studied agriculture and science in Montpellier and Paris. On his return to Egypt in 1893, he assisted in the management of his father's estates for a time, and then undertook the technical direction of a sugar manufactory in Upper Egypt for three years. From 1897 onwards he has devoted himself to the cultivation of his own estates and those of his partners. These properties embrace altogether an area of some 6,000 acres. He has carried out extensive schemes of reclamation and devoted much time to laboratory and field experiments. In recognition of the value of his researches he has been decorated with the "Palmes Academiques." He is a member of the "Institut Egyptien," the Chemist's Association of Paris, and the Royal Agricultural Society of England. Mr. Mosseri is also an expert adviser to the Mixed Tribunal, Cairo.

GARO BALIAN.

GARO BALIAN, son of a former well-known architect in Turkey, came to Egypt in 1903, and joined the late Fabricius Pasha, architect of the Khedivial Palace. Since the latter's death in 1907, he has been in business on his own account, and has been responsible for the design of several large buildings in Cairo, including those of the Société Belge-Egyptienne de l'Ezbekieh; the handsome blocks occupied by Chemla Frères; Messrs. les Fils de M. Cicurel et Cie; and E. J. Fleurent et Cie; and the Universite Egyptienne. He also carried out the alterations in the old Palais de Mounirah, which is now the Institut Français du Caire. Of Armenian origin, he was born in Constantinople in 1878, and studied architecture and sculpture at l'Ecole des Beaux Arts in that city. In 1896 he established himself in Bulgaria, where he designed several buildings, notably the Military Club at Sophia. In a public competition he gained the first prize for designs for a monument at Roustchouk, to commemorate the war between Servia and Bulgaria. His father, Mr. Baly Balian, was the architect of the palace of H.M. the Sultan, and of the offices of the Ministry of War at Constantinople.

L. FOURNERON BEY.

ON se souviendra de L. Fourneron Bey qui a dessiné les modèles de plâtre comme plan de l'Égypte exposée par la Daïra Sanieh à l'exposition de St. Louis en 1904, et obtenut le grand prix. M. Fourneron reçut le titre de Bey en 1902 et a été créé commandeur de l'Osmanieh en 1905 à l'occasion de sa mise à la retraite. Son premier séjour en Egypte fut en 1890, il était chef au bureau technique dans les domaines de l'Etat, et huit ans plus tard il fut transféré à la Daïra Sanieh comme chef du Bureau technique et après comme ingénieur en chef. En 1905 il commença des affaires à son compte comme entrepreneur de travaux publics; il a une part marqueé dans l'Installation des Eaux à Damiette et à Zagazig. Il fut nommé en 1906 par le Tribunal Mixte du Caire comme Expert Technique dans la déconfiture de la Cie des Sucreries et Raffineries d'Egypte. Né à Saint Vallier, Drôme, France, en 1863, M. Fourneron étudia à l'école des Arts et Métiérs à Aix de 1870 à 1882; ayant reçu son diplôme il entra aux travaux d'aciérie à St. Chamond comme dessinateur. En 1885 il fut élevé au poste de chef du Bureau des Études à Montluçon pour la Cie de Châtillon Courmentry, et de 1887 à 1889 il remplit les fonctions de procureur pour la Société "la Biesme" pour l'érection d'un pavillon de côté. A l'Exposition de Bruxelles et pour le Marché au détail á Anadolhoi, près Kus'endje, Roumanie.

CAVALIER UFF. FRANCESCO ZAFFRANI.

RANKING among the oldest foreign residents in Egypt, Cavalier Uff. Francesco Zaffrani has attained a leading social position in the Italian community. He came to Egypt in December, 1869, and during the past forty years has constructed numerous canals, barrages, and other irrigation works, as well as many of the largest buildings in Cairo. He has done much work for the Egyptian Government, who have given the name "Zaffrani" to a canal constructed by him. While the building of the Assouan Dam was in progress, the Director of Public Works commissioned him to engage sculptors in Italy for the granite works at the barrage; and, in acknowledgement of his services on this occasion, the Egyptian Government decorated him with the Order of Mejidieh, whilst the Italian Government created him a Cavalier della Corona d'Italia. Mr. Zaffrani is a son of the late Cristofero Zaffrani, and was born in 1847 at Casalzuigno, in the Province of Como, Italy.

LE CAVALIER UFF. FRANCESCO ZAFFRANI prend place parmi les plus anciens résidents européens d'Egypte, et est parvenu à occuper une des premières places de la communauté italienne. Il vint en Egypte en Décembre 1869, et durant ces quarante dernières années il creusa de nombreux canaux, éleva des barrages, se chargea d'un grande nombre de travaux d'irrigation, et construisit plusieurs des plus grands immeubles du Caire. Il a été l'entrepeneur attitré du Gouvernement égyptien, qui a donné le nom de "Zaffrani" à un canal qu'il a creusé. Lors de la construction du barrage d'Assouan, il fut chargé d'engager des sculpteurs en Italie pour la taille des granite destinés aux travaux, et en reconnaissance des services qu'il rendit en cette occasion, le Gouvernement égyptien le décora de l'ordre du Medjidieh, pendant que l'Italie le créait Cavaliere della Corona d'Italia. Monsieur Zaffrani est le fils de feu Cristofero Zaffrani, et est né en 1847 à Casalzuigno, Province de Côme, Italie.

LEON STIENON.

ONE of the leading architects in Egypt, Mr. L. Stienon, during the past ten years, has been responsible for many important buildings in various parts of the country. Among the more prominent of these mention may be made of the new Museum at Alexandria, the Kaiser William Heim (for which he was decorated with the Order of the Crown of Prussia), the Winter Palace Hotel at Luxor, the San Stefano Hotel at Ramleh, a palace and several villas for Luzzetta Pasha, a technical school at Damanhour, the Port Said branch of the Bank of Egypt, cigarette factories for Maspero Frères and Leopold Engelhardt, besides numerous villas and private residences for Prince Ismail Pasha Yeghen, Maitre Palagi, H.H. Omar Toussoun Pasha, Mr. Salvago, Dr. R. Ruffer, Emile

Vercamer, and many others. He also prepared the plans for the renovation and enlargement of the Cairo premises of the Bank of Egypt. His head offices are situated in the Khedivial Buildings, Cairo, and he has a branch office in the Rue Cleopatra, Alexandria. He represents a number of European manufacturing firms, among them the well-known house of A. F. Smulders, of Schiedam, Holland, who have supplied several dredgers for the Suez Canal. Particulars of the personal career of Mr. Stienon, who is Consul for Holland at Alexandria, will be found with those of other Consuls.

M. CATTAUI & ED. MATASEK.

During the past eight or nine years large numbers of buildings have been erected in Cairo and its environs, and many of them have been designed by M. Cattaui & Ed. Matasek, who entered into partnership as architects in 1900. Mention may be made of the Jewish Synagogue, the German School, the Austro-Hungarian Hospital, the villas owned or occupied by Mr. Robert Rolls, Mr. Adolphe Cattaui, Mr. Casdagli, Messrs. A. & L. Zagdoun, Saleh Pasha Sahet, Hassan Khaery Bey, Ahmed Khaery Bey, Ibrahim Pasha Neghieb, and M. J. Cattaui; the mansions of Messrs. Vita and Isaac Mosseri, immeuble "S" for the Société Belge-Egyptienne de l'Esbekieh, an immeuble for Messrs. Cattaui, Fils, et Cie., &c., in all of which may be noticed a clever combination of local architectural traditions with modern requirements. The firm were also the architects of the tombs of Baron Menasche at Alexandria and Aslam Cattaui Bey at Cairo. They are now engaged, in conjunction with Mr. Jaspar, another well-known local architect, in preparing plans for the Cairo Exchange.

Mr. Maurice J. Cattaui is a son of the late Youssef Cattaui Bey, a former banker, and was born in Cairo in 1874. He was educated in Cairo and at the Ecole des Beaux Arts in Paris, where he qualified in 1898. On his return to Egypt he entered the Public Works Department as an architect, and remained there until he joined Mr. Matasek.

Mr. Ed. Matasek first came to Egypt in 1892, when he was engaged by Herz Bey to prepare a street plan of Cairo for the Chicago Exhibition. This work occupied six months, and, upon its completion, he joined Messrs. Pattigelli, frères, architects, with whom he worked until 1900. In 1902–3 he was engaged with Herz Bey on the plans for the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, one of the largest buildings of its kind in Egypt. Mr. Matasek, who is the son of an architect, was born in Vienna in 1867. He was educated at Baugewerbe Schule and at the Akademie der bildenden Künste. Before he came to Egypt he was for three years with Messrs. Fellner & Helmer, a firm of architects in Vienna, in whose office he gained much valuable experience, especially in the construction of theatres. He is a member of the Bauhütte Society of Architects.

CARLO VIRGILO SILVAGNI.

Carlo Virgilo Silvagni, architect and contractor, is at present specially engaged on the construction of the Mausoleo Khedivial del Rifoi, near the citadel, Cairo, in which Ismael Pasha lies buried. This difficult work, which will cost at least £E120,000, was begun some thirty years ago by an Arabic architect, but he was unable to complete it, and Mr. Silvagni, who has already spent three years upon the task, will require yet another three in which to accomplish it. Among other buildings constructed by him in his capacity of contractor are the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, the Anglo-Egyptian Cigarette Company's premises, the Fedawieh School, Herz Villa, and numerous mosques, including the El Akmar, El Kalaou, El Ghouri, El Atabeki, El Merdain, and El Mahmoudieh. For seven years he has been engaged upon the Sultan Hassan Mosque, which is one of the largest and finest in Cairo. Mr. Silvagni was the architect of the Palace for the Central African Mission, at Kasr-el-Nil; the Seminary for the Copt College of Tahta, in Upper Egypt; the Anglo-Egyptian Cigarette Company's factory; a mansion for Dr. Apostolides; the "Villa Fatica," and many other buildings. He was also entrusted by the Italian Consulate with the supervision and equipment of the Italian Hospital. Of Roman parentage, Mr. Silvagni was born in Cairo in 1868, and was educated at the Collegio dei Nobili, at Rome, passing his examinations in civil engineering at Rome University in 1893. In the following year he joined the Public Works Department at Cairo. Later, he was employed under the Committee for the Preservation of Arabic and Coptic Antiquities in making topographical surveys and plans of the ruins of the famous Roman fortress at Old Cairo, and various monuments. He resigned this appointment in 1897 in order to start business on his own account. He is a member of the Egyptian Association of Engineers, and is a committee member of the recently formed International Association of Engineers and Architects, of which he was one of the promoters. For four years he was hon. secretary of the Italian Benevolent Society, and at one time was on the Committee of the Circulo de Risotto. He is still a member of both these institutions, and also of the Pro Schola and the Chamber of Commerce. He is Expert Adviser to the Italian Consular Court and to the Mixed Tribunals. Married to Mary, a daughter of Giuseppe Merolli, a jeweller of Rome, he has three sons.



ARCHITECTS AND ENGINEERS OF EGYPT.

1. C. V. Silvagni. 2. Garo Balian. 3. Cav. Uff. Francesco Zaffrani.
4. E. Matasek. 5. L. Luyckx. 6. Cav. G. G. Mattioli.
7. Albert Tomich. 8. A. St. John Diamant. 9. L. Fourneron Bey.
10. Victor M. Mosseri. 11. Cav. Ing. G. Siacci.

BOULAD, CAMEL-TOUEG & CO.

This company was founded in March, 1908, to take over the business of N. & T. Camel & Co., public works contractors. Their object is to undertake works of art, public and private buildings, and all kinds of embankments, and a large factory of métallic structural materials has been established under the name of l'Atelier de Ferronnerie d'Art et de Charpente Metallique. In the building and embankment department mechanical traction apparatus, improved lifting and mounting engines, and the latest methods of manufacturing mortars are employed with the result that all work can be rapidly executed. Among other important works carried out by the department may be mentioned a seven-storey building opposite the new British Consulate for Madame Vve. A. Tadros, and a similar building at the entrance of Choubrah Avenue for Mr. Habid D. Boulad. The metal work branch makes a speciality of all kinds of forged and

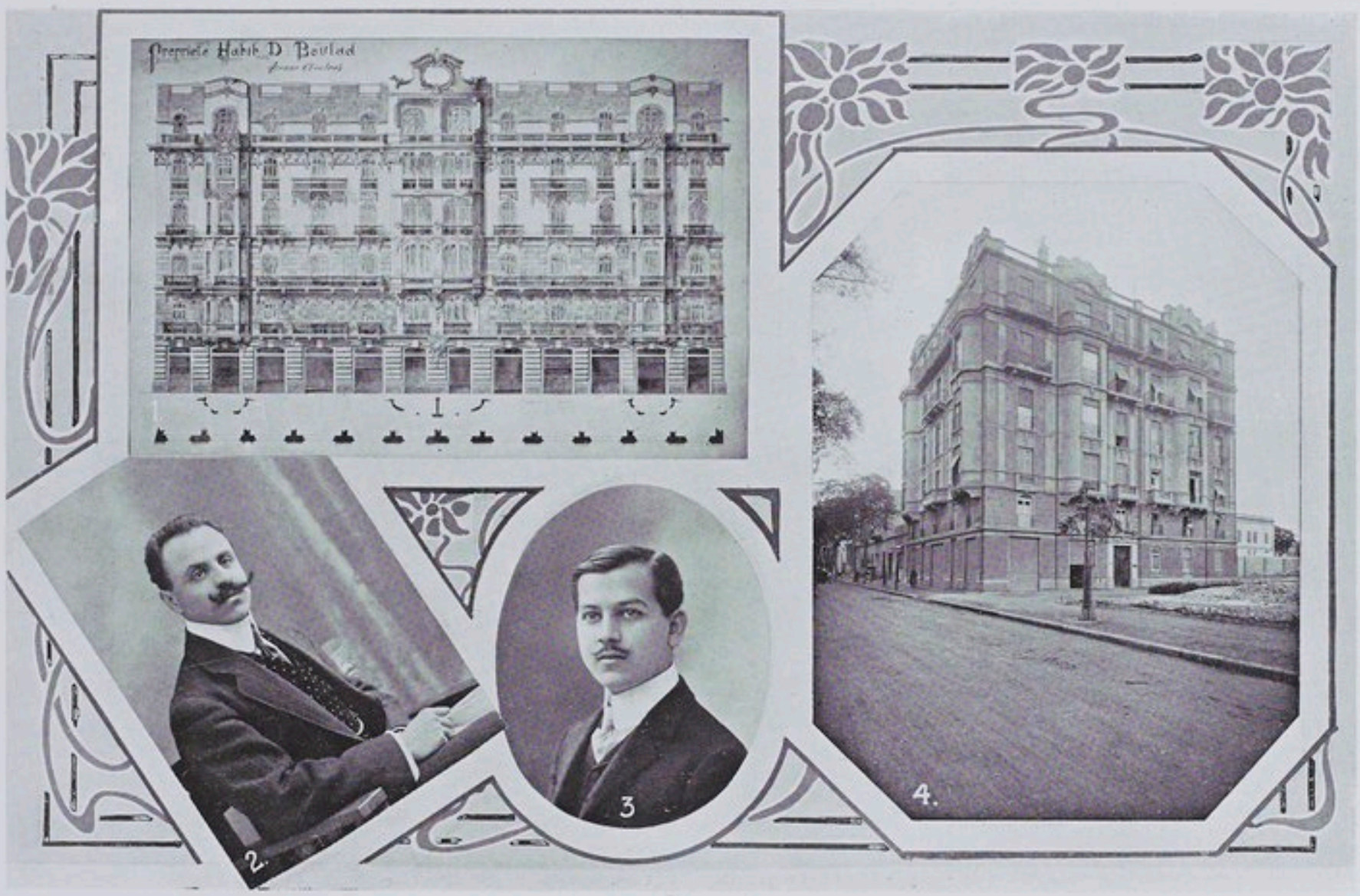
wrought iron work, both simple and artistic, such as staircase balusters, bow windows, winter gardens, and verandahs, and of metal frameworks such as gangways and small bridges. The workshops at Boulac are equipped with the latest and most powerful machinery. The offices of the Company are situated at No. 11, Rue Deir-el-Banat, near the National Hotel. The managing partners are Mr. Albert H. Boulad, proprietor, and Mr. M. Nabil Camel-Toueg, Ingr. Civil (E.P.C.). Mr. Boulad, son of Mr. Habid D. Boulad, a well-known landed proprietor, was born in Alexandria in 1884. After a long training in various local banks and commercial houses he was appointed manager of a large cotton-ginning factory belonging to his father at Mehalle Kebir, and he subsequently became one of the principal partners of the above-

bâtiments publics et privés et de toutes sortes de quais et digues. Une grande fabrique de matériaux métalliques a été fondée sous le nom de l'Atelier de Ferronnerie d'Art et de charpente métallique. Dans le bâtiment du département des quais des appareils de traction mécanique des engins perfectionnés pour élever et monter les matériaux. Les derniers perfectionnements en fait de mortiers sont employés, ce qui donne des résultats rapidement exécutés. Parmi les autres importants travaux cités remarquons un appartement de sept étages en face du consulat britannique pour Madame Veuve Tadros, et un appartement identique à l'entrée de l'Avenue de Choubrah pour Madame Habid D. Boulad. La branche "métal" fait une spécialité de toutes sortes de fer forgés et battus simples et artistiques, comme des balustrades, d'escaliers, de

ses études secondaires à l'Ecole nationale des Ponts et Chaussées de Paris, où il fut nommé ingénieur civil. Pendant quelques années il fut attaché à plusieurs directions de chemins de fer en Europe, comme le P.L.M. et les chemins de fer du Nord de France, et la Grande Ligne de l'Ouest en Angleterre. Puis il obtint un emploi au service technique des chemins de fer égyptiens, mais il se retira en 1905, pour commencer ses affaires propres.

R. KUSTER & CO.

For some thirty years a large share of the local trade in iron and hardware and building materials has accrued to the firm now known as R. Kuster & Co., who have their chief depôt in the Rue Boulac, Cairo, and a branch in the Rue Abu Dardar, Alexandria. Mr.



BOULAD, CAMEL-TOUEG & CO.

1. Plan of a Building in course of construction at Shoubra.
2. Nabil Camel-Toueg.
3. A. H. Boulad.
4. Cadros Mansions, built by Boulad, Camel-Toueg & Co.

mentioned concern. Mr. Camel-Toueg was born at Alexandria in 1874, and on completing his secondary studies he entered l'Ecole Nationale des Ponts et Chaussées de Paris, where he qualified as a civil engineer. He was for some years connected with several leading railways in Europe, such as the P.L.M. and Northern Railways in France, and the Great Western Railway in England. Eventually he obtained employment in the technical service of the Egyptian State Railways, but he resigned in 1905 in order to begin business on his own account.

Cette Compagnie a été fondée en Mars 1909 pour reprendre l'affaire de N. et T. Camel et Cie, entrepreneurs de travaux publics. Leur but est de s'occuper des arts, des

fenêtres, jardins d'hiver et vérandah, et charpentes, galeries et petits ponts. Les magasins à Boulac sont fournis des dernières machines puissantes. Les bureaux de la Compagnie sont situés au No. 11 de la rue Deir-el-Banat, près l'Hôtel national. Les associés sont M. Albert H. Boulad, propriétaire, et MM. Nabib Camel Toueg, Ingénieur Civil (E.Pc.). M. Boulad, fils de M. Habib D. Boulad, un propriétaire de terrains bien connu est né à Alexandrie en 1884. Après un long apprentissage dans plusieurs banques et maisons de commerce il fut nommé directeur d'une maison pour l'égrenage du coton appartenant à son père à Méhalle Kébir, et devint l'un des principaux associés de la maison ci-dessus nommée. M. Camel Toueg est né à Alexandrie en 1874; il compléta

Knoepfel, a partner in the original firm of Kuster & Knoepfel, died in 1878, and Mr. R. Kuster, sen., carried on the business by himself until 1893, when he died, leaving it to his son. Mr. R. Kuster, jun., took W. Ablitt and L. Wohlwend into partnership in 1902, but died in the following year, while in February, 1906, Mr. Ablitt bought Mr. Wohlwend's interest in the business and thus became sole proprietor. In June, 1906, he sold the concern to the Commercial, Industrial, and Land Company of Egypt, Ltd., taking half the shares and being appointed manager, but at the annual general meeting held in January, 1908, the shareholders refused to pass the accounts on the ground that so much money had been expended in buying up or floating the Company. At an

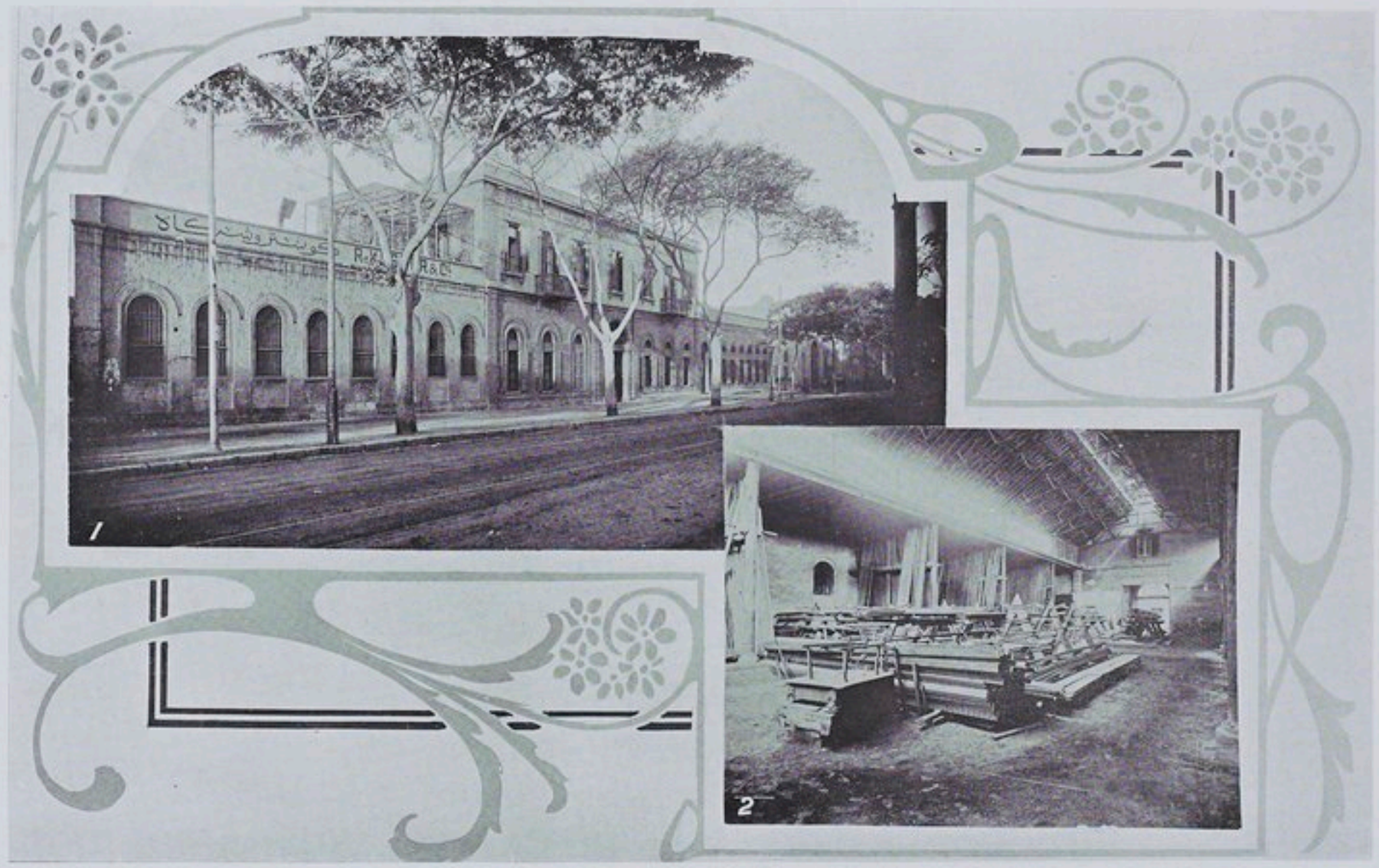
extraordinary meeting subsequently held it was decided to wind up the Company voluntarily. To this resolution effect is now being given. Mr. Alexander George Parker is the official liquidator in London. Mr. W. Ablitt was given charge of the affairs of the Company in Cairo, and his brother, Mr. H. Ablitt, was appointed manager in Alexandria. In the meantime, business was carried on by R. Kuster & Co. under the original title. The business has now reverted to its former status, Messrs. Walter & Harry Ablitt having repurchased the concern from the Commercial, Industrial, and Land Company of Egypt. They will continue the business under the old title of R. Kuster & Co. Mr. W. Ablitt was born in Cairo in 1868 and was educated at the local German school. He first joined Kuster & Co. in 1883, but after three years with them he out several important basin conversion works, including the conversion of the estate known as Sakkara Hod from a flood irrigation area to a sefi, or summer irrigation area. In his leisure moments he devotes himself to writing plays, two of which have been produced at the Arabic Theatre.

COMPAGNIE EGYPTIENNE THOMSON-HOUSTON.

La Compagnie égyptienne Thomson-Houston, au capital de frs. 5.000.000, fut fondée par la Compagnie Thomson-Houston de la Méditérranée et est liée avec les diverses Compagnies Thomson-Houston des autres parties du monde. Autrefois les commandes d'Egypte étaient exécutées par la Compagnie méditerranéenne ; mais cette dernière, en présence du développement rapide du pays, résolut de créer une nouvelle Société ayant uniquement son champ d'opérations en Egypte. A cet effet elle s'assura le concours de groupes financiers importants français et égyptiens, mais garda en même temps dans la nouvelle Société une influence prépondérante.

La Compagnie égyptienne Thomson-Houston représente actuellement en Egypte les divers intérêts des différentes Compagnies Thomson-Houston des autres parties du globe, soit la Compagnie Thomson-Houston de la Méditerranée au capital de frs. 20.000.000, the General Electric Company of New York, au capital de $50.000.000 ; la Compagnie Française Thomson-Houston, au capital de frs. 40.000.000 ; les ateliers Thomson-Houston, au capital de frs. 7.000.000, et la British Thomson-Houston Company, au capital de £800.000. La Compagnie égyptienne est en outre en rapport constant avec les autres Sociétés Thomson-Houston établies dans les autres parties du monde.

Quoique elle n'ait été fondée qu'en Mai 1907 elle a déjà exécuté un grand nombre de travaux, tels que l'installation d'éclairage électrique d'une partie du Musée égyptien ; celle de l'Institut français d'Archéologie ; de l'Ecole de Droit ; de l'Ecole de Police de l'Abbassieh ; du palais Beyerlé ; des Postes de Tantah ; de divers immeubles de la Société d'Oasis Héliopolis ; du Winter Palace Hôtel, de Luxor ; du Victoria Collège d'Alexandrie et de nombreuses installations de pompes, et d'appareils électriques, tant au Caire et à Alexandrie que dans les villages de la Haute Egypte. La Compagnie fournit aussi une partie du matériel nécessaire



R. KUSTER & CO.,

1. R. Kuster & Co's Premises. 2. The Iron and Building Material Store.

entered the service of the Crédit Foncier Egyptien in order to gain banking experience. He rejoined his former employers in 1890, and in 1902 he was admitted into the partnership. He was married in 1898 to Lillie, daughter of the late Mr. R. Kuster, sen., and he has two daughters. He is on the board of directors of the Nile Transport Company, Ltd.

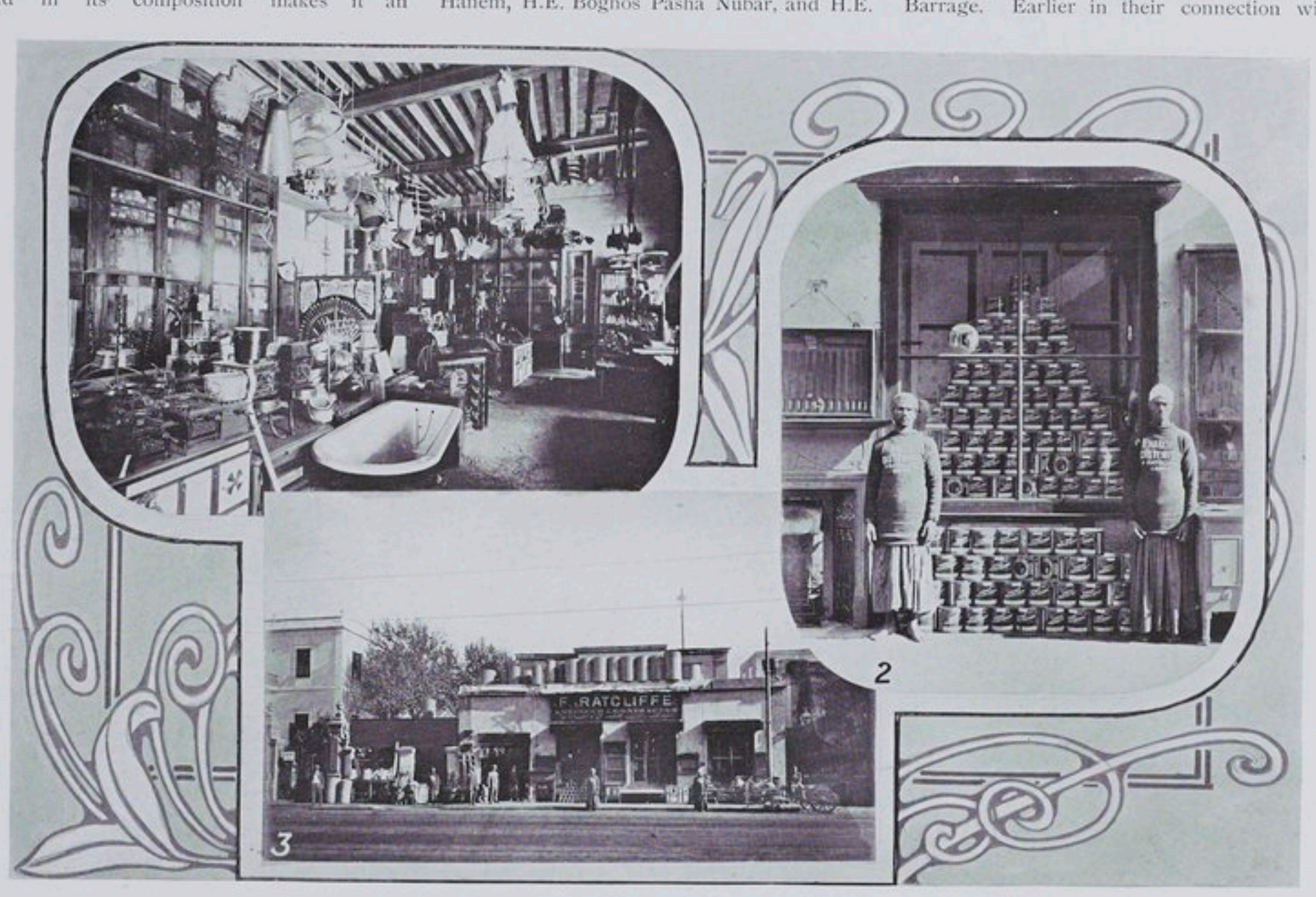
MICHEL MIRSHAK.

In business as a contractor as well as being a partner with his brothers in the firm of K. and I. Mirshak, general bankers and discounters, Michel Mirshak was born in Damascus in 1880, and came to Cairo at the age of twenty to join the staff of the Delta Light Railways. Since 1904, when he began business on his own account, he has carried à la Société des Tramways d'Alexandrie et est largement intéressée dans cette entreprise. De nombreuses voitures appartenant aux Tramways du Caire ont été pourvues également de moteurs et d'équipements Thomson-Houston.

F. RATCLIFFE.

Situated in the Sharia Saptia, which runs directly opposite to the Central Railway Station at Cairo, and has now become one of the busiest thoroughfares for engineers' stores, are the offices, stores, and showrooms of F. Ratcliffe, one of the oldest established local English firms dealing in ironmongery and hardware, general merchandise, and engineering requisites. Representing such well-known firms as B. K. Morton & Co., of Sheffield,

manufacturers of files, tool-steel, drills, lathe tools, &c.; Hamilton & Co. (London), Ltd., makers of brushes, painters' tools, &c.; George Howson & Sons, Ltd., of Hanley, who supply all kinds of sanitary fittings; and Sissons, Bros., & Co., Ltd., wholesale oil and colour merchants, of Hull, Mr. Ratcliffe is able to guarantee everything supplied by him as being of the best quality. He is sole agent for Hall's sanitary washable distemper, manufactured by Sissons, Bros., & Co., Ltd., which has of late years been so largely used in the principal Government Administration Offices in Cairo and the Soudan. This is an excellent wall-covering for a country with a climate such as Egypt possesses, because it withstands atmospheric influences much better than wall-paper or ordinary paints. It is unaffected by light, heat, or damp, while the percentage of cresylic acid in its composition makes it an efficacious germicide. These advantages are rapidly becoming recognised, and tons of the distemper are imported into the country every month. The business is conducted by Mr. F. Ratcliffe, who in no small degree attributes the large and increasing connection which he has secured all over Egypt to the fact that he gives every order and inquiry his personal attention.



F. RATCLIFFE.

1. Show Room. 2. F. Ratcliffe's Chief Agency. 3. The Premises.

ALEX. YOUNG.

The problem of irrigation in Egypt presents less difficulties than formerly owing to the increase of artesian wells in the country. One of the largest boring contracts carried out locally was that recently completed at Asserat, in the district of Luxor, by the firm of Alexander Young (late Thomas Henry Hornstein & Co.), in conjunction with Mr. Hagop Agopian, who sank eight wells—two of them 12 inches in diameter and the remainder 16 inches in diameter—on the estate of Ismail Bey Fouad Abou Réhab. This firm, who have been established for some three years in Cairo, with a branch at Alexandria, make a speciality of well-boring, which they carry out in conjunction with Mr. Hagop Agopian, one of the leading members of his profession in Egypt. They had two artesian bores at the Cairo Agricultural Exhibition in 1909, and have several important contracts in hand. They supply pumps and agricultural machinery of all kinds, representing such well-known firms as Robey & Co., Ltd., Richard Hornsby & Sons, Ltd., and Brown & May, Ltd., and have recently executed orders for H.E. Ali Bey Ramsey, H.H. Princess Fatma Hanem, H.E. Boghos Pasha Nubar, and H.E. Bughra Bey Hanna. Mr. Alexander Young, the proprietor, is connected with the old-established firm of Alex. Young (London), Ltd., of London and Calcutta. The Cairo offices are in the Sharia Saptieh, the local managers being Messrs. W. Bradley and C. W. Wilkinson.

DAYDÉ & PILLÉ.

It is generally acknowledged by engineers that the leading characteristics of the firm of Daydé & Pillé, whose branch in Cairo is but one of many in different parts of the world, are the boldness of their innovation, and the masterly manner in which they have always solved difficult problems. These characteristics have been strikingly illustrated by their recent success in building the Gabbary Bridge at Alexandria, to carry the road over the Egyptian State Railway. It was necessary to construct the span without interrupting the train service below, and at the same time to avoid too steep an incline on the approach from the Mex side of the line. The principal constructional workshops in Europe were invited to compete, and the scheme of Messrs. Daydé & Pillé was adjudged the best. The cantilever truss was constructed on an inclined scaffolding, and rested on its final supports on the Alexandria side only. When the truss was completely riveted, the scaffolding was removed, and the whole structure was lowered to the horizontal by means of powerful hydraulic machinery. Among other recent works completed by this firm in Egypt for the State Railways may be mentioned two big bridges over the Nile at Zifteh and the Barrage. Earlier in their connection with the country Messrs. Daydé & Pillé installed the pumping machinery for the Waterworks at Cairo and Alexandria, and built the bridges at Embabeh and Mansourah. They also proposed the scheme for the metallic hall of the Central Railway Station at Bab el Hadid, Cairo, and carried out the first part of it.

The firm was founded in 1858 by Messrs. Lebrun and Lévèque. The latter died in 1875, and Mr. Lebrun carried on the business alone until 1886, when he admitted Messrs. H. Daydé and A. Pillé to partnership. At the beginning of 1887 the present partners assumed the control of the business, and by skilful management they have so developed it that their workshops at Creil (Oise) now rank among the leading establishments of their

kind in France. They undertake mechanical and metallic constructions, such as engines and boilers, cranes, steam and electric excavators, road, canal and railway bridges, piers and jetties, lock-gates, weirs, gasometers, &c., besides general work in the nature of foundations by compressed air, submarine dredging and scouring, the construction of floating and graving docks, and the boring of tunnels with the compressed-air shield. They have built over four hundred bridges in China and Indo-China, among them the great bridge over the Red River at Hanoi—1,950 yards in length and with foundations sunk to a depth of 114 feet below the mean low-water mark—and the single-span arch bridge of 180 yards across the Song-Ma River in Annam, the erection of which elicited the admiration of the engineering world.

Both Mr. Daydé and Mr. Pillé are Commanders of the Legion of Honour, and have received numerous foreign Orders. In recognition of their work in Egypt the Khedive has granted them the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, third class.

The chief offices of the firm are at 6 bis rue Auber, Paris, and are under the management of Messrs. L. Cazeau, C.E., and J. Collin, C.E., both Knights of the Legion of Honour. Those of the Egyptian agency are situated in the Rue el-Cherifein, Cairo, the local manager being Mr. S. F. Mortier, C.E., also a Knight of the Legion of Honour.

A. TISSIER.

Mr. André Tissier, a member of the Société des Ingénieurs Civils de France, came to Egypt in 1895 as engineer in charge of the technical service for the planning and construction of the railway from Keneh to Assouan, and was then employed in a similar capacity under the Cie des Chemins de Fer Economiques de l'Est Egyptien. Since the completion of that line in 1901 he has been in business on his own account as an engineer and contractor, and besides having carried out numerous public works he has done much to further the general application in Egypt, and particularly in Cairo, of the biological treatment of sullage water and sewage matter. A son of the late James Tissier, a gentleman of independent means, he was born at Côte d'Or, France, in 1870, and after a course at the Bureau Central des Etudes at Paris he entered the service of the Cie des Chemins de Fer de Paris-Orléans, and received a thorough practical training in their central workshops at Paris. He next joined the permanent way and construction department of the State Railways of France; and, finally, before coming abroad, he was attached to the Bureau des Etudes des Ateliers et Chantiers de la Loire. Mr. Tissier is a Member of the International Chamber of Commerce at Cairo.

M. André Tissier, membre de la Société des Ingénieurs Civils de France, vint en Egypte en 1895, comme ingénieur avec la charge du service technique pour les plans et la construction du chemin de fer de Keneh à Assouan, puis a été employé similairement à la Cie des Chemins de Fer économiques de l'Est égyptien. Depuis l'achèvement de la ligne en 1901 il a fait des affaires pour son propre compte comme ingénieur et entrepreneur et à côté il a fait nombre de travaux publics applicables en Egypte, au Caire, surtout dans le traitement biologique des eaux Sales et des égoûts. Un fils de feu James Tissier, un monsieur aux idées indépendantes, il est né à la Côte d'Or, en France en 1870, et après un stage au Bureau central des Etudes a Paris, il entra au service de la Cie des Chemins de Fer de Paris-Orléans et fit de la pratique aux ateliers centraux à Paris. Puis il entra dans le département de la construction des routes et chemins de fer de l'Etat (France) et finalement, avant d'aller à l'étranger, il fut attaché au Bureau des Etudes des Ateliers et Chantiers de la Loire. M. Tissier est membre de la Chambre internationale de Commerce au Caire.

ABEL & SCHELLENBERG.

Confining their attention to imports only, Abel & Schellenberg, general merchants and commission agents, have developed a large business in hardware, jewellery, silverware, toys, beads, fancy goods, wines, spirits, liqueurs, &c. They represent Carl Breiding & Sohn, Soltau, Hanover; the Creditorenverein Fuer die Gold, Silberwaren, und Uhren-Industrie, Pforzheim, Baden; A. C. Meukow et Cie, France; and many other leading firms in Europe and America. Mr. Willy Abel, the senior partner, was born in Berlin in 1880, and was educated at the Commercial School at Neuchâtel, Switzerland. Mr. Jacob Schellenberg, two years his junior, is a native of Russikon, Zurich, and was educated at the same school. Before coming to Egypt in 1901, both partners were for a time engaged in business in Europe.

ERNEST JASPAR.

Educated at the Brussels Academy of Fine Arts, Mr. Ernest Jaspar at one of the triennial competitions for students who had gained honours was awarded first place and a prize of 1,000 francs. For six years he practised as an architect in Brussels, and afterwards, whilst on a tour in Egypt, he met Baron Empain, who asked him to prepare plans for the New Palace Hotel at Heliopolis. It is from these designs that the hotel has just recently been completed. He decided to settle in Cairo, and one of his earliest achievements was to secure the first award for his designs for the Caisse Hypothécaire. His plans for the new Cairo Stock Exchange, also, were approved in the first instance, but owing to the financial crisis they had to be abandoned afterwards in favour of a less ambitious scheme, prepared by him in conjunction with Messrs. Cattaui & Matasek. The Anglo-Belgian flats at Gezireh, the Mattosian tobacco factory at Gizeh, the offices of the Heliopolis Company, the private railway station for the Khedive at Wardian, a number of villas for the Koubbeh Gardens Company, and a building with a ground area of 2,000 square metres at Kasr-el-Doubarah, for Green Brothers, were also built from his designs. Mr. Jaspar, who is a son of the late Pierre Jaspar, of Brussels, is on the committee of the Belgian Chamber of Commerce.

LEON ROLIN & CO.

The construction of firm foundations demands the greatest possible attention in the Nile Valley, for the whole country is alluvial in formation and in many instances land has been won by filling in swamps and pools. Among the most successful solutions of the difficulty thus presented to the builder is the "Compressol" system of foundations, which has been so extensively employed in recent years on the Continent and elsewhere. By means of heavy steel cones, which descend with great force from a height of some 30 feet, pits are created in the soil, and into these an admixture of stone, rubble, and cement is subsequently driven. In this way solid pillars are formed extending from the surface down to bed rock or other stable stratum, while of course the intervening ground is compressed by the lateral thrust of the cones. These pillars are connected at the top by armoured concrete girders, the whole giving a safe foundation for even the heaviest of superstructures. The sole agents in Egypt for this system and for the "béton armé," or armoured concrete, used in connection with it, are



ALEXANDER YOUNG'S PUMPING STATION AT KENEH, UPPER EGYPT.

M. Padova, Leon Rolin & Co., contractors, engineers, and importers of ironwork, who have been established in Cairo for ten years. The founders of the Company were Mr. M. Padova, an Italian merchant, and Mr. Leon Rolin, a Belgian engineer, whose father, Mr. Ernest Rolin, is consulting engineer to the Company. Most of the shareholders are Belgians of high standing. The ten years for which the Company was originally formed having expired on January 1, 1908, the concern has now been reconstructed, with the same shareholders, by Mr. Leon Rolin, under the style of Leon Rolin & Co. Among the more important works carried out by the Company may be mentioned the premises of the Credit Foncier Egyptien, various Khedivial and Ministerial buiidings, constructional works for the Cairo Electric Railways Company and the Heliopolis Oases Company, and "Compressol" foundations for many of the principal buildings in Cairo and Alexandria. The firm represent numerous Belgian engineering firms, and import waggons, ironwork, and all the machinery necessary in building construction. The engineer-in-chief is Mr. E. Cambrelin; the chief accountant, Mr. E. Schodduyn, and the secretary, Mr. C. Moreau, all of whom were specially engaged in Europe. Altogether some twenty men are employed in the office, while some forty engineers, surveyors, and foremen are engaged in carrying out and supervising the Company's numerous contracts. The offices are at No. 10, Rue du Musée Egyptien, Cairo, and Boulevard de Ramleh, Alexandria.

PALACCI, FILS, HAIM & CO.

With an annual turnover of from £150,000 to £180,000, Palacci, Fils, Haim & Co. claim a large share of the wholesale and retail trade in Egypt and the Soudan. The present premises, covering an area of 1,200 square metres, and rising to a height of three stories, stand on the site of the original shop that was opened in the Sharia Ben el-Neihden, Mousky, in 1897, and are tangible evidence of the success which has attended the business. Twenty office assistants and 120 salespeople are employed in the various departments for tapestry and furniture, carpets, silks, Manchester goods, woollen materials, drapery, ladies' and gentlemen's outfitting, hosiery, and haberdashery, travelling requisites, hardware, and fancy goods. The founders of the firm were V. Palacci and his sons and Mr. A. Haim.

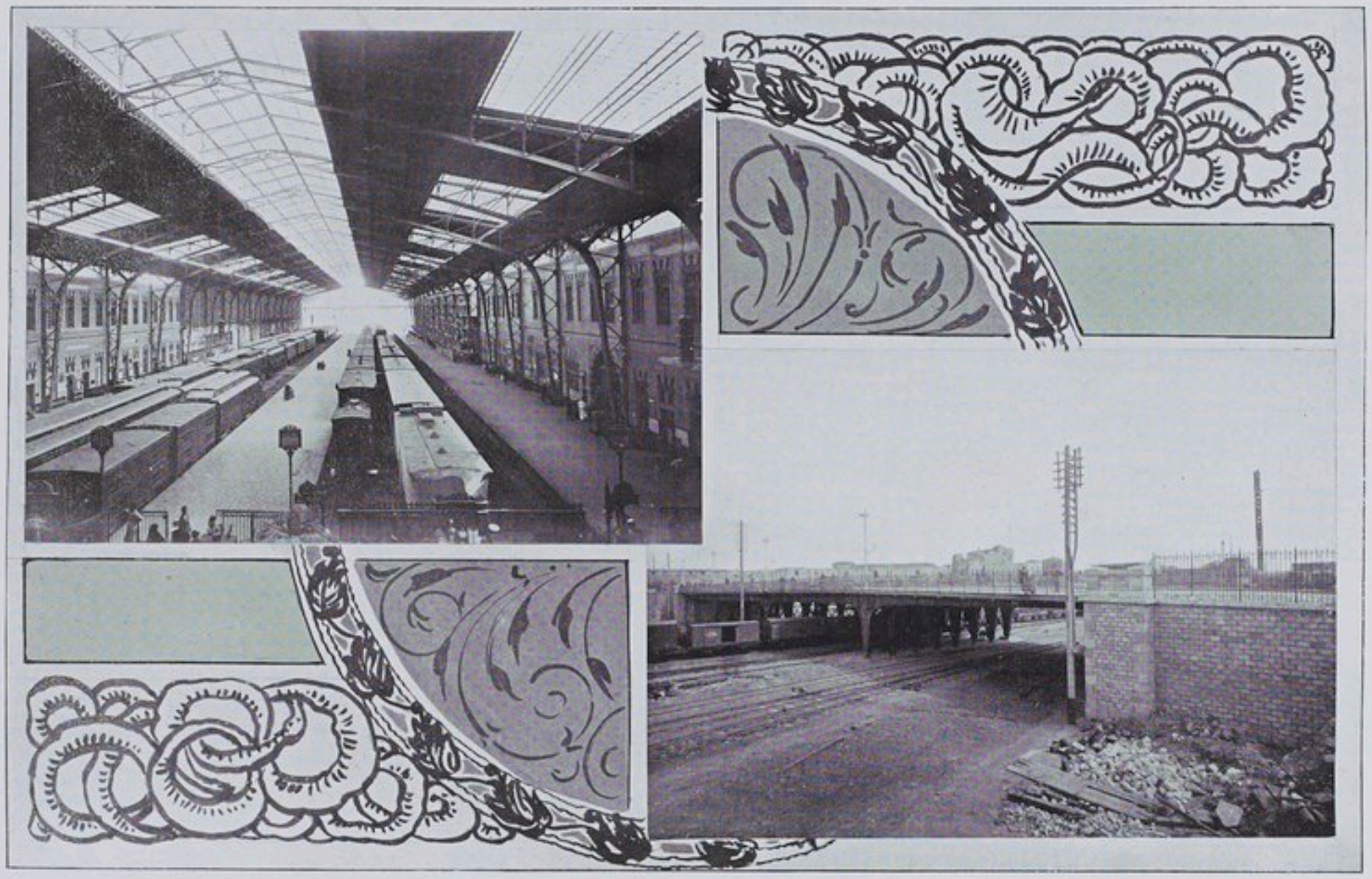
RALPH S. GREEN.

Son of Mr. S. I. Green, a well-known banker and landowner, Mr. Ralph S. Green has developed a considerable business on his own account during the past four years. He holds important contracts for the supply of live cattle and fresh meat, and all kinds of forage, to the British Army of Occupation, and forage and native and Cyprus cattle for the Serum Institute, the Department of Public Health, and the Service de Tanzim et Voiries.

Mr. Green has been appointed the agent for the South British Insurance Company, Ltd., the Prima Sociéta Ungarese, and the Prima Sociéta Austriaca, and represents important English and Continental firms for the import and export of all kinds of general goods. His head offices are in the Rue Kasr-el-Nil, Cairo, and he has branches in the Rue Cherif Pasha, Alexandria, and at Nicosia, Cyprus.

SETTON, FRIEDMANN & CO.

For twelve years Setton, Friedmann & Co., one of the best known firms of English commission agents in Egypt, have carried on business in Cairo and Alexandria, devoting their attention particularly to the promotion of British trade. They represent some sixty important English manufacturing houses, as well as a number of prominent Continental firms. They are sole agents for T. F. Firth & Sons, Ltd., carpet, blanket, and rug manufacturers, of Brighouse, Yorkshire; Barry, Ostlere & Shepherd, Ltd., linoleum and floorcloth manufacturers, of Kirkcaldy, Scotland; Law, Russell & Co., Ltd., one of the largest firms of dress goods fabric manufacturers in Bradford; Crockell & Jones, the well-known manufacturers of the "Health" and "Elite" boots and shoes in Northampton; and Christy & Co., the world-famed hat manufacturers. These are but a few of the houses represented by the firm, the full list comprising many other leading wholesale dealers in all classes of soft goods in Great Britain. The partners are Mr. M. Setton,



INTERIOR OF THE BAB EL HADID STATION.
(Built by Messrs. Daydé & Pillé.)

BRIDGE AT GABBARY.
(Built by Messrs. Daydé & Pillé.)

who is in charge of the Cairo branch, and Mr. S. Friedmann, who manages the house at Alexandria. Both partners have been connected for many years with the commercial life of the country. Prior to establishing himself in business on his own account, Mr. Setton travelled for several of the important firms he now represents, and the experience which he gained in this capacity has enabled him so to develop the Cairo branch of the business, that both the houses which he represents and the firm of which he is the senior partner have every reason for satisfaction. He is a member of the British Chamber of Commerce, and has become a recognised authority on matters relating to trade in Egypt. The Cairo business address of Messrs. Setton, Friedmann & Co., is Hoche Issa, Mousky Street, or Box 84, while that at Alexandria is Box 519.

Thomas Adams, Ltd., the Nottingham lace manufacturers; Lister & Co., the Bradford silk weavers; and Joseph Crossfield & Sons, the makers of Warrington soaps. The firm have two branches—one at Hosh Iska, Cairo, where Mr. G. Padova is in charge, and the other at Alexandria, which is entrusted to Mr. A. Guthieres Pegna. They have agencies at Tantah, Mansourah, and Omdurman. Mr. G. Marcus lives in Hamburg, and contents himself simply with occasional visits to Egypt, but follows closely the progress of the business.

G. SIACCI.

G. Siacci, ingénieur entrepreneur, vint en Egypte en 1896 comme ingénieur des chemins de fer égyptiens, poste qu'il quitta en 1900 pour entrer au service de MM. Padova, Rolin et Cie, entrepreneurs, en qualité d'ingénieur en chef. En 1903 il se mit à travailler pour son compte, et depuis 1907 il est directeur de l'Industrial Building Company of Egypt, Ltd. Il est l'inventeur du système de béton armé qui porte son nom, et parmi les entreprises dans lesquelles ce système a été employé mentionnons la construction des Khedivial Buildings du Caire, pour compte de la Société Belge-Egyptienne de l'Esbékieh; les fondations du Winter Palace Hotel à Luxor; les fondations et les plafonds de la fabrique de cigarettes Maspéro Frères au Caire; les colonnes, les arcades, les plafonds du grill-room et de la nouvelle salle à manger de l'Hôtel Shepheard, et le système de drainage de l'Héliopolis Oasis. M. Siacci se charge aussi de l'entreprise de fondations par la méthode de la compression mécanique du sol, en employant les machines spéciales fournies par la maison Menck et Hambrock, d'Altone. Il est l'Ingénieur Conseil du Consulat d'Italie au Caire, et en 1901 il fut créé Chevalier de l'Ordre de la Couronne d'Italie. Licencié de l'Université de Rome en physique et mathématiques, il obtint son diplôme à l'Ecole d'Ingénieurs de Bologne. Avant son arrivée en Egypte il fut pendant trois ans, en qualité d'ingénieur, attaché au Ministère des Finances d'Italie.

F. DIEMER.

Few establishments in Cairo are better known than that of F. Diemer, bookseller, situated in the Shepheard's Hotel Buildings in the Chareh Kamel. They stock books of all kinds in some twelve different languages, and make a special feature of those dealing with Eastern countries. The firm are agents for the Survey Department of the Egyptian Government for the printing and sale of maps, plans, and similar publications, and they have recently been appointed booksellers to H.H. the Khedive. The business was founded by Mr. F. Diemer in 1892; it then passed to Mr. F. Marschner, and finally to Mr. Henry Finck, who purchased the goodwill in 1905 after having managed the business for four years. Mr. Finck is a native of Thuringen, Prussia, and was educated at Hildburghausen. He was engaged for seventeen years in the book trade, working for big firms in Leipzig, Dresden, and other large centres.



ERNEST JASPAR.

1. E. Jaspar. 2. Gezireh Flats (Architect, Ernest Jaspar). 3. Palace Hotel, Heliopolis (Architect, Ernest Jaspar).

G. MARCUS & CO.

The large importing, exporting, and general merchant's business carried on by G. Marcus & Co., was established by Mr. G. Marcus, in conjunction with a Manchester house, in 1860. The Manchester house, however, soon withdrew, and Mr. Marcus continued alone until 1894, when he admitted Messrs. Massiah, A. G. Pegna, and G. Padova into partnership. Mr. Massiah retired on January 1, 1903. The firm import large quantities of candles, matches, starch, tin, and tea, and also do a considerable commission business. They are sole agents in Egypt and the Soudan for Milner's safes, and represent, among other well-known houses, the Central Agency, Ltd.;

H. RAFF.

Although the business carried on by Mr. H. Raff was established only four years ago

it has already become very popular with the residents of Cairo. The firm's premises in Place Ataba el Khadra are commodious and elegant, and the thousand and one miscellaneous articles of hosiery, millinery, and outfitting are arranged with taste and judgment throughout a series of well-appointed and conveniently arranged showrooms. A traveller may purchase here any requisite for his journeyings, and in the various departments every article will be found which imagination can conceive to be necessary for the provision of a complete outfit for either sex. Of the ever-changing European fashions Mr. Raff, who has been in the trade all his life, takes careful note, so that his stock, which at a low estimate is worth between £50,000 and £60,000, is never allowed to become antiquated or out-of-date.

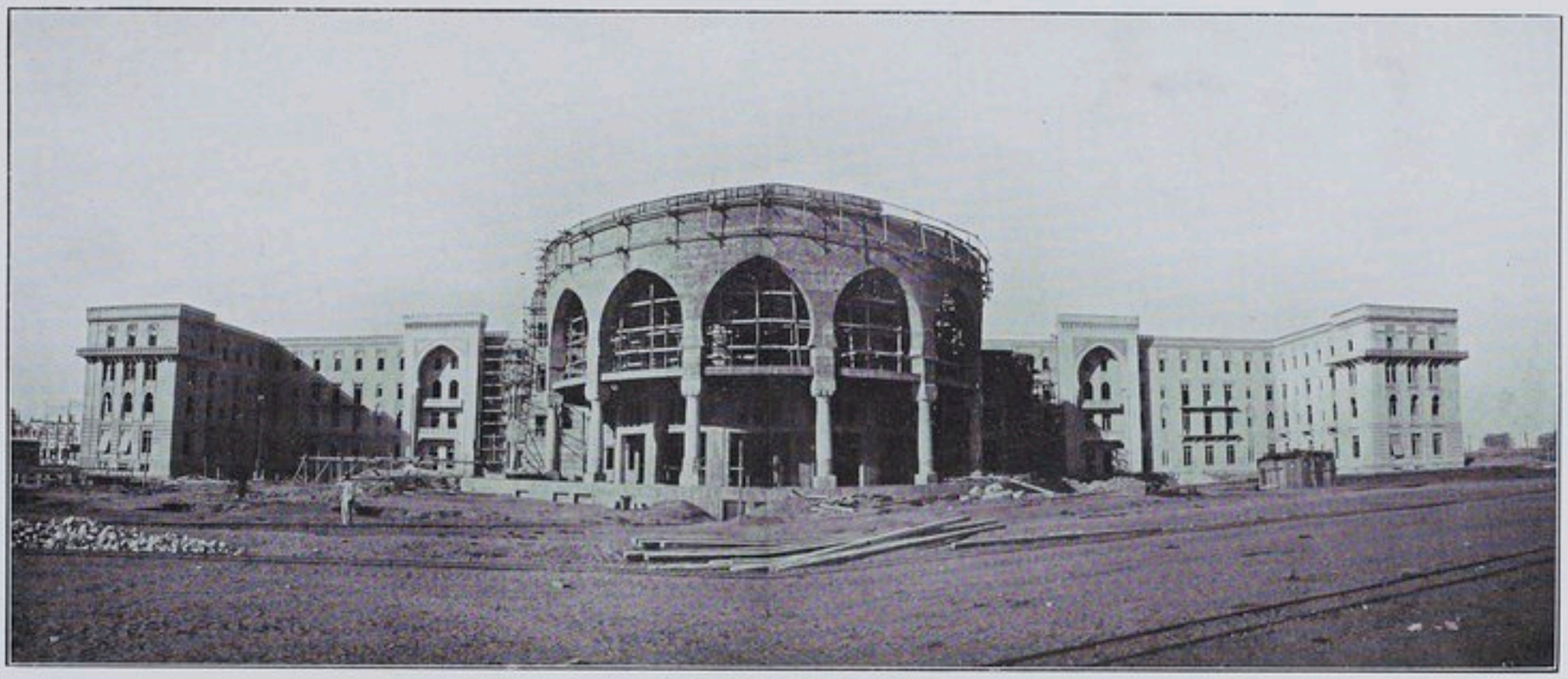
Mr. Raff is the sole proprietor. He was born at Yassi, Roumania, in 1852, and came to Cairo with his parents when quite a child. In his early years he met with several grievous misfortunes. He lost his father a year after his arrival in Egypt, and at the age of fourteen he was left to struggle as best he might for a livelihood owing to the death of his brother-in-law, who up till then had provided for his education. It had previously been suggested that he should be apprenticed to a watchmaker, but, having no taste for such an occupation, he joined Mr. S. Stein when that gentleman started in business as a ready-made clothier in Cairo in 1865. Trade was brisk; branches were quickly opened in Constantinople, Alexandria, and Vienna; and with this development in the business Mr. Raff's position grew in importance until in 1873 he was appointed manager of the whole undertaking. In 1897 Mr. Stein conceived the idea of creating a small private company by handing over the business for a period of five years to his various managers. The branch in Cairo was entrusted to Mr. I. Blumberg; in Alexandria to Mr. Marcus Stein, Mr. S. Stein's younger brother; in Constantinople to Mr. H. Blumberg and Mr. H. Raff; and in Vienna to Mr. Doro Stein, Mr. S. Stein's eldest son. Between the years 1898–99 Mr. S. Stein and Mr. I. Blumberg both died, and Mr. H. Blumberg retired from the Company, but the three remaining partners continued the business until the expiration of the contract in 1902, when, according to the original arrangement, Mr. Doro Stein assumed the control of the whole enterprise. Mr. Raff was appointed manager of the Cairo branch, a position which he resigned at the end of a year in order to start business on his own account. After waiting eighteen months for a favourable opportunity he opened his present premises in 1905. His manager, Mr. Constantin Moscopoulos, has been associated with him in business for something like fourteen years. The staff includes some thirty-five hands. In 1875 Mr. Raff married the sister of his late employer, Mr. S. Stein. His two sons, Joseph and Max, both assist him in the business. In 1903 Mr. Raff was decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class.

F. PHILLIPS & CO.

For upwards of twelve years F. Phillips & Co., of the Chareh Kasr-el-Nil, have been established in Cairo as high-class tailors and breeches makers, military and colonial outfitters, ladies' tailors and habit makers, and general hosiers. They stock English cloths of the best manufacture and latest design, and entrust their work only to Europeans, who are under the direct personal supervision of the proprietor, Mr. Fred Phillips. When the business was started in 1896 the partners were Messrs. Lawson & Phillips, but, on the retirement of Mr. Lawson, three years later, Mr. Phillips became the sole proprietor. In 1901 he opened a branch at Alexandria, in the Rue Cherif Pasha, and has now a good and increasing connection in that port. The branch is managed by Mr. Geo. Lawrence, who has an interest in the business. Mr. Phillips was familiar with Cairo long before 1896, for on leaving the City of London College he was with the firm of John Collacott, of Cairo. Subsequently he was employed for three years as principal cutter to J. Jones & Co., military tailors, of Regent Street, London. Mr. Phillips, who is forty-one years of age, is married to Florence, daughter of Thomas Miller, a retired banker of Sydney, N.S.W., and has one son and two daughters. It may be mentioned that he has taken a keen interest in the local branch of the Legion of Frontiersmen since its formation, and now acts as its secretary.

JOHN COLLACOTT & SON.

Conspicuous in the busy Chareh el Manakh is the establishment of John Collacott & Son, civil and military tailors and breeches makers, hosiers, and general outfitters. The business, one of the most extensive of its kind in Egypt, was founded in October, 1886, by Mr. John Collacott, whose father, for forty years, has carried on a large tailoring business in the city of London. For twenty-two years the firm was known under the style of John Collacott, but the present name was adopted towards the close of 1908, when Mr. Collacott, who sixteen years previously had been joined by his second son, Mr. Herbert Edmund Collacott, retired from business. Collacott & Son undertake every branch of gentlemen's outfitting, and carry a large stock of smart goods. Some forty persons are employed, and each department is under European supervision, Mr. Herbert Collacott himself having charge of the cutting department. Mr. Fred. Botham is the assistant manager.



LEON ROLIN & CO.
Heliopolis Palace Hotel built by Messrs. Padova, Rolin & Co.

G. PARVIS.

In spite of its somewhat hidden situation near the entrance to the Mousky, the establishment of Mr. Giuseppe Parvis is well known to both residents and visitors in Cairo, for it has an old-established and widespread reputation for the supply of artistic Oriental furniture and bronzes. The founder, a native of Pramont, a little village in Italy, showed early in life a keen perception of the artistic, and, having received his education at Turin and Paris, he devoted himself for some eight years to the study of wood-carving, having for companion the celebrated sculptor Guilio Monteverde. He came in 1859 to Cairo, where his skill was soon recognised by the Khedive and the Egyptian nobility. Ismael Pasha gave him several commissions, including one for a suite of Oriental furniture to be shown at the Paris Exhibition of 1869. The suite was greatly admired, and Mr.

Parvis was awarded a gold medal. This success was repeated at subsequent world exhibitions at Philadelphia, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Vienna, Milan, Turin, and elsewhere, the exhibits of Mr. Parvis never failing to attract unusual attention. Besides the application of ancient Egyptian and Arabic designs to modern furniture, of which he makes a speciality, Mr. Parvis is able to reproduce with wonderful fidelity the articles of personal adornment in use three or four thousand years ago, the originals of which are to be seen in the Cairo Museum. It is difficult to suggest more interesting souvenirs of a visit to Egypt than these reminders of the dawn of civilisation.

Mr. Parvis, who is in his seventy-seventh year, has five sons and four daughters. His eldest son, Pompeo, has had charge of his business since 1887, while his second son, Taurino, is a well known baritone, and will this year sing at the Scala de Milano. In 1907 Mr. Parvis had the title of Cavalliere of the Order of Lavaro conferred upon him by King Victor Emmanuel—a signal honour, as it was one of the first three ever granted outside the kingdom of Italy.



BUSINESS MEN OF VARIOUS NATIONALITIES IN THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS OF EGYPT.

1. Vita Israël. 2. N. E. Tamvaco. 3. W. Abel. 4. Jacob Schellenberg. 5. Ercole Fedrigo. 6. J. C. Paleologo.
7. W. Ablitt. 8. G. Castro. 9. Joseph Segre. 10. Luigi Ghezzo. 11. Henri Meyer. 12. C. N. Stroumzi.
13. Enrico Nistri. 14. Clement Y. Misrahi. 15. Adolf Hess. 16. Alfred Salinas. 17. A. Ferrero. 18. Antoine Sant.
19. G. Bollhalder. 20. Michel Mirshak. 21 J. Gallet.

THE HYGIENIC DAIRY.

Howie & Co., proprietors of the Hygienic Dairy at Shoubra, have rendered a valuable service to the public in making available a plentiful supply of pasteurised milk, cream, and butter. In course of preparation by the Pasteur process, the milk is slowly heated to 180° or 190° F., and is kept at that temperature for some twenty minutes, and then run over a cooler, ready for distribution in hermetically-sealed bottles. They supply officers' messes, hotels, and clubs, and number among their customers residents of all nationalities. The dairy has been awarded twelve first prize medals for butter and cheese at various shows held by the Khedivial Agricultural Society. The head of the firm, Mr. Alexander I. Howie, is a native of Edinburgh. He was for nearly eleven years engaged in the grain and milling industry, and then, in 1892, came to Egypt to join J. E. Mortimer & Co., general merchants. A year later he became manager, and he held that position until the business changed hands in 1898. His desire for an outdoor life led him to establish the Hygienic Dairy. He is a member of the British Chamber of Commerce, and of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and he takes a prominent part in the affairs of St. Andrew's Church.

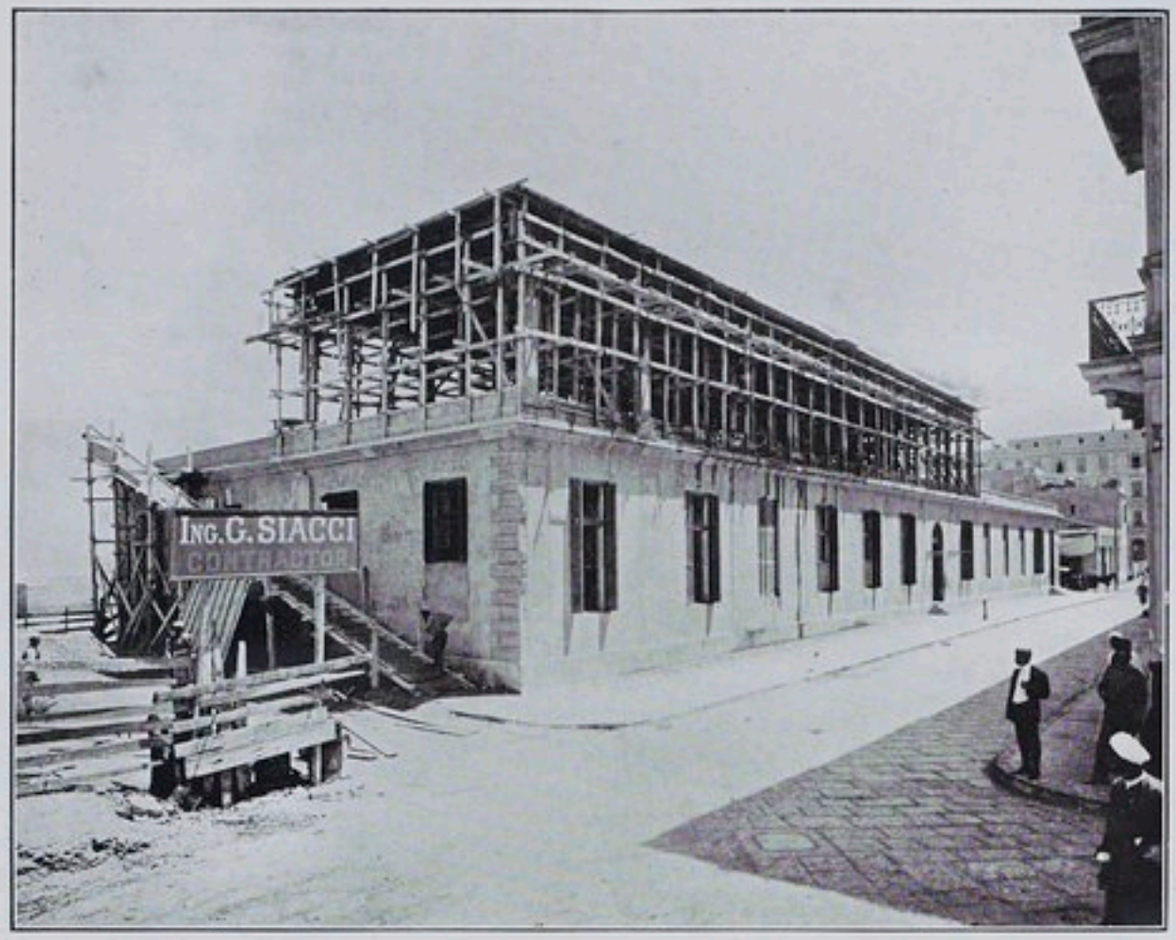
MORING & CO.

The business of Moring & Co. has been extended and developed considerably since its establishment. Mr. Alfred Moring, who is the son of Mr. John Moring, a surgical instrument maker, of London, and had been associated with his father in business for a period of seven years, laid the foundations of the Company in 1893. For the first twelve months or so he devoted himself exclusively to those branches of trade in which his previous training gave him an expert knowledge, but finding that the financial results derived from the making of surgical instruments were not entirely satisfactory, he widened the scope of his enterprise by establishing, in conjunction with it, a large cycle depôt. He still maintains his old connection as a surgical instrument maker, but the firm's cycle trade has grown so rapidly during recent years that it may now be regarded as the chief part of their enterprise. They sell all the best pattern machines, carry out repairs of all descriptions, and keep large stocks of accessories for both cycles and motor cars. They are the sole agents in Egypt and the Soudan for the "New Hudson," "Singer," "Raleigh," and "Norton" machines.

Mr. A. Moring is now assisted in the conduct of the business by Mr. Frank Percy Hayes, whom he admitted into partnership in 1904. The staff of workmen at present employed by the firm numbers fifteen.

STEPHENSON & CO.

The first English pharmacy opened in Egypt was that of Stephenson & Co., in the Opera Square. Since its establishment in 1899 others have come into existence, but the older firm still maintains a high reputation. Stephenson & Co. do a large dispensing business, and in the season receive



INDUSTRIAL BUILDINGS COMPANY, LTD.

A "Beton Armé" Building erected by the Industrial Buildings Company, Limited, under the "Siacci System."



THE PREMISES OF F. DIEMER.

(Mr. H. Finck, Senior Partner.)

commissions from many English and American celebrities. They supply drugs and medicines to the Citadel Hospital and the British troops, and do a good trade in English and foreign specialities and druggists' sundries. In summer the preparation of cold drinks, made with fruit syrups and iced soda water, is their chief occupation. The well-appointed pharmacy was fitted up by F. Sage & Co., of London.

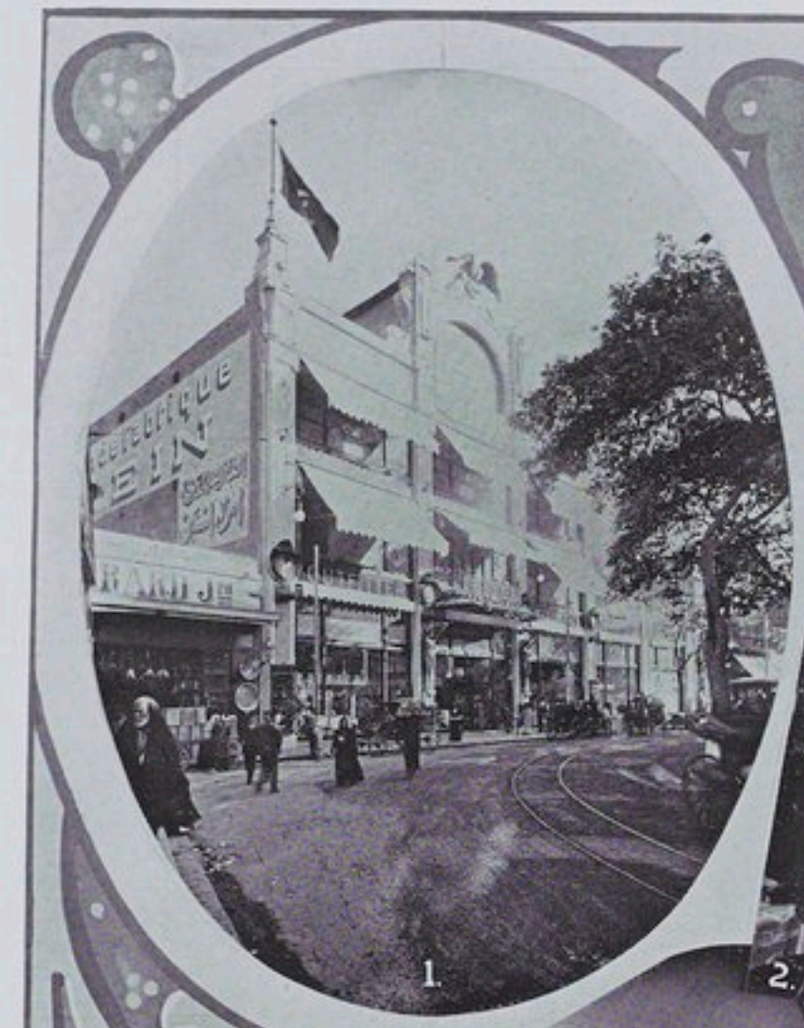
Mr. G. H. Stephenson, M.P.S. (London), the founder of the firm, is a Yorkshireman. After completing his education at Beverley Grammar School, he was apprenticed to Messrs. Metcalfe, chemists, of Hull, for six years. He then migrated to London and, during a two years' residence in the Metropolis, passed both the major and minor examinations of the Pharmaceutical Society, and the examination, also, of the Society of Apothecaries. He spent the next thirteen years in the Straits Settlements, and during six of them he held the appointment of Government analyst and inspector and tester of petroleum. Eventually he became managing-director of Maynard & Co., Ltd., of Singapore and Penang. Desiring a change, he returned to London, but the many confident opinions which he heard expressed, during his management of a West-End business, regarding the fine opening that Egypt offered for a British chemist, induced him to embark upon his present undertaking.

DAVIES BRYAN & CO.

As full particulars of the foundation and development of the business of Davies Bryan & Co. are to be found in the Alexandria section of this volume, it will suffice here to say that the founder, Mr. John Davies Bryan, came to Cairo in 1886 on the suggestion of his medical adviser, and opened a branch of the business carried on by Bryan Brothers, drapers, Carnarvon, North Wales. Eventually the Carnarvon business was closed, and the whole of the attention of the proprietors was devoted to the building up of their Egyptian connection. Mr. John Davies Bryan died in 1888, and Messrs. Edward and Joseph Bryan have since carried on the business. The present Cairo premises are situated in the Chareh el Maghraby.

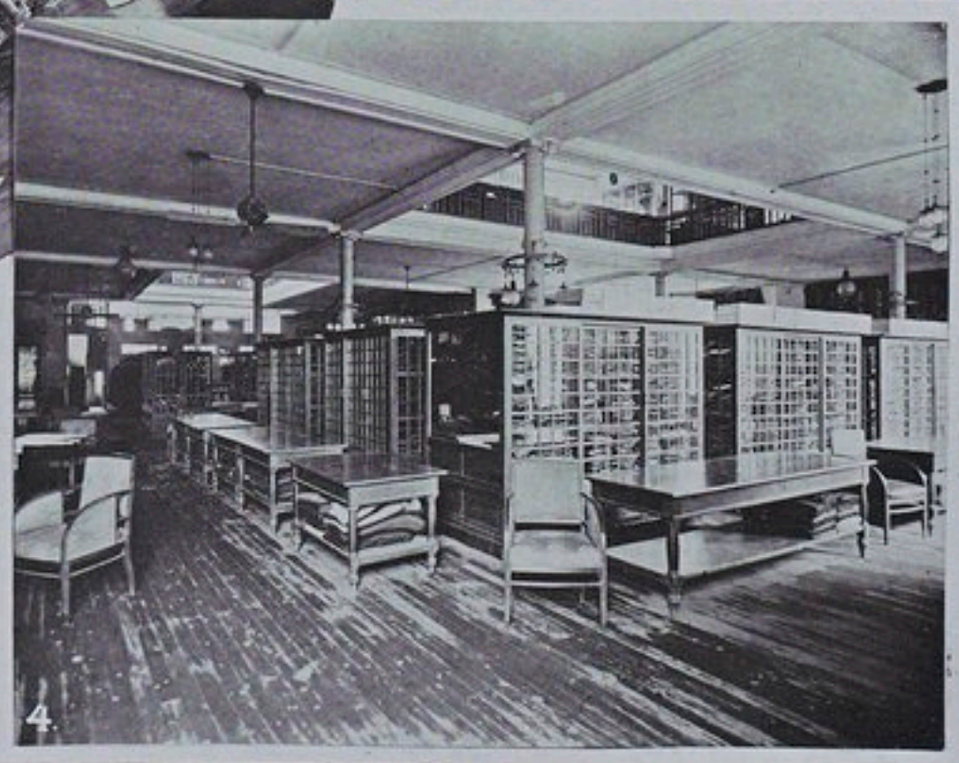
S. STEIN.

When the late Mr. S. Stein opened a small shop in Cairo for the sale of ready-made clothing some forty-four years ago, he could have had little idea of the magnitude and importance to which the business would attain. To-day the imposing establishment in the Place Ataba el Khadra, with its 50 metres of glazed front, and its numerous departments stocked with every conceivable requisite for the complete outfitting of man, woman, or child, gives employment to 180 hands, and ranks as one of the largest emporiums of the kind in the country. Upon the ground floor is the ladies' and children's outfitting, millinery and hosiery department, containing all kinds of dainty confections, hats, gloves, shoes, and underclothing, in the latest modes. On the first floor, which is reached by an electric lift, are the clothing departments for gentlemen and boys, stocked with ready-made garments and a varied assortment of materials from which suits to measure may be selected. Both in these and in the ladies' departments a large business is done in making up clothing in accordance with directions given by customers on the self-measurement forms which are now so popular. The workshops and reserve stores









S. STEIN.

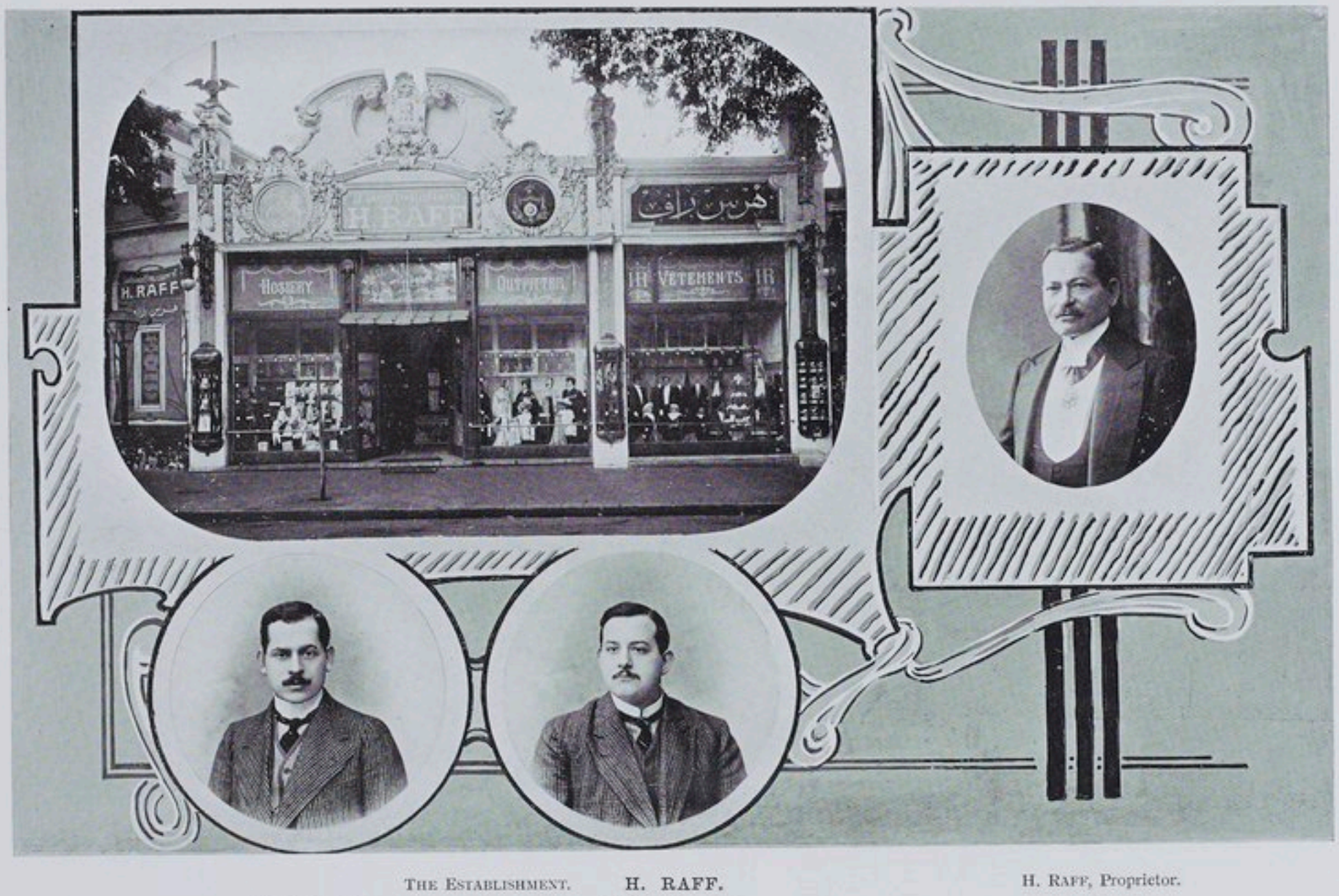
1. The Premises.
2. First Floor.
3 and 4. The Showrooms.

occupy the second floor of the premises. It would be impossible to enumerate the many specialities to be found in S. Stein's establishment ; suffice it to say that many of the leading manufacturers in England and on the Continent are represented, as well as the firm's own factory in Vienna, where particular attention is given to the local requirements of Egypt. Although all transactions are on a purely cash basis, the firm is always willing to return the money paid for goods which are not approved. Purchasers of articles to the value of 250 piastres tariff and upwards are entitled to the delivery of their purchases free of charge to any part of Egypt or the Soudan. The premises are brilliantly lighted throughout by electricity, which is generated by a duplicate plant, driven by engines of 80 i.h.p.

The present proprietor of the firm is Mr. Doro Stein, who succeeded to the business on the death of his father in 1898. The head offices are in Vienna, and branches are now open in Alexandria, Tantah, Constantinople, and Salonika. The manager of the Cairo branch is Mr. H. Bacharach, who joined the firm in Vienna after having been employed in a similar capacity in New York, South Africa, Brussels, and Berlin. He has held his present position in Cairo for four years.

mètres de façade de vitrines et ses innombrables rayons pourvus de tout ce que l'on peut demander en fait d'habillements pour hommes, pour femmes et pour enfants, possède un personnel de 180 personnes et est, en son genre, un des plus vastes magasins de l'Egypte. Au rez-de-chaussée se trouvent les rayons d'habillements, modes, et bonneterie pour dames et enfants. Le client peut s'y fournir des produits des toutes dernières modes en confections, chapeaux, gants, chaussures, lingerie. Au premier étage auquel on atteint par un ascenseur électrique, sont les comptoirs pour hommes et pour enfants. C'est là que se trouvent emmagasinés les vêtements confectionnés, ainsi qu'un assortiment très varié d'étoffes pour les costumes sur mesure. Car ici, comme dans le rayon de dames, il se fait de larges affaires en habillements coupés d'après les mesures données par le client, selon le système de "self-measurement" qui est aujourd'hui très en vogue. Les ateliers et les dépôts occupent le second étage. Il serait à peu près impossible d'énumérer les divers articles étalés dans les rayons de ces grands magasins. Qu'il nous suffise de dire que beaucoup des principales manufactures de l'Angleterre et du Continent en sont les fournisseurs ; de même que la fabrique de la maison, à Vienne, apporte à la confection des commandes pour l'Egypte une attention toute particulière. Quoique les transactions se fassent purement au comptant, la maison est toujours disposée à rembourser le montant des achats payés lorsque la marchandise n'est pas de la convenance de l'acheteur. En outre les acquisitions de frs. 250 et au-dessus sont expédiées franco de tous frais dans toute l'Egypte et le Soudan. Les locaux sont partout brillamment éclairés à la lumière électrique et celle-ci est fournie par des dynamos actionnés par des moteurs de 80 i.h.p.

Le propriétaire actuel de la maison est Monsieur Doro Stein, qui succéda dans les affaires a son père à la mort de ce dernier, survenue en 1898. La maison principale est à Vienne et les succursales ouvertes à ce jour sont celles de : Alexandrie, Tantah, Constantinople et Salonique. Le directeur de la succursale du Caire est Monsieur H. Bacharach, qui entra au service de la maison à Vienne après avoir rempli de pareilles fonctions à New York, dans le sud de l'Afrique, à Bruxelles et à Berlin. Il occupe cette position depuis quatre ans.



THE ESTABLISHMENT. H. RAFF. H. RAFF, Proprietor.

JOSEPH RAFF. MAX. RAFF.

QUAND feu M. S. Stein ouvrit, il y a environ 44 ans, un modeste magasin au Caire pour la vente de costumes confectionnés, il ne pouvait certes s'imaginer la grandeur et l'importance que les affaires de sa maison auraient atteintes. Aujourd'hui l'imposant établissement de la Place Ataba el Khadra avec ses cinquante

ZIVY FRÈRES.

ONE of the oldest firms of high-class jewellers and watchmakers in Cairo and Alexandria is that of Zivy Frères, which was established in 1863 by Henry and Cesar Zivy, who had previously carried on business at Chaux-de-Fond, the centre of the watch-making industry in Switzerland. After Mr. Henry Zivy's death in 1885, Mr. Cesar Zivy continued to trade under his own name until 1902, when he also died, leaving the business to his sons, Jules and Charles, who are the present proprietors. The firm have depôts and factories in Paris and in Chaux-de-Fond. The local branches, situated in the Rue Kamel, Cairo, and in the Rue Cherif Pasha, Alexandria, are managed respectively

by Mr. C. Zelnick, who has been with the firm for twenty years, and Mr. M. Braun, who has been with them for upwards of forty years, but one or other of the proprietors comes to Egypt from Europe each season to equip the local business with the latest novelties. A special feature is made of copies of antiquities, for which there is a ready demand owing to the fidelity of the workmanship. The firm stock all kinds of jewellery and precious stones, and have been purveyors to H.H. the Khedive since the time of Ismael Pasha. Mr. Jules Zivy is a member of the committees of the French Club and the Société de Bienfaisance Française. He was the founder of the Masonic Lodge, Le Nil Obedience Grand Orient of France, and has served the office of chairman for over ten years. Three years ago he was made a Chapter. Both he and his brother are natives of Chaux-de-Fond, and gained the greater part of their practical knowledge of jewellery at their father's workshops there and in Paris.

Une des plus anciennes parmi les maisons de premier ordre en bijouterie et horlogerie établies au Caire et à Alexandrie est celle de MM. Zivy Frères, fondée en 1863 par MM. Henri et César Zivy, qui avaient commencé primitivement leurs affaires à Chaux-de-Fond, centre de l'industrie horlogère en Suisse. Après la mort de Monsieur Henri Zivy, survenue en 1885, Monsieur César Zivy, survenue en 1885, Monsieur César Zivy continua le commerce sous son propre nom jusqu'en 1902, époque de son décès. Ses deux fils, Jules et Charles, lui succédèrent dans les affaires, et sont les propriétaires actuels de la maison. MM. Zivy Frères ont leurs dépôts et ateliers à Paris et à Chaux-de-Fond ; les agences égyptiennes sont situées au Caire à la rue Kamel, et à Alexandrie, à la rue Chérif Pacha, et sont dirigées respectivement par M. C. Zelnick, qui est dans la maison depuis 20 ans, et par M. M. Braun, qui, à son tour, est au service de MM. Zivy depuis plus de 40 ans ; mais tantôt l'un, tantôt l'autre des propriétaires vient à chaque saison de l'Europe en Egypte pour fournir les magasins des marchandises courantes et des dernières créations. Une des spécialités de la maison est la vente d'antiquités égyptiennes ; il y a sur cet article des demandes suivies à cause de la façon soignée et fidèle dont il est édité. La maison vend tous genres d'orfèvrerie et de pierreries, et en même temps fournit la Maison Khédiviale depuis le temps de Ismaïl Pacha. Monsieur Jules Zivy est membre du Comité du Club Français et de la Société de Bienfaisance française. Il fut le fondateur de la Loge Maçonnique "Le Nil" dépendant du Grand Orient de France et remplit les fonctions de Président pendant dix ans environ. Il y a trois il ans fut élu "Chapter." Messieurs Jules et Charles Zivy sont nés tous deux à Chaux-de-Fond et ont fait la plus grande partie de leur apprentissage pratique en joaillerie dans les ateliers de leur père, dans leur ville natale, et à Paris.

SIUFI BROS.

Coming of an old family of merchants, H.E. Mohamed Achmed Pasha Siufi founded the firm now known as Messrs. Siufi Bros., and succeeded in building up a substantial piece-goods business. He imported Manchester cottons of all kinds and brassware, and exported gum, Soudanese goods, and raw cotton. On his death in January, 1900, the business passed into the hands of his sons, the senior partner now being Abdul Hamid Bey Siufi. The Cairo establishment, which was opened in 1860, is situated at Gouireh, in the Mousky. The firm have a branch in Manchester, and numerous agencies all over Egypt. In their own department they enjoy practically a monopoly of the Red Sea trade, and they also ship large quantities of goods to India. Abdul Hamid Bey Siufi was born in Cairo in 1880, and, after receiving a commercial education, joined the Manchester branch of his father's firm at the age of nineteen. He devotes much of his leisure to horticulture, and has made several interesting experiments in the cultivation of orchids.

G. LEKEGIAN & CO.

So universal has been the progress of photography, that even in the most outlying territories there is no lack of facilities for elaborate production in this branch of art. Egypt of to-day is specially rich in views and pictorial effects, choice specimens of which are daily created by the many artists catering for the public demand. Among the many firms engaged in this work may be mentioned that of G. Lekegian & Co., Cairo. Established in 1887, the excellence of their work quickly secured for them the large patronage they have enjoyed for the past twenty-two years, and the business is now carried on at two up-to-date establishments. The chief studio is in Sharia Kamel, opposite the front entrance of Shepheard's Hotel. Here a large selection of enlargements and views is displayed. A special feature is made of the "tourist business," and a staff of competent workmen are always busily engaged in printing and developing visitors' snapshots and films.



SOME CAIRO MERCHANTS.

1. Rudolf Stobbe. 2. J. Collacott. 3. Alfred Moring. 4. F. Phillips. 5. Giuseppe Parvis. 6. Alexander I. Howie. 7. George H. Stephenson.

HUGO HACKH.

Cairo is indebted to Mr. Hugo Hackh, founder of the firm which bears his name, for many pleasant musical memories. It was he who engaged the Société Chorale from Vienna, a chorus of two hundred voices, whose visit to Cairo in 1905 will long be remembered. The Quartetto Fitzner, the Quartetto Helmsberger, and other well-known vocal parties, so popular at the big hotels during the season, have also been brought out through his instrumentality ; while, as a member of the Cairo Musical Society, he has taken his share in fostering local talent. All this, however, has been but incidental to his business as an importer of musical instruments. The firm has two establishments—one at Alexandria that has been in existence since 1888, and occupies an advantageous site in the Rue Cherif Pasha ; the other at Cairo, that was opened in 1903, and is situated in the Rond Point Suares. Mr. Hugo Hackh is the sole local representative of many of the leading manufacturers, including C. Bechstein, J. Bluthner, Steinway & Sons, V. Berdux, J. Brinsmead & Sons, C. Ecke, J. Feurich, R. Ibach Sohn, and the Æolian Company, Ltd. His firm is patronised by the Khedive and many of the leading residents in Egypt and the Soudan. At his extensive workshops he undertakes repairs of all kinds, and he holds the contract for maintaining in good order the instruments of the bands of the British Army of Occupation. Mr. Hackh makes a point of visiting the chief musical centres in Europe every

year in order to keep himself thoroughly abreast of the times, and, in consequence, he has often been the first to introduce novelties to Egypt. A recent importation is the Welte-Mignon piano-player, an ingenious electrically-driven device by which the individual interpretation of the world's most famous pianists may be reproduced.

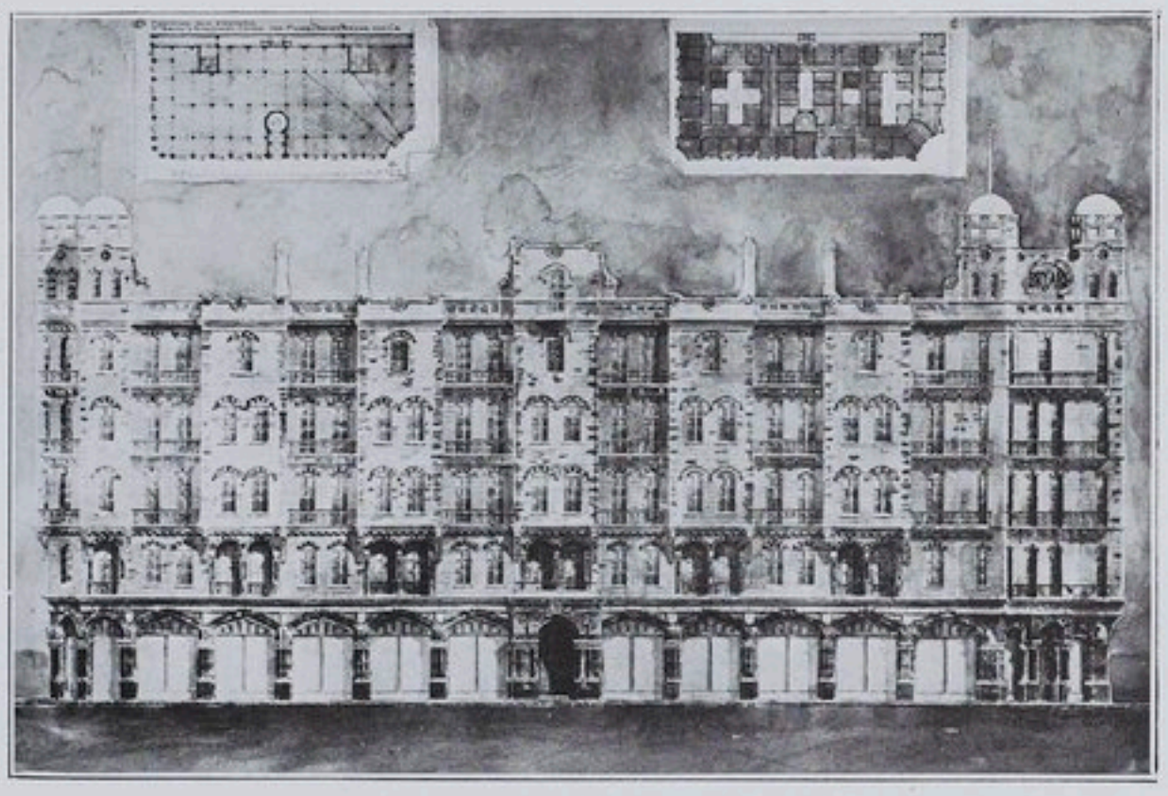
Mr. Hackh, who is a native of Wurtemberg, joined his father on leaving the Stuttgart High Gymnasium, and acquired a thorough knowledge of piano manufacturing. This knowledge he subsequently extended in various first-class factories in Berlin, such as those of C. Bechstein, Duysen, and Biese. He was then in Bohemia for a year, and was on the point of taking over the management of a large music warehouse there, when he decided to come to Egypt. He arrived at Alexandria in 1887 as manager for the firm of Bodenstein & Co., and in the following year started business on his own account. Mr. Hackh has served in the German Army, and now holds officer's rank in the Reserve. He is an enthusiastic sportsman, and was one of the founders of the German Sporting Club in Alexandria. His chief delight, however, is in vocal music, and for many years he has been a member of the Société Chorale de Vienne.

JOSEPH COHEN.

The visitor to the bazaars in an Eastern city is apt to be oppressed with a sense of uneasiness that his purchases may, after all, have had their origin in Birmingham, or some other large manufacturing centre in his native land. There are, however, several establishments in Cairo in which he may rely upon procuring the genuine article, and Mr. Joseph Cohen is the proprietor of one of these. A native of Smyrna, Mr. Cohen was in business in Syria for some years before he came to Egypt in 1880, and opened a Turkish and Persian bazaar in Cairo. By rigidly excluding anything in the shape of spurious imitations he quickly established a reputation as a reliable dealer. Many distinguished residents and visitors have written to him expressing satisfaction with their purchases. One letter he received stated how very much H.R.H. the Prince of Wales (now H.M. King Edward VII.) had admired a selection of embroideries received from Mr. Cohen, and in another H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught expressed himself as very pleased with carpets purchased at the bazaar. Mr. Cohen's establishment is situated in the Han-Halil, near the entrance to the Shoe Bazaar. Persian carpets and rugs, both silk and woollen, form the staple of the stock, which contains also a varied assortment of silks, velvets, embroideries, jewellery, earthenware, Oriental scents, antiquities, and innumerable examples of cunning Oriental workmanship.

BŒHME & ANDERER.

Bœhme & Anderer undertake all kinds of printing work, from plain jobbing to the most artistic bookwork. At their offices, which are situated next to the Turf Club in the Chareh el Maghraby, they have a modern plant, including printing presses and bookbinding machinery, and a large staff of Europeans, besides a number of native assistants. In the shop are departments for fancy goods, office requisites and furniture,



DAVIS, BRYAN & CO.'S PREMISES, CAIRO.

and leather goods; and few establishments in Egypt carry a more varied or high class stock. The business was established in 1883 by F. E. Max Bœhme and Theodor Anderer, and the present proprietors are Mr. Bœhme's children. Since Mr. Bœhme's death in 1907 his brother-in-law, Mr. F. Sarpe, has had the general control of the business.

F. DAVIDSON & O. REGENSTREIF.

In few countries is ophthalmia and other eye troubles more prevalent than in Egypt. Recognising this, the well-known firm of F. Davidson & Co., opticians, who have been established at 29, Great Portland-street, London, W., for nearly half a century, opened a branch of their business in Cairo in 1903. As they were able to undertake the most complicated of optical formulas they soon established a reputation among local oculists, and in course of time were appointed opticians to the Hospital of the Army of Occupation and to the Government Ophthalmic Hospitals. They are patentees of the "Effdee" sun and sand glasses, specially designed for the desert, and are the sole agents in Egypt and the Soudan for the well-known London firms of Ross, Ltd., prism binocular makers, &c.; F. Barker & Son, Ltd., makers of compasses, aneroid barometers, and scientific instruments; and Hall Bros., makers of surveying instruments. The work entrusted to the firm is carried on under the personal supervision of two of the partners, Mr. Jacobs and Mr. Regenstreif, the former of whom spends at least six months in Egypt every year, while the latter resides in Cairo permanently. The firm occupy premises in the Continental Hotel Buildings.

KIENZLE & SIMONDS.

The wider diffusion of knowledge relating to the laws of hygiene, and the fuller appreciation of the beneficial influence that a pure food supply exercises upon the health of a community, have, in recent years, led to many improvements upon the old methods of preparing articles of diet intended for general consumption. The public now demand that every precaution shall be taken to guard against the possible introduction of injurious elements into the manufacture of any form of edible, and to ignore this demand is to court failure. This fact, recognised by the late Mr. Kienzle, has never been lost sight of by his successors, and to this may be attributed a large measure of their success. Mr. Kienzle established himself in business as a baker in 1860. He occupied premises right in the heart of the old native quarters of the city, and commenced trading in a very small way, but, by maintaining a good standard of quality and exercising careful management, he succeeded gradually in extending his business. In 1890 the headquarters were removed to Tewfikieh, and eight years later the son of the founder and Mr. H. E. Simonds entered into partnership. In 1904 Mr. Kienzle, jun., retired, leaving Mr. Simonds the sole proprietor. In order to cope with the rapidly increasing trade of recent years, Mr. Simonds purchased 1,400 square metres of land for the purpose of erecting new bakehouses, and shortly afterwards bought an additional 600 metres to provide room for the improvements and extensions which were subsequently found necessary. The buildings, constructed of stone and cement, are practically fire-proof, while the ovens are of the very latest continuous baking pattern and are externally heated, so that nothing but bread ever enters the baking space.

The firm have supplied five generations of the Khedivial family, and are purveyors to the military institutions, the leading hotels, and several of the principal schools. They were the first to introduce English confectionery into Cairo, and for some years were the only bakers in the city who made bread with yeast. They have branches in Sharia Maghraby, opposite the Turf Club, at Abbassieh, and at Zeitoun, and employ no less than twelve delivery vans daily. The firm make a speciality of Gluten bread for diabetes, and are agents for Hovis bread, Turog bread, Horniman's tea, and John Walker & Son's whisky.

F. FRANCÉS.

The Grands Magasins des Nouveautés, situated in the Rue el-Bawaki, Cairo, is an old-established house dealing in furniture and household goods, textile fabrics, carpets, oilcloths, silk piece goods, drapery, haberdashery, hosiery, gloves, millinery, lingerie, and ladies' costumes of all kinds. The founder, Mr. F. Francés, was for nine years in Paris before

coming to Cairo in 1873, and he still makes all his purchases through his establishment in the Rue du Petit Hôtels in that city. From 1873 to 1881 he was engaged by Paschal & Co., and then, being anxious to turn his local knowledge to better account, he opened a small shop. He moved to more commodious premises in 1883, and since that year the prosperity of his undertaking has increased enormously. For the past twenty years he has held the appointment of purveyor to the Khedivial family and to the Administration Publique, and his *clientèle* includes numbers of the leading residents in Cairo. To-day he employs forty persons in the department for tailor-made costumes, ball dresses, fancy dresses, and mantles; seven in the millinery department; and fifteen in the department for dresses and underwear; besides some thirty salespeople. The showrooms are extensive, and are replete with the latest novelties of all kinds, and there are also large store-rooms for reserve goods. Mr. Francés who is a native of Tarn, France, was born in 1849. He has been a widower for the past fourteen years, and has six children. One of his sons, Maurice Francés, is now at the head of the business. His manager in Cairo is Mr. Cesar Haddad.

I. HORNSTEIN.

ONE of the leading boot and shoe stores in Egypt is that of I. Hornstein, situated in the Crédit Lyonnais Building, Cairo. It was established in the Mousky in 1893, and from small beginnings the trade has so increased that at the present day a stock of twenty thousand pairs of boots and shoes is carried. Among well-known makes for which the establishment has the sole agency in Egypt and the Soudan are those of E. & F. Bostock, of Northampton, and C. & F. Balby, of Switzerland, besides the American "Run-over Shoe." Mr. Hornstein, a son of the late D. Hornstein, jeweller to Khedive Said Pasha, was born in Cairo in 1865, and was educated locally. He was apprenticed for three years to L. Juster, a shoe merchant, and rose to the position of manager, which he held for eleven years. He is a fluent linguist, speaking and writing eight different languages. Married to Bertha, a daughter of S. Silbermann, of Cairo, he has two sons and two daughters. Mr. Hornstein is a P.M. of the Sphinx Lodge of Freemasons.

UNE des plus importantes maisons de chaussures en Egypte est celle de M. I. Hornstein, située dans le bâtiment du Crédit Lyonnais au Caire. Il s'était établi au Mousky en 1893, et d'un petit commencement son commerce prit tant d'extension que maintenant il a un stack de 20.000 paires de bottes et souliers. Parmi les marques connues pour lesquelles la maison a des agences en Egypte et au Soudan, il faut citer celles de E. et F. Bostock, de Northampton, et C. et F. Bailly, en Suisse, puis la marque américaine "Run-over Shoe." M. Hornstein est un fils de feu D. Hornstein, bijoutiér au Khédive Saïd Pacha. Il est né au Caire en 1865, et y a été éduqué. Il a été apprenti trois ans chez L. Juster, marchand de souliers, et s'éleva à la position de directeur, poste qu'il a gardé pendant onze ans. Il parle et écrit huit langues différentes. Marié à Berthe, une fille de S. Silberman, du Caire, il a deux fils et deux filles. M. Hornstein est P.M. de la loge du Sphynx des Francs-Maçons.

SOCIAL.

H.E. IDRIS BEY RAGHEB is one of the most striking notabilities of present-day Egypt. He was educated privately, and has a thorough knowledge of English, French, Italian, Turkish, and Arabic. In the reign of Khedive Mohamed Tewfik Pasha, he was nominated Judge of the Tribunal at Gizeh, and retained that position for seven years, during which time he was greatly admired and respected for his administration of the law, his decisions being without fear or favour, and always in accordance with probity and the letter of the law. In recognition of his great capabilities, he was in 1890 appointed the Governor of Kaliubieh, one of the most important provinces in the Egyptian Delta. Some difference of opinion, however, arose between His Excellency and the Ministry of the time, the consequence being that he resigned. His Excellency is the Grand Master of Freemasonry in Egypt; Sovereign Grand Commander of the Supreme Council of Egypt; and proprietor of the newspapers, *L'Egypte*, and *The Egyptian Morning News*. His policy in the conduct of both papers, which, as their names imply, are printed in French and English respectively, is liberal, without his being the partisan of any particular party. The Turkish degree



1. A. HADJETIAN. 2. S. SASSON. 3. BAKR MOHAMED CHOEB. 4. M. CICUREL. 5. N. HADJETIAN. 6. I. HORNSTEIN.

BAKR MOHAMED CHOEB.

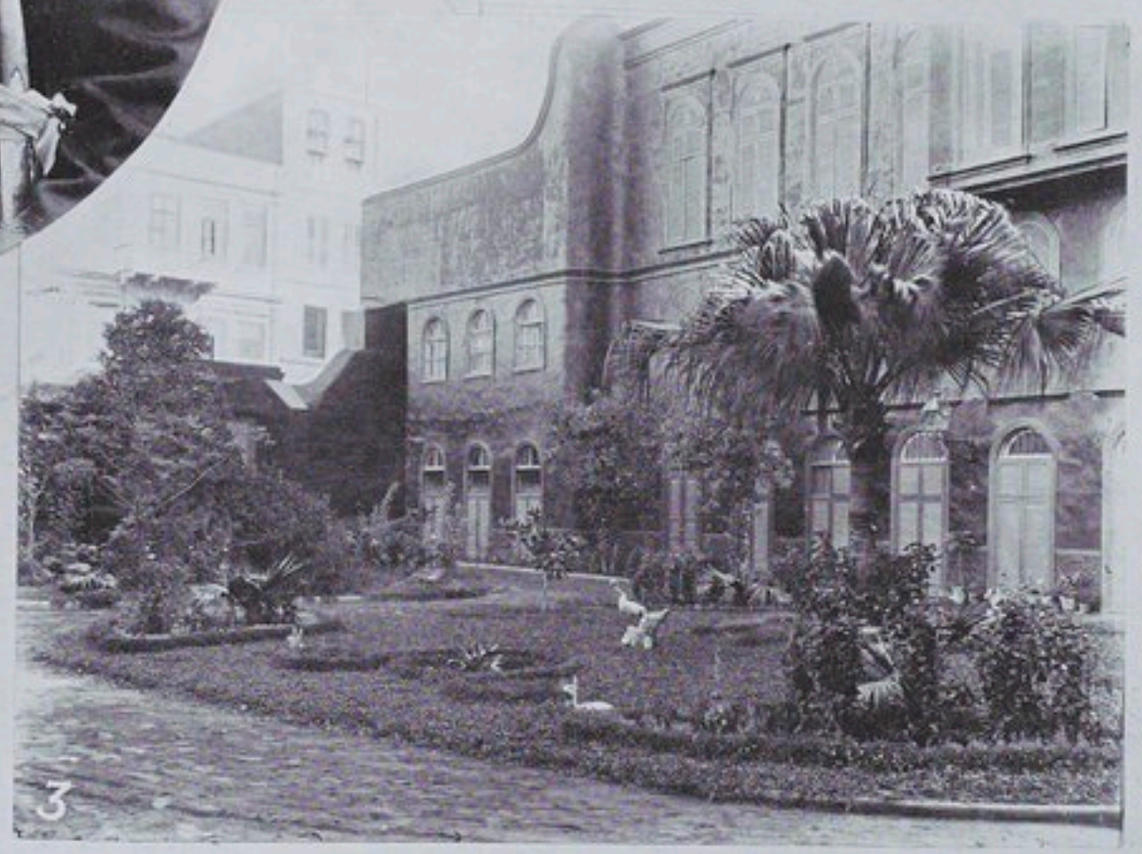
STARTING in 1884 with a capital of one pound sterling, Bakr Mohamed Choeb has now a prosperous business in the neighbourhood of the Mousky, his stock-in-trade consisting of furniture, sewing machines, cigarette papers, matches, &c., which he imports direct from Trieste and from his agents in France, Switzerland, and Sweden. He is a son of the late Mohamed Choeb, an Arabic tailor, but having no inclination to follow his father's trade, he joined El-Sayid Ahmed Nasr, a general merchant, as a salesman, remaining with him one year. He then began business on his own account, and for the first ten years purchased his stock from his former employer; but latterly has dealt direct with the manufacturers.

AU PETIT BAZAAR.

THE new premises now being erected in the Boulac Road, opposite the Continental Buildings, are evidence of the success which has attended the business founded many years ago by Mr. Hannaux, and now known as "Au Petit Bazaar." Haberdashery and toys formed the stock of the original establishment opened in the Mousky in 1882; but, by degrees, drapery, silks, clothing, hosiery, and hats were added, until to-day there is scarcely any requirement in a person's outfit which the house cannot meet. In 1887 Mr. Moreno Cicurel, who had joined Mr. Hannaux as an assistant, acquired the business, and on his retirement recently he transferred the management to his sons, Solomon and Joseph, who, with Mr. Moses Mano, trade under the style of "Les Fils de M. Cicurel & Co." In 1904 a branch was opened at Ismailia, and the Company now employ nearly eighty persons. Mr. Morena Cicurel, who is in his fifty-eighth year, is a native of Smyrna, but came at an early age to Egypt.







HIS EXCELLENCY IDRIS BEY RAGHIB.

1. His Excellency Idris Bey Raghib. 2. The Cairo Residence. 3. The Garden.



HIS EXCELLENCY IDRIS BEY RAGHIB.

1. The Library. 2. The Smoking Room. 3. The Reception Room. 4. The Drawing Room.

of Balla, which represents the rank of General, was conferred upon him by H.I.M. the Sultan of Turkey. He possesses the Grand Cordons of the Osmanieh and Mejidieh; he has the Order of the Sun of Persia, and he is a Knight Commander of Greece.

H.E. ABDEL SALAM EL-MOUELHY PASHA, though born in Cairo, is not an Egyptian, but is descended from an old Arabian family, long established at Mouelah, in Arabia, and distinguished as having played an important part in the history of that country. One of the Pasha's early ancestors built a fort on the Red Sea coast, and Aly Bey the Great, who flourished during the first part of the nineteenth century, sought the aid of the Pasha's grandfather, El-Sayed Mustapha el-Mouelhy, in opposing Turkish interests. An interesting document in the possession of the family testifies that in the Hegirac year 1185 (about 1772 A.D.), an agreement was made between Aly Bey the Great and El-Sayed Mustapha, providing for certain repairs of the fort in question. Considerable part of this expense was born by El-Sayed Mustapha personally, as was also the part cost of the maintenance and supply of several thousands of men provided for the purpose of helping the Egyptian ruler to attain his object. The esteem in which El-Sayed Mustapha was held by Aly Bey is evidenced by the trouble taken by the latter to keep him and his family in Egypt. Aly Bey the Great even went so far as to marry the eldest son of the family, El-Sayed Achmed El-Mouelhy, to El-Sayeda Rabiah El-Bakrieh, daughter of the then representative and head of the Prophet's family, and this was the initial cause of the family taking up their residence permanently in Egypt, where the name has attained such prominence. It is only about a decade ago that the name of Mouelhy was mentioned in connection with the Turkish boundary troubles at Taba and Akaba, and the territory has also come under notice during certain researches organised by scientific societies for the purpose of following up rumoured traces of Moses. References have been made to this district in many works written by travellers, notably one by Captain Burton. H.E. Abdel Salam El-Mouelhy Pasha was born in 1851, and educated at Al Azhar University. At the age of sixteen, his father died, and left him to share with his brother the management of a thriving business. In olden days, the business was a more varied one than it is at the present day, and included the manufacture of silk goods and a large import and export trade. The Pasha continued his studies by the help of private tutors, and as time went on the ruling instinct made itself felt, and he attained an eminent position among the leading public men of his day. At the time of the Arabi question, the Pasha was one of the representatives of Cairo in the Egyptian Parliament, and he has since sat on many prominent councils, such as the commercial councils, which were in existence before the advent of the Mixed Tribunals and the "Meglis el-Hasbi." He has received many decorations since the day when Ismael Pasha, late Khedive of Egypt, conferred on him and his brother certain honours for help rendered during the Syrian troubles. His Excellency now holds the highest title of Pasha, that of Romally Bei-Lar Bey (granted by the Sultan), and another most prominent post he occupies is that of President of the Guild of Cairo Merchants. The Pasha's mother is a lady of royal birth, a descendant of one of the rulers of Egypt, Radwan Bey Abu el-Shawarib, and his wife is a connection of the famous Bakry family. Of his sons, Youssef, the eldest, is interested in the commercial house, and Abdullatif Bey is an engineer, who, educated at Cooper's Hill, is now employed in the Ministry of Public Works in Cairo. The third son, Mustapha, is still at school. The brother of the Pasha, Ibrahim Bey El-Mouelhy, is a great literary man, and after being secretary to H.H. the late Khedive Ismael, at Naples, occupied a high post on the Board of Education at Constantinople for eight years. Returning to Egypt, he devoted himself to literature and press work, and established a paper, the *Misbah el-Shark*. Like his brother, the Pasha, he has been honoured and decorated both by Sultan and Khedive, and holds the title of Bey (first class). The residence at Marg, near Cairo, is delightfully situated among palms and flowers.

H.E. MUSTAPHA PASHA RIAZ formerly played a remarkable part in the history of the country. The first important post filled by him was that of Governor of Gizeh Province, to which he was appointed in 1873. He then became Minister of Foreign Affairs, and in 1879 he was made President of the Council of Ministers, with the portfolios of the Minister of the Interior and of the Minister of Finance. For his discharge of these functions during the two following years he received many decorations. After a period of retirement he returned to public life in 1888, and by bringing to bear his experience and his great powers of organisation he was able to exert a beneficent influence upon the commerce and finances of the country. It was chiefly owing to him that the old system of forced labour was abolished, and that several taxes unjustly incident on the poorer classes were repealed. He also brought about the reduction of the stamp duties and of the fees on telegrams, &c.; and he was also in part responsible for the extension of railway communication and the establishment of the reformed Courts. After a second interval of retirement he returned to the service of his country as Minister of the Interior, Minister of Public Instruction, and President of the Council of Ministers. Since his final resignation he has lived quietly in private life, devoting himself to the management of his vast agricultural properties. One of his favourite ideals has been the strengthening of the relationship between Egypt and Turkey, to further which he founded several societies, and was the means of raising subscriptions amounting to £60,000 for purposes of recruiting in the Ottoman Empire.

H.E. HUSSEIN PASHA WASSIF, who was Governor-General of the Suez Canal for nine years, devoted both time and means to the promotion of the well-being of his fellow countrymen, and to the improvement of the relationship between Egyptians and foreigners. Not only do all charitable and learned societies receive his cordial support, but he extends his patronage to numerous sporting clubs in the belief that they contribute not a little towards fostering national and international friendliness. He founded the Wassfieh School at Port Said, and is responsible to a great extent for its maintenance. At present he is engaged with some of his friends in forming a society with the object of educating the people in matters of finance, and eventually of establishing a co-operative and financial society. He is also interesting himself in the revival of various ancient national Arabic games. A native of Cairo, His Excellency received the first portion of his education at the local Government Schools, and then undertook a course of study in France, where he gained a diploma as Licencié en Droit. On his return to Egypt, in 1876, he became a substitute at the Mixed Tribunal for five years. For the ensuing two years he was Chief of Parquet at Mansourah, and he was then a substitute in the Alexandria Appeal Court for a similar period, during which he acted as a Public Prosecutor. When the Ministry of Cherif Pasha was formed he was appointed Secretary-General in the Ministry of Justice, with duties corresponding to those of Under Secretary of State, and had a great deal to do with the reorganisation of the Native Courts, which was carried out at that time. In 1884 he was appointed President of the Alexandria Tribunal, and in the following year Adviser to the Court of Appeal. From 1892 to 1895 he was employed as Inspector at the Ministry of the Interior, after which he was promoted to the Mudirship of Minieh and Keneh. Finally, he received his appointment as Governor-General of the Suez Canal, a position which he voluntarily resigned in 1904 in order to attend to private affairs. His Excellency has received many recognitions of his signal services. He is a Grand Officer of the Orders of Mejidieh and Osmanieh, an Officer de la Legion d'Honneur, a Knight of the Grecian Order of the Saviour, a Companion of the Order of the White Elephant, and an Officer of the Order of the Lion and the Sun. He has also several medals. He is now interested in agriculture, and on his wide estates in Upper and Lower Egypt he has built numerous mosques and houses for the benefit of his tenantry.

H.E. ISMAIL PASHA ABAZA, head of the important Abaza family, and leader in the world of Egyptian politics, is the seventh son of the late El Sayed Abaza Pasha. Born in the year 1859 at Bourdeen in the province of Sharkia, where the family estates are situated, he pursued his studies till the age of seventeen with a view of completing his education in Europe. Owing to the death of his father, however, Ismail Pasha was compelled to abandon his studies and take up the care of his inherited property. Devoting part of his time to the practical study of agriculture and part to reading law, he joined the Bar before the local Courts at Zagazig, not with the view of embracing a legal career, but hoping by this method to secure a deeper knowledge of the relationship existing between the fellaheen and the landowner on one side, and the government on the other. While resident in Cairo he published a newspaper entitled *El Ahaly*, which appeared thrice a week and exercised a considerable amount of influence in Egyptian affairs. In 1895 he was selected to represent the Sharkia Province in the Legislative Council, succeeding his brother, the late Ahmed Pasha Abaza. He took an active part in public affairs, attaching himself to the Moderate party, and in 1908 he accompanied a delegation which waited upon Sir Edward Grey, to lay before the British Foreign Minister the views of his party in regard to the reform they deemed necessary for the better administration of the country. During his visit to England he addressed several meetings of Liberal Members of Parliament, and his speeches attracted much attention at the time. He represented the Egyptian Government at the International Agricultural Congress, held in Vienna in 1907. He is vice-president of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and a member of

the committee of the Khedivial Agricultural Society. As a proof that his policy is approved, he has been twice re-elected to the Legislative Council. The title of Mirmiran has been conferred upon him, and he is decorated with the Orders of Mejidieh and Osmanieh, second class.

H.E. ALBERT DANINOS PASHA has devoted a great part of his life to the study of Egyptology, and has written a valuable work entitled "Sepulchral Monuments of Ancient Egypt," besides numerous articles on cognate subjects. Born and educated at Algiers, he proceeded to Paris at the age of twenty and was attached to the Louvre Museum, where he studied arts and monuments. In 1869 he joined Mariette Pasha, the well-known Egyptologist, with whom he spent some years; and in 1894 he was appointed Sub-Director-General of the Daira Sanieh, which position he held until his retirement on pension in 1897. He is a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour and a Grand Officer of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and he has received decorations also from Spain, Portugal and Austria. In his younger days he took part with the Franc-Tireurs in the Franco-German War. Since his retirement he has been appointed Managing-Director of the Société Belge-Egyptienne de l'Ezbekieh. His one son, Adrien, is an agricultural engineer and is studying law.

H.E. SCANDER PASHA FAHMY has taken a prominent part in the development of the Egyptian State Railway, and is now a member of the Supreme Railway Board. He entered the department in 1852, being then only fourteen years of age, as an assistant translator, and to a knowledge of Italian, French, and Arabic, he soon added English. He held various appointments in the traffic department, and as stationmaster and agent, and eventually, in 1876 became traffic manager. In the discharge of his duties he rendered special services to numerous representatives of European Royal houses, and received decorations and honours at their hands, and from the Egyptian Government. In 1899 he was promoted to be Administrator to the Mixed Railway Board. He retired on pension in 1905, owing to changes in the Board; and since 1906 he has been a member of the Supreme Railway Board. His Excellency attended several European Railway Congresses between the years 1885 and 1900, as a representative of the Egyptian Government. A native of Alexandria, Scander Pasha has four sons, two of whom hold high positions in the traffic department, while two are still pursuing their studies in Europe.

H.E. MOHARREM BEY ABU GABAL is a prominent member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and on his estates in Upper Egypt has conducted a number of important experiments which have tended towards the introduction of improved methods of cultivation. He has devoted much time also, to the study of irrigation problems, and has invented an ingenious system of water transport. Born in Cairo in 1859, he studied Arabic, Turkish, Persian, and French, and on leaving school was appointed to a clerkship in the Cabinet of Khedive Tewfik Pasha. On the death of his father in 1882, however, he resigned his post in order to take up the management of the paternal estates, which were situated in the provinces of Dakahlieh, Minieh, Gharbieh, and Assiout. In 1884 he went on a pilgrimage to Hijaz, and whilst the caravan was passing through Wadi Asfan, the pilgrims were stopped by a party of marauders. Moharrem Bey paid the stipulated ransom, and on his return to Egypt was granted a title by the Khedive. He was one of the founders of the Islamic Charitable Society, and he is an honoured official in the Badu-Helouan and other Masonic Lodges. He has four sons and three daughters. His father, the late Ismail Hakki Pasha Abu Gabal, played an important part in the military history of his country; indeed the title "Abu Gabal," which means "Father of Mountaineers," was bestowed upon him quite early in his career, in recognition of his bravery in one of the numerous expeditions in which he was engaged. During the Crimean War he distinguished himself at the head of a Turkish force of 30,000 men, and was personally thanked by the officer commanding the British troops. His military career culminated in his appointment as Commander-in-Chief of the Forces of Khedive Said Pasha, and on his retirement he received gifts of land in lieu of pension, besides many decorations from the Sultan and the Khedive. In a civil capacity he was a member of several provincial and other councils, and held numerous important Government posts, including that of Director-General of the work of constructing the Dairout Bridge.

H.E. ALY PASHA ASSAF, who is a descendant of a very old Turkish family, has recently been appointed Inspector of Wakfs and Schools on the Khedive's properties in Cavalla. Formerly he was in the service of the Government. Leaving school at the age of twenty, he was employed in the Ministry of Finance for seven years, and was then transferred to the Statistical Department for three years. He spent a further term of three years as Administrator for the Ministry of Finance in the Province of Beheireh, and after that held successively the offices of Vice-Governor of Minieh, Assiout, and Cairo, and Governor of Damietta, Kaliubieh, and Sharkia. Before entering upon his present duties he retired for a short time to his estates at Gharbieh. His Excellency, who is a son of the late Bimbashi Hassan Agar, Ghasaky Zada, of Askey, Cavalla, was born in Cairo, and is now in his sixty-ninth year. He has two sons and three daughters. He has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, second class, and holds the diploma of the Khedivial Geographical Society.

H.E. MOHAMED FAIZI PASHA, who has lived in retirement since 1896, was for seven years Director-General of the Wakfs Administration, and President of the "Meglis el Hasbi." Prior to that he held numerous appointments under the Government. At the age of fifteen he entered the Ministry of Finance as a probationer, and a year later he was appointed Turkish interpreter. He was transferred in this capacity to Sharkia Province under the Ministry of the Interior, and was subsequently appointed Sub-District Officer of that Province. He next spent three years in Beni Souef as Turkish interpreter and clerk, and was then employed on the Daira Sanieh of H.H. Khedive Ismael Pasha at Minieh. For a time he discharged the duties of Superintendent and then Sub-Inspector of Fashn Taftish, and at the age of thirty was placed at the head of the Judicial Council at Beni Souef. During the ensuing twenty years or so he held various appointments as Mudir or Vice-Mudir in the provinces of Minieh, Assiout, Keneh, Girgeh, Beheireh, and Gharbieh. Finally, after he had passed the age of fifty, he was given the post of Director-General under the Wakfs Administration and President of the Meglis el Hasbi Council. His Excellency, who is a native of Cairo, was born in 1841. He is a son of the late Aly Bey, who attained the rank of Kaimakam, or Lieutenant-Colonel, in the Egyptian Army. He has four sons, of whom one is a judge, two are agriculturists, and one is in the Wakf Adminstration. The Pasha spends most of his time on his estates at Menufieh, Beni Souef, and Minieh, which came to him partly by inheritance and partly by purchase. He has been decorated with the Orders of the Mejidieh, first class, and the Osmanieh, second class.

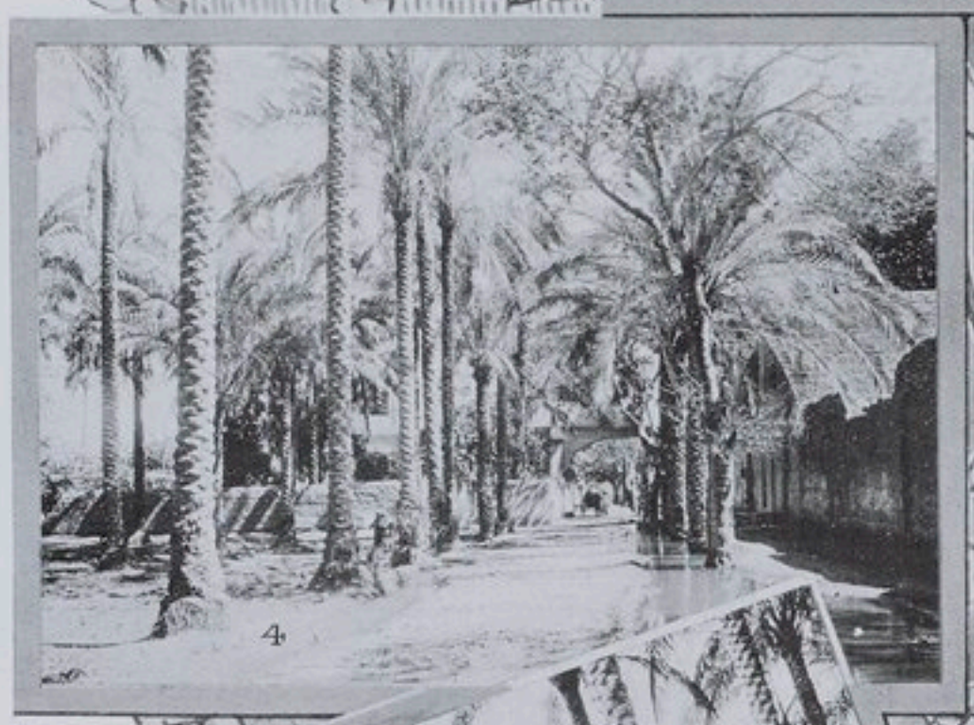
H.E. AHMED FAIK PASHA retired on pension in 1903, after having devoted many years of his life to the service of his country in both military and civil employment. He was educated in the Government Engineering and Military Staff Schools at Cairo, and in his nineteenth year entered the army as lieutenant. For eleven years he held the position of staff officer, and in that capacity was sent on several special missions in the Soudan and elsewhere. He was detailed for building the Assouan and Halfa Railways, and took a part in exploring the Soudan and Darfur lines. He saw field service during the Russo-Turkish War, and received the medal for that campaign. The next few years were spent in police work, first as Inspector of the Alexandria division of police with the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel, and afterwards as Assistant Deputy Inspector-General of Police under the Ministry of the Interior. Finally, he entered the administration service, his first appointment being that of Vice-Mudir of Gharbieh Province, which he held for three years. He was then promoted to be Mudir, and discharged the duties of that office successively at Keneh, Girgeh, Beheireh, Assiout, and Gharbieh. Whilst at Keneh and Girgeh he was instrumental in capturing a horde of brigands who had infested Keneh and the surrounding provinces, and for his services he was decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, third class. He has also received the Order of Mejidieh, fourth class. His Excellency, who is a son of the late De Hassan Effendi el-Hakim, was born at Shoubra, and is now in his fifty-fifth year. He has one son and six daughters. Since his retirement, he has devoted himself to agriculture on his estates at Dakahlieh and Gharbieh Provinces. He takes a great interest in political matters, and for some time was vice-president of the Cairo Nationalist Association.

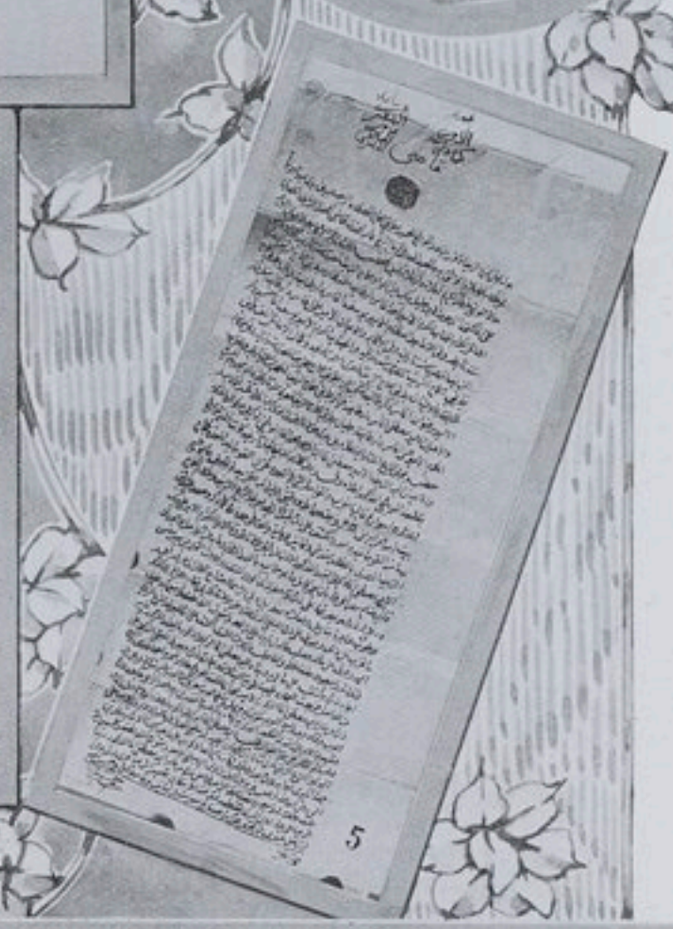
H.E. MOHAMED PASHA NESSIM had a distinguished military career before he retired on pension in 1898 to devote himself to the peaceful pursuit of agriculture. Born in 1845, he entered the Military School at Alexandria when only ten years of age, and in 1861 passed with the rank of second-lieutenant into the Horse Artillery in the Khedivial Guards. Upon attaining the rank of captain in 1865, he was transferred to the 2nd Regiment of Artillery; but returned to the Khedivial Artillery Guard two years later. When the Abyssinian war broke out in 1875 he had attained his majority, and was appointed A.D.C. to the Sirdar, Mohamed Ratib Pasha, distinguishing himself in the military operations and the administrative work that followed. He was promoted bimbashi in recognition of his services. In 1876, when Prince Hussan Pasha took an Egyptian division to Turkey to aid that country in the war against Russia, Bimbashi Mohamed Nessim served with distinction, and received the order of the Mejidieh, fourth class. Upon















ABDEL SALAM EL MOUELHY PASHA.

1. Youssef Bey, Eldest Son. 2. Abdel Salam El Mouelhy Pasha. 3. Abdullatiff Bey, Second Son. 4. Entrance to the Residence.
5. The Document referring to the Fort in Arabia, dated the Hegiric equivalent of 1767 A.D. 6. Water mill on the Estate. 7. The Garden.











1. MOHARRAM BEY ABOU GABAL. 2. THE RESIDENCE AT DARB-EL-HAGAR. 3. ISMAIL BEY, ACHMED BEY AND MUSTAPHA BEY. (the three sons of Moharrem Bey Abou Gabal.)
4. DECORATIONS CONFERRED ON THE FATHER OF MOHARREM BEY ABOU GABAL.
5. WATER TRANSPORTER INVENTED BY MOHARREM BEY ABOU GABAL.

his return to Egypt he was sent on a special mission to Europe, and then joined the staff of General Stone. In 1879 he became lieutenant-colonel in the Artillery, and was serving in the Guards when the Arabi revolution broke out. He was transferred to Alexandria to the 1st Regiment of Garrison Artillery; but being dissatisfied with the situation that had been created, he forsook the rebel force and remained loyal to the Khedive. As a reward he received a staff appointment, serving as first Assistant-Adjutant-General in the Recruiting Department, and coming under the notice of General Sir Evelyn Wood, Sirdar of the Egyptian Army. His Excellency served in the Nile Expedition, and resumed his post at the Ministry of War upon his return to Cairo.

secretary to the late Nubar Pasha, then Minister of Foreign Affairs. From 1891 onwards he held successively the appointments of Vice-Governor of the Provinces of Menufieh and Minieh, and of the Suez Canal at Port Said, and those of Governor of Fayoum, Minieh, Sharkia, Dakahlieh, and Gharbieh Provinces. For three years he was Governor of Cairo, and in 1906 he was appointed Director-General of the Wakfs Department, a position he held for a few years. His Excellency has been decorated with the Orders of Mejidieh, Osmanieh, and the Crown of Persia, in recognition of his services to the country. Benevolent in private life, he is a member of several Islamic charitable societies. He is fond of shooting and riding, and has travelled considerably.

Educated privately and at Al Azhar University, he was, at the age of twenty, made Mayor of Abu Tig, his native town, and was subsequently appointed, under the Ministry of the Interior, to the position of district officer of that town and of Dewere, with unlimited authority. Later he became a Vice-Mudir, and served in that capacity for several years in the provinces of Girgeh and Assiout alternately. Leaving Government service, he retired to his own estates for three years. He then accepted a seat on the Constitution, but a year later, during the revolt of Arabi Pasha, he again withdrew into private life. Thirteen years ago, however, he became as already stated, a member of the Egyptian Legislative Council. His Excellency takes a practical interest in the affairs of his



LEADING RESIDENTS OF CAIRO.

1. H.E. Aly Pasha Assaf. 2. H.E. Albert Daninos Pasha. 3. H.E. Mohamed Faizi Pasha. 4. H.E. Mahmoud Pasha Khalil.
5. H.E. Hussein Pasha Wassif. 6. H.E. Ismail Pasha Abaza. 7. Mohamed Bey Farid, President of the Nationalist Party.
8. H.E. Ahmed Faik Pasha. 9. Sir Joseph Saba Pasha, K.C.M.G. 10. H.E. Mohamed Pasha Nessim.

H.E. ADLI PASHA YEGHEN is now enjoying well-earned retirement from a long and distinguished career in the public service. Formerly he took a prominent part in provincial administration, and in several towns and villages throughout the country his name has been given to various streets and thoroughfares in testimony of his importance. He founded the Municipality of Mansourah, and it was he who took the initiative in the matter of providing a public garden at Zagazig. A son of the late Khalil Pasha Yeghen, a former Under Secretary of State, he was born at Cairo in 1864, and after receiving a general education he joined the Ministry of the Interior, where he remained three years. In 1885 he became private

having in his younger days spent four years in Constantinople.

H.E. MAHMOUD PASHA SOLIMAN has been a member of the Egyptian Legislative Council for the past thirteen years, during eight of which he has held the position of Vice-President of the Native and General Assemblies. He owns considerable properties at Assiout and Girgeh, having inherited the estates of his father, the late Soliman Bey Abdul Ali, a former Governor of Girgeh and Keneh. He now devotes himself, apart from his duties as a councillor, entirely to agricultural pursuits, grain forming the staple of his produce; but in earlier life he was for many years engaged in Government service.

native town, and has established there a School of Arts, where about a hundred pupils are given instruction in joinery, inlay work, weaving, and blacksmithing. In recognition of his services he has received the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, second class, and the title of Romalli Berlahbey. He is sixty-eight years of age, and has four sons, of whom the eldest is managing his own property, the second is governor of the Fayoum, the third is studying agriculture, and the fourth is at school.

YOUSSOUF SADDIK BEY, now about to open business in Constantinople as a financial expert and land agent, was formerly a judge of the Mixed Tribunal at Mansourah. Born

at Cairo in 1869, he was educated at the Khedivial School, and afterwards at Geneva, Montpellier, and Paris, graduating in law at the age of twenty-one. On his return to Egypt, he was appointed a substitute judge at Alexandria and Benha, and was next transferred to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs as Secrétaire Particulaire. Finally, he was appointed to a judgeship at Mansourah, and since his retirement he has carried on business on his own account. He was one of the founders of the Islamic Charitable Society and of the Egyptian University. Created a Commander of the Order of Mejidieh, he is a Bey of the Sanieh degree. His father, the late Ismail Pasha Saddik, surnamed "El-Moufflatish," was for seventeen years in the Ministry of Finance.

ABD EL-RAHMAN FAHMY BEY, the well-known and popular Mudir of Gizeh, devoted the opening years of his career to the military service of his country. Born in Cairo in 1871, he passed through the military schools, and, obtaining a commission as second lieutenant, was drafted to the artillery. He spent six years in the army and was present at the battles of Enebeh and Toski, receiving an ugly wound from a Dervish spear in the former engagement. For two years he was in the bodyguard of H.H. the Khedive ; and then, for a similar term, held the appointment of A.D.C. to the Minister of War. He retired in 1896 with the rank of captain, and accepted service under the Ministry of the Interior as District Officer, being gradually promoted until he occupied the post of Mudir of Beni Souef, from which position he was transferred later to the office which he now occupies. He has several decorations from Norway, Sweden, and Great Britain, as well as the Order of Mejidieh and the Ottoman D.S.O. Abdel-Rahman Fahmy Bey has travelled extensively in Europe, and is an enthusiastic sportsman. An interesting document treasured by him is a personally written certificate from the late Sirdar, Lord Kitchener, testifying to his prowess on horseback.

H. E. MOHAMMED CHIREI PASHA, a member of one of the oldest and most renowned families in Egypt, is a strong supporter of the anti-Nationalist movement, and, with H.E. Ismail Pasha Abaza and others, has been associated in the formation of a society having for its objects the improvement of the country and the removal of misunderstandings between natives of the country and the British Government. In furtherance of this cause he and his friends paid a visit to England last year, and were entertained by Sir Edward Grey, Mr. Robertson, M.P., and other gentlemen, who showed the greatest interest in their mission. His Excellency is a son of the late Ibrahim Pasha el-Chirei, of Samalut, in the province of Minieh, and when only seventeen years of age he was appointed Omdeh of his native town, a position he occupied for eighteen years. In 1902 he was given a seat on the General Assembly, and subsequently he was made a member of the Provincial Council for Minieh Province. Apart from his official duties, his interests have been chiefly agricultural, for on his father's death he succeeded to extensive lands, which had been in the possession of the family for generations, at Samalut and in the neighbourhood. He raises most of the crops for which the soil and climatic conditions in that region are suitable. He speaks French, Turkish, and Arabic fluently, and has travelled considerably. At present he is engaged in writing some of his experiences, which he hopes to publish in book form. He has a fondness for horses, and his name is not unknown in racing circles. He has three sons, of whom the eldest is five years of age.

NACHID BEY HANNA has extensive estates in the province of Minieh, and there gratifies his love for all kinds of agriculture. He is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and has done much to further its usefulness. He is a son of the late Hanna Effendi Atanasios, and was born at Ashrouba, in the province of Minieh, in 1872. He was educated privately and at the College des Frères, Cairo, and at the age of fourteen left school to join his father. Four years later he was appointed Omdeh of his native village, and he occupied that position for fifteen years, being then succeeded by Fouzy Bey, the elder of his two sons. At the beginning of 1908 Nachid Bey was elected member of the General Assembly for his province, and in July of the same year he made a voyage to England with the deputation to Sir Edward Grey. He is a member of the Coptic Religious Society of Magaga.

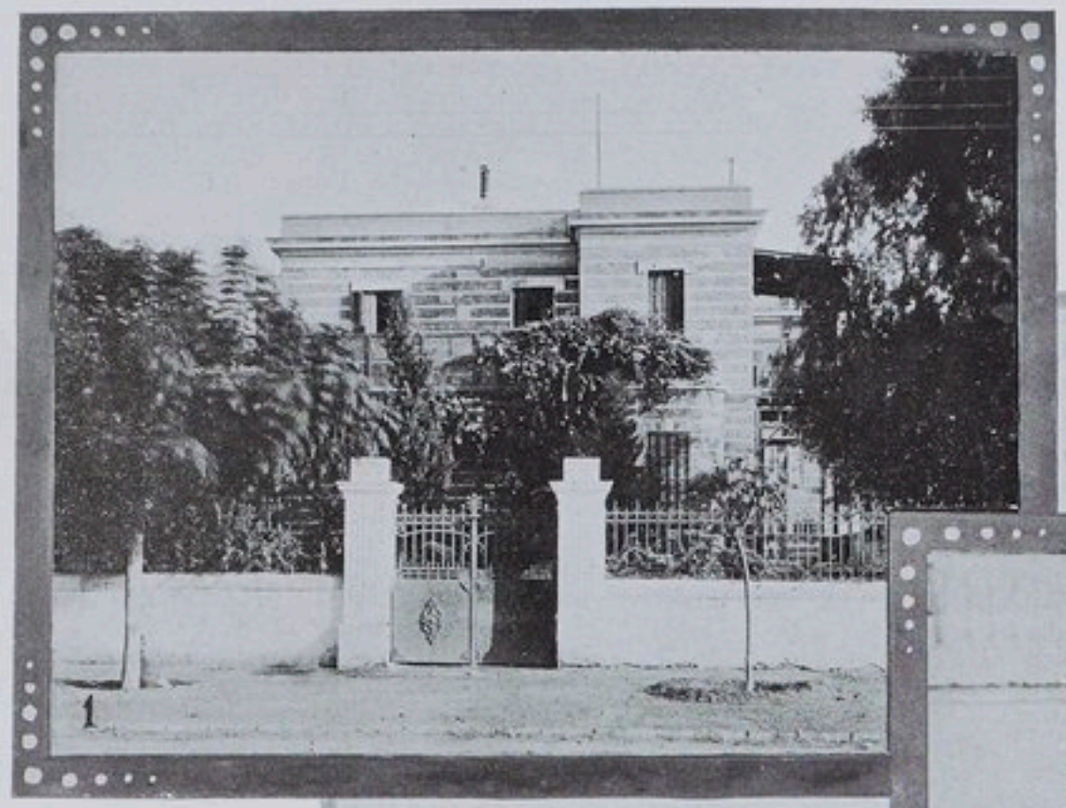
HASSAN BEY BAKRY, who since 1905 has represented Keneh on the Legislative Council, began life in the service of his grandfather, who owned a factory in that province. In 1884 he went to the Soudan and, in partnership with a friend, traded as an army contractor and provider during the time of the expedition under Hicks Pasha. In 1887 he started business on his own account in Cairo, and has since been entrusted with numerous general contracts for the Irrigation Department, for the Egyptian State Railway Administration, and for various European firms. Among the works which he has executed may be mentioned a railway bridge at Dabba, Keneh, which he completed in record time ; two bridges at Fadilieh, near Luxor ; and the dredging of the Tukh Canal. Quite recently he was engaged in raising a considerable area of land on the bank of the Nile at Gizeh, but the work was stopped owing to the fall in the value of building sites. Born at Keneh in 1871, Hassan Bey Bakry was educated at Al Azhar University. He has received decorations from the Khedive, from the Sultan, and from the Persian Government.

H.E. MOUSSA GHALEB PASHA is one of the members appointed by the Government to the Legislative Council. He spent many years in the service of the Irrigation Department, his work culminating in the planning and carrying out of an important scheme of irrigation and drainage improvements at Wadi Tomilat, which occupied seven years. Educated at the Cairo Polytechnic, he was given an appointment at the age of twenty as engineer under the Inspector-General of Irrigation in Upper Egypt. Two years later he was transferred to Beheireh Province, where for a year he served as engineer in charge of an irrigation section. He was engaged next in a similar capacity on various canal works for two years, and was afterwards for three years first assistant engineer of what is now known as the Third Irrigation Circle. He was then promoted to be chief engineer, and in that capacity spent six years in Fayoum, five in Gizeh, and two in Gharbieh. For the following five years he was employed as sub-inspector of the First Circle, comprising Sharkia, Dakahlieh, and Kaliubieh Provinces. His last appointment was that of director of Wadi Tomilat Estate. During his long period of service he furnished numerous useful reports, among which may be mentioned a valuable treatise in 1892 on the regimen of the Nile after the construction of the Assouan Reservoir and the conversion into perennial irrigation of the Upper and Middle Egypt basins. He retired on pension two years ago, and has been occupied since in the cultivation of his estates at Fayoum. The Pasha is a son of Moussa Agha, an Albanian who came to Egypt as an agriculturist in the time of Khedive Mohamed Ali. He was born at Danasour, in Menufieh Province, and is now in his fiftieth year. He has one son, who is a judge in one of the provincial courts, and one daughter.

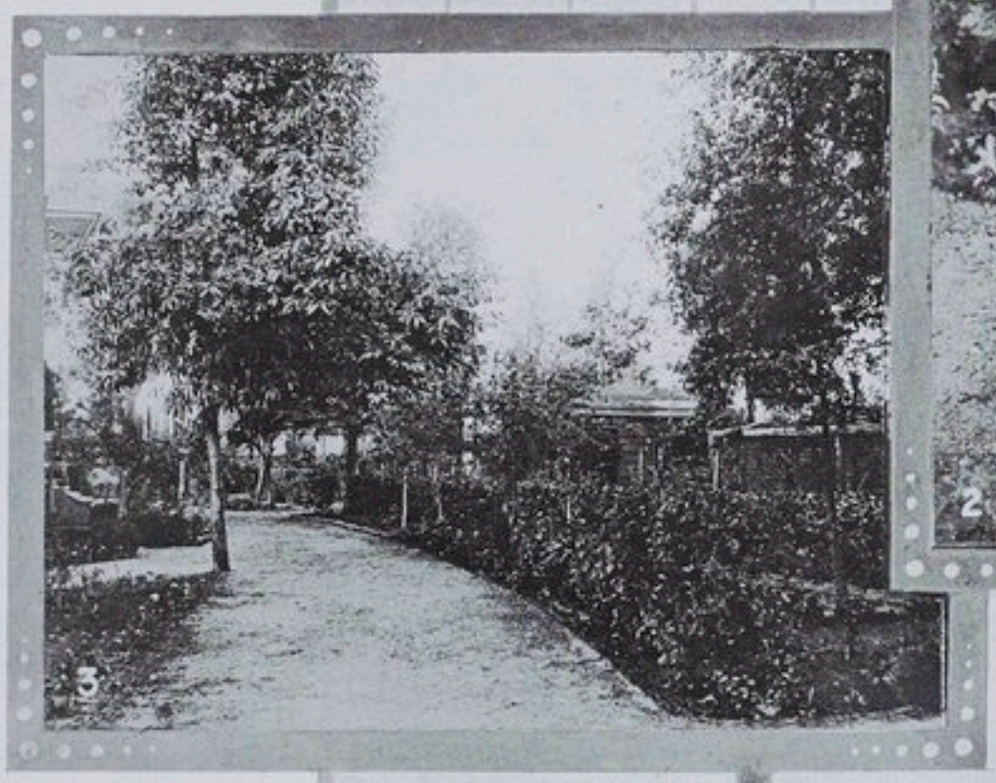
MOHAMMED BEY WAHID traces his family descent from the Grand Saladin Akbar. His father, the late Ismail Bey Tewfik, was a well-known agriculturist, and obtained the civil title of colonel. Born at Cairo in 1872, Mohammed Bey was educated at a private French school and at the Normal College, Cairo, and partly by private tutors. He acquired a fluent knowledge of French, Turkish, and Arabic, and also studied law, his ambition being to become a philosopher and man of letters. His parents had no desire that he should enter Government service, and on completing his education he therefore devoted himself to the care of his father's estates, in the province of Menufieh, to which he has since succeeded. He is married, and has two sons and two daughters. He is greatly interested in the affairs of his country, and is the proprietor of a paper known as *El-Ahrar*, or "The Liberals." He has been created a Chevalier of the Legion d'Honneur.

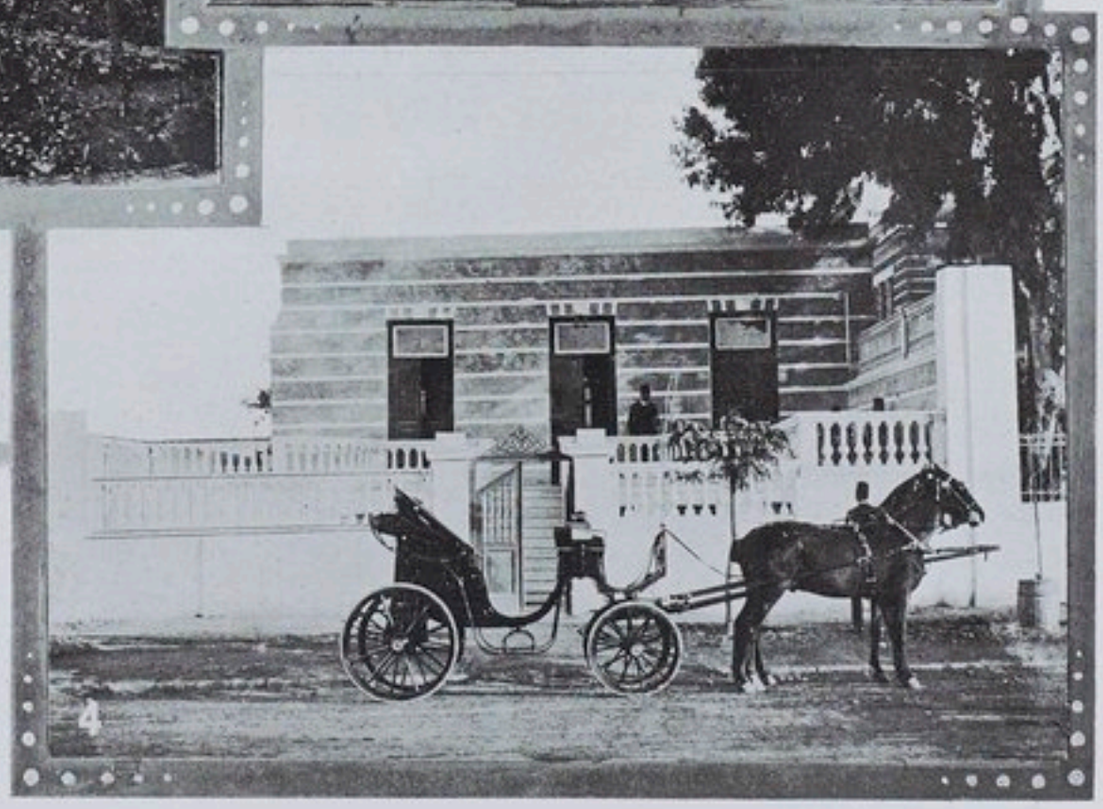
MOHAMED BEY ABOU 'L' SÉOUD was for many years in the Government service. He passed through a five years' course at the Polytechnic School, Saidieh, Barrage, and qualified as an engineer. Two years after entering the Public Works Department he was appointed assistant inspector of Bahr-el-Shark, which comprises the five eastern provinces of Lower Egypt. He filled that position for six years, during which time he superintended the cutting of various sections of the Ismailia Canal, and the construction of its head sluices lying near Kasr-el-Nil Barracks. For the next six years he was assistant inspector-general of irrigation in Upper Egypt, and superintended the building of the big bridge at Dairub and the cutting of the Ibrahimieh Canal. Subsequently he was chief engineer of the canal for six years. His last appointment was that of inspector of the Fifth Circle of Irrigation, comprising the provinces of Girgeh, Keneh, and Esneh. This he held for thirteen years, during which he undertook the cutting of many canals and the building of regulators, syphons, and other irrigation works. Then, finding that his health was giving way, he retired on pension. Mohamed Bey Abou 'l' Séoud, who is now sixty-four years of age, is a native of Assiout, the owner of land in that province and in the neighbouring province of Minieh. He is a Bey of the first class (Motamaiz) and has the Order of Mejidieh, third class. Of his two sons, one is a doctor and the other a judge.

HASSAN BEY KHAÏRY, qui est actuellement très acharné dans ses prospères recherches agricoles dans les Provinces de Gharbieh et de Gizeh, débuta dans sa carrière auprès du Gouvernement comme Inspecteur au Ministère des Finances après avoir fait valoir qu'il était licencié en droit, à l'Ecole de Droit au Gouvernement du Caire. Il appartient à une très ancienne famille turque. Son père, le

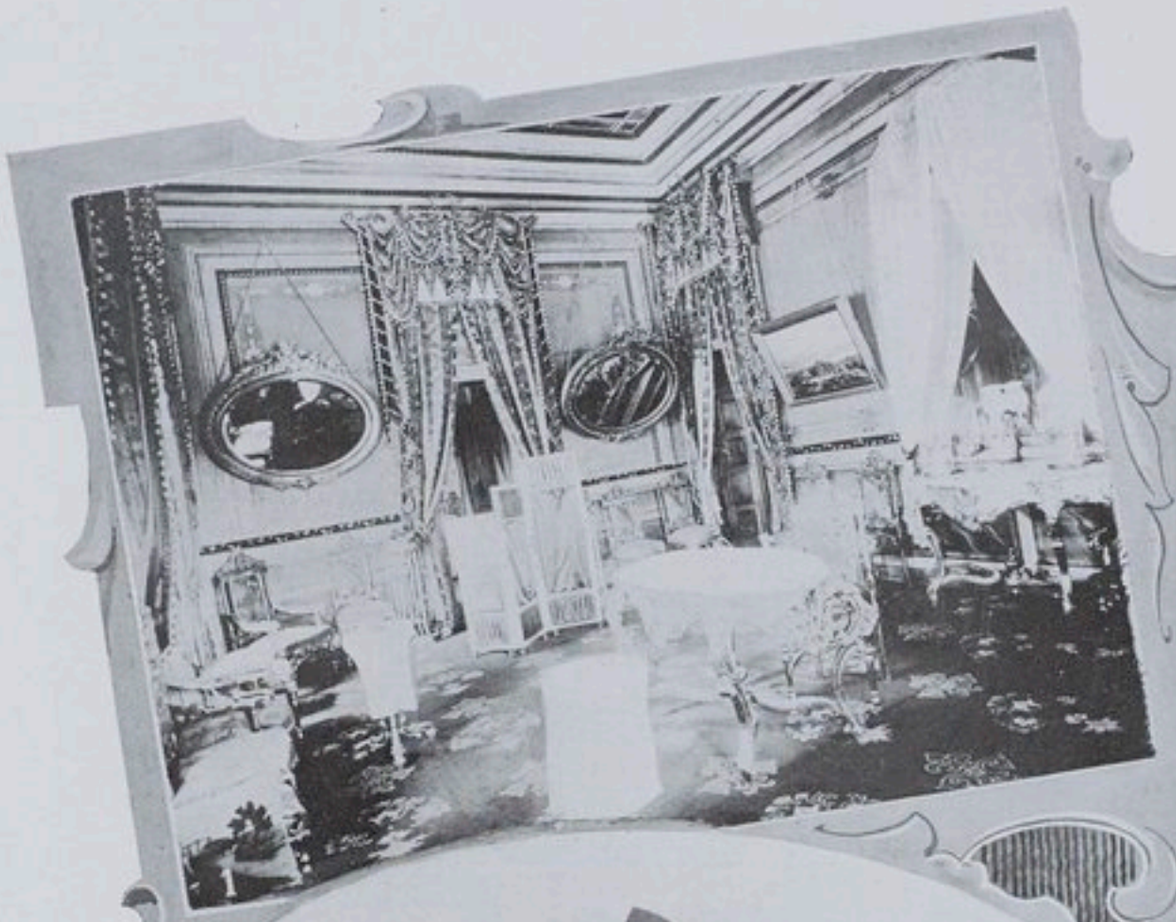




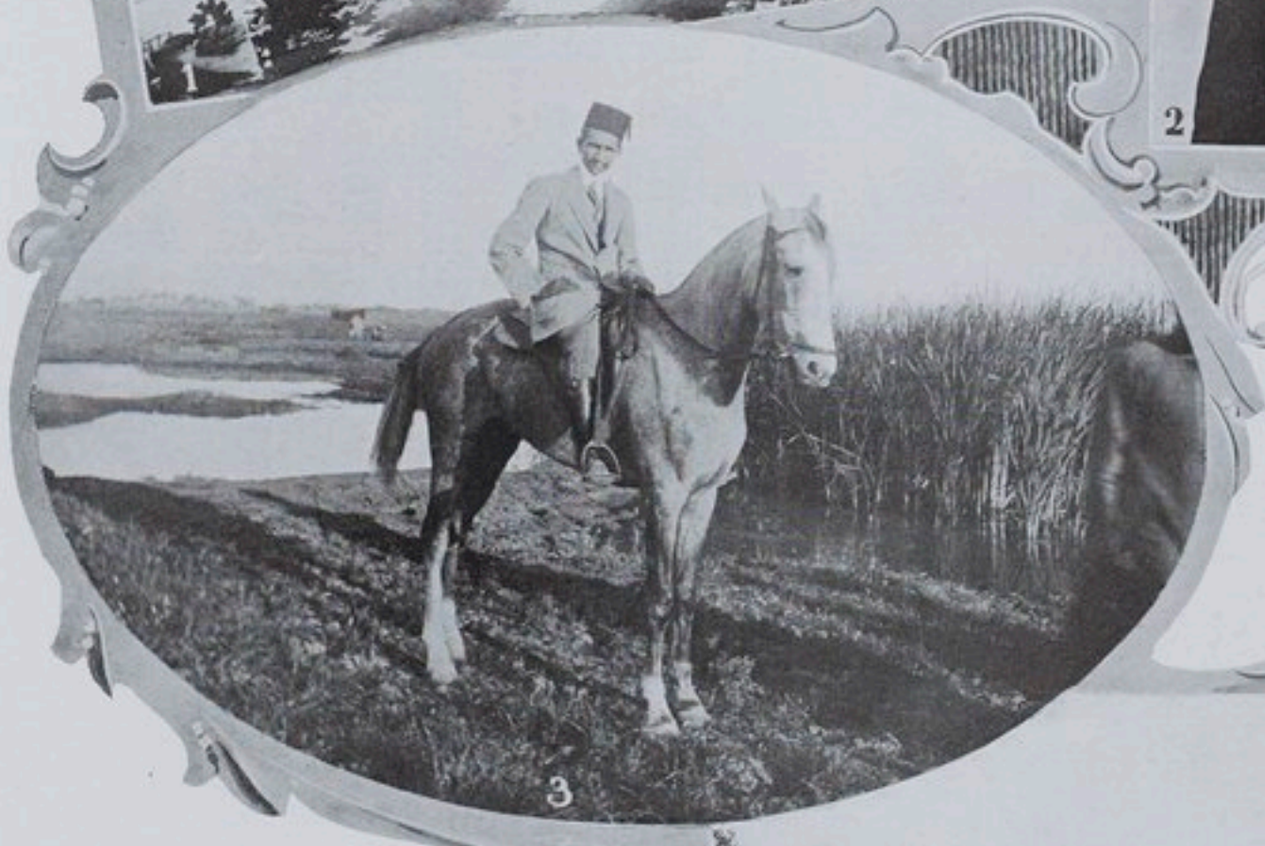




HIS EXCELLENCY MOHAMMED CHIREI PASHA, FAMILY AND RESIDENCE AT ZEITOUN, NEAR CAIRO.









1 and 4. VIEWS OF NACHID BEY HANNA'S COUNTRY RESIDENCE. 2. NACHID BEY HANNA.
3. FAOUZY EFFENDI, SON OF NACHID BEY HANNA.

défunt Achmed Khaïry Pacha fut à une époque Directeur Général du Cabinet Khédivial, et obtint aussi la situation de Ministre de l'Intérieur et Ministre de l'Instruction Publique sous le Khédive Tewfick Pacha. Hassan Bey a énormément voyagé 'en Europe où il acquit le goût de la musique et de la peinture.

MOHAMED ABDOH EL-BABLI BEY was for some years a lieutenant in the Cairo Police Force, and was then employed as a departmental secretary in the Ministry of Finance. He resigned in 1902, and on his father's death shortly afterwards he assumed the management of the family estates in Cairo and in the province of Gharbieh. Mohamed Bey, who is in his thirty-sixth year, was born in Cairo and educated at the Government School. He has travelled much, and has many friends in England, including Mr. Robertson, M.P. A member of the Nationalist party, he has devoted much time to literary work of a political nature, and was formerly editor-director of *The Pupil*. His father, the late Abdoh Bey el-Babli, was jeweller by appointment to Khedive Ismael Pasha.

H.E. MOHAMED BAHNAS PASHA has made a careful study of local conditions on his estates at Fayoum and Beni Souef, and has thus been able to render service to the cause of agriculture in Egypt. He inherited the Fayoum properties in 1878 from his father, the late Bahnas Ali Effendi, formerly a sub-inspector of the Upper Egypt Engineering circle, but the remaining lands, which are of much greater extent, he has acquired by degrees since his father's death. He received a decoration in recognition of his allegiance to Khedive Tewfik Pasha, and has also had the Order of the Mejidieh conferred upon him. He was granted the rank of Mirmiran by the present Khedive. His Excellency, who is in his fifty-sixth year, has one son, Said Bey Bahnas, who is also an agriculturist, and two daughters.

MOHAMMED BEY ABDUL MAGUID, a retired Government servant, is a son of the late Ismail Pasha Mohammed, who was at one time President of the Legislative Council. At the age of eighteen, after a course at the Cairo Polytechnic School, he was employed as an engineer in connection with the building of the bridge at Beba, in the province of Beni Souef. He was next engaged on the engineering section of the Ibrahimieh Canal under the Irrigation Department of the P.W.D., and a year later was detailed for inspection work in Upper Egypt. Returning to Cairo he was for a time building engineer for the districts of Khalifah and Fum el Khalig; he was then appointed engineer to the palace of the Khedive, and finally returned to the P.W.D. Eventually he resigned in order to assume the management of his estates in the provinces of Sharkia and Menufieh, and has since devoted himself to agriculture, growing cotton and grains. He is now in his fiftieth year, and has two sons, both of whom are still at school.

MARIUS SCHEMEIL BEY, founder of the firm of Messrs. M. Schemeil & Co., is the son of the late Emin Schemeil, who was one of the most prominent figures in professional and business circles in Cairo twenty years ago. A man of strong character, liberally endowed with intellectual gifts, Emin Schemeil had an interesting career. He started business as a cotton merchant, and, until 1884, was a member of the Liverpool firm of Schemeil Bros. After the troubles created by Arabi Pasha, he abandoned his commercial pursuits, and, coming to Egypt, started to practise as a barrister. His first appearance in the Law Courts was at the age of fifty-nine, and as he was one of the most distinguished Arabic writers in historical, legal, and philosophical subjects, he soon made his mark. When, subsequently, the regulation was made requiring all barristers to pass a qualifying examination, his abilities were so generally recognised that not only was he exempted, but he was actually called into consultation with the examiners. It was his suggestion to the Khedive Ismael which led to the establishment of the Crédit Foncier Egyptien, now a flourishing bank. Although the Government on several occasions offered



PROMINENT CAIRO RESIDENTS.

1. Roustam Bey Zaky. 2. Saleh Bey Ali el Seilehdar. 3. Hassan Bey Bakry. 4. H.E. Moussa Ghaleb Pasha. 5. Mohamed Bey Hassib. 6. Amin Effendi Mirshak. 7. Ahmed Kamal Bey. 8. Neghib Al-Bustany. 9. Mohamed Bey Abou 'l' Seoud. 10. H.E. The Late Achmed Pasha Khaïry. 11. Hamad Bey El Bassel. 12. Mohammed Bey Zulfikar. 13. Hamza Bey Fahmy. 14. H.E. Youssef Pasha Messara. 15. H.E. Mohamed Bahnas Pasha. 16. Mohammed Bey Abdul Maguid. 17. Omar Samy. 18. Achmed Bey Omar. 19. Girgis Nachaty Bey. 20. Scander Morcos Louca. 21. Omar Sallam. 22. The Late Emin Schemeil. 23. Nouredhine Bey Mustapha. 24. El Sayed Mittoilly.

him decorations as rewards for services rendered, he always steadfastly declined these honours. In 1885 Mr. Schemeil established the paper *El Hocone*, and was actually engaged in penning an editorial article for it when death suddenly overtook him. This was in 1897. Marius Schemeil was born in Liverpool in 1868, and was educated at the Jesuits' College in Beyrouth. He came to Egypt in 1885, and decided to enter the legal profession, but, after qualifying, he altered his mind and remained in the State Railways Department as private secretary to H.E. Boghos Pasha Nubar. He was appointed Inspector of Accounts in 1896, and was subsequently promoted Deputy-Director of Accounts, a position which he occupied until he resigned the Government service in 1907. Previous to starting in business for himself, Mr. Schemeil was for a short while the manager of the Egypt and Soudan Projects Corporation. The title of Bey was conferred upon him by the Government in recognition of the valuable work which he accomplished whilst in its employment.

MOHAMMED BEY ABOU HUSSEIN has a large private business as a Government and general contractor and is managing director of the Syndicat el Mahroussa, a land company which he formed in conjunction with several British financiers in 1905. His success has been entirely due to his own unaided efforts. At the age of seventeen, he borrowed from his father capital with which to open a small shop. This did not long content him, and about a year and a half later he decided to attempt the larger business of contracting. His advance in this new direction was rapid, for, having satisfactorily executed two contracts, valued respectively at £E24 and £E145, for the Egyptian Government in 1883, he was entrusted with a third valued at £E5,000. For this and other work which he carried out he received in 1887 a certificate from the Irrigation Department. In 1895 he was engaged in building bridges and cutting canals on estates belonging to the Khedive, and in 1898 he was granted the rank of Bey in recognition of the excellence of his work. His last Government contract was in 1906, when he was entrusted with irrigation work estimated to cost £E43,000. Since 1899 he has resided in Cairo, and, having acquired a considerable knowledge of architecture, he has of late years added to his other interests by purchasing land and building upon it. Many houses in the city owe their origin to his enterprise. At present he is building from his own designs a residence for his own use, but he still retains his house and estates in Kanatir-el-Khairieh, near the Delta Barrage, where he was born in 1864.

H.E. YOUSSEF PASHA MESSARRA was employed in the Egyptian State Railways Department for twenty-four years, and prior to his retirement in 1907 had attained the position of Secretary to the Railway Board. He was born in Cairo in 1852, and was educated at the Collège des Frères. At the age of nineteen he joined Tod, Rathbone & Co., Manchester piece-goods merchants, with whom he remained for nine years. He then accepted a post in the State Domains Department, and five years later joined the Railway Department as secretary to the native director. His Excellency knows, besides the Arabic language, English, French, German, Greek, Italian, and Latin. He has always taken a great interest in educational matters, and has written a book on the subject, though he has not yet published it. For some years before his retirement he was president of the committee for the examination of candidates for employment on the railway. His father, the late Count Hanna Messarra, of Lateranus, was first interpreter to Her Britannic Majesty's Agency and Consulate-General in Cairo for forty-five years, and on various occasions acted as Consul-General. On his death he was succeeded by his eldest son, the appointment being made by General Stanton, at that time Agent and Consul-General, by direction of Lord Derby, then Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. His Excellency has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, fourth class, and Mejidieh, third class; and was made a Pasha at the beginning of 1909. The Messarra family originally came from Aleppo, capital of the Vilayet of the same name, some three hundred years ago, and is probably the most ancient Syrian family in Egypt. They still possess the house that was built in Old Cairo by their ancestor, who preferred the style of residence to which he had been accustomed in his own country to that which was common in Cairo at that day.

OMAR SAMY, a son of Ali Bey Rida el Arnaouti, is a member of one of the oldest Albanian families. He was born in Cairo in 1881, and was educated at the Tewfikieh School and at the Khedivial School. Unfortunately, at the age of nineteen he was forced to abandon his regular studies owing to ill-health, after taking his primary certificate. He has travelled considerably in Europe, and has devoted his time to private study of the classics. In 1908 he married Princess Zeinab Hanem, a daughter of Prince Hussein Bey Kamel and a grand-daughter of Mohamed Ali el Saghir. He is well known for his charitable disposition, and exercises his benevolence without respect either to class or creed.

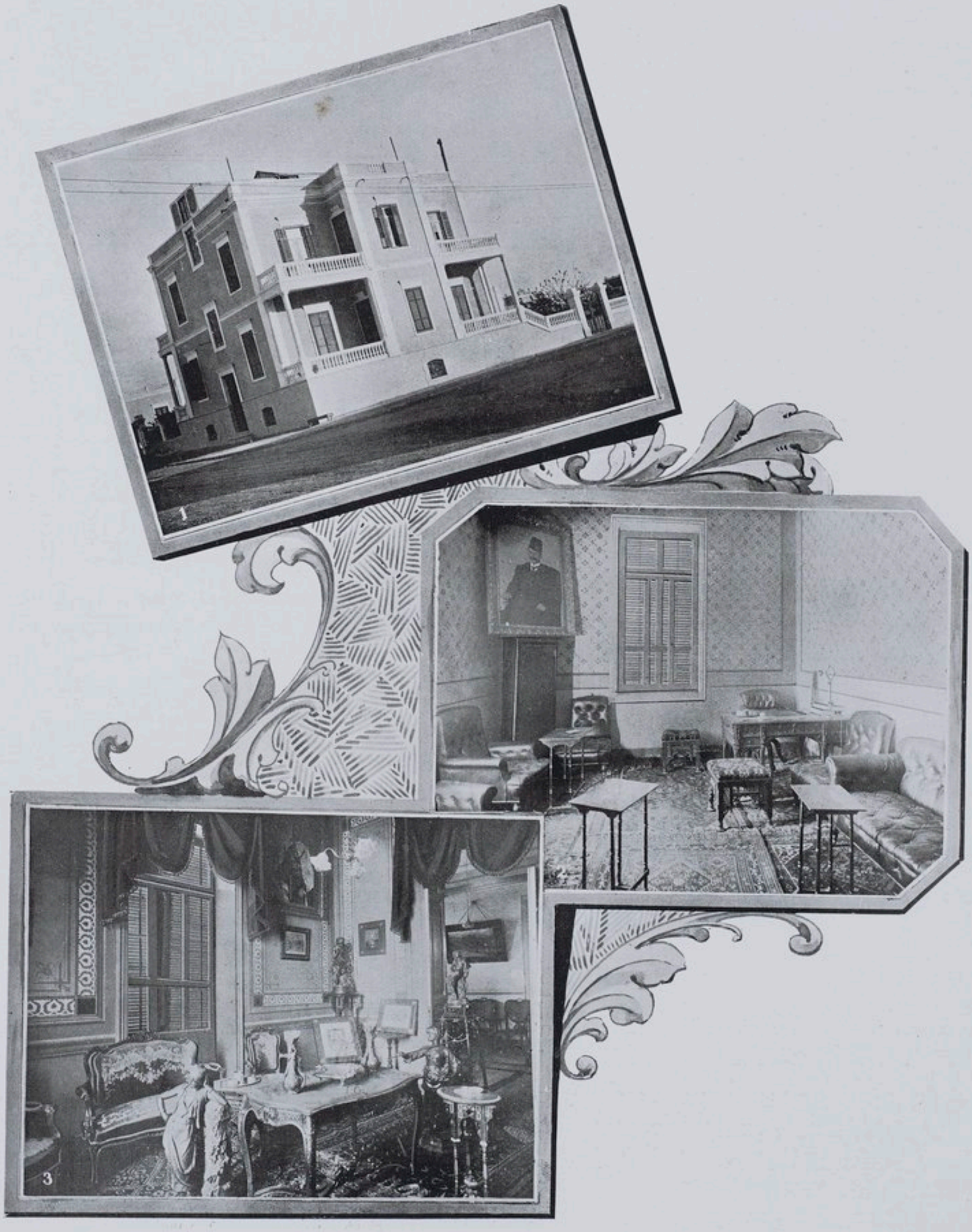
HAMAD BEY EL BASSEL, the chief of the Bedouins in the Fayoum district, is a member of one of the oldest and best known families in the Fayoum. The possessor of great natural ability, he has broadened his outlook upon life by much travel. In every large European centre which he has visited he has studied carefully, not only the administrative methods of the various departments of the public service, but also the manner in which the large private industrial and commercial enterprises are conducted. The knowledge so gained has been of inestimable value, and in those districts in which his influence is paramount, the beneficial results arising from the adoption of progressive methods of administration are especially noticeable. Apart from his position as the chief of an important tribe, the high reputation he has gained ensures for his opinions respectful consideration from the high officials of the State, with whom he is on terms of the greatest friendship. The Bey was born in the village of Kafr el-Sheikh, and now lives at Kasr-el-Bassel, Fayoum. He is the owner of some 7,000 acres of land in Upper Egypt, the greater portion of which is under cultivation for cotton. He has one son and three daughters.

NEGHIB AL-BUSTANY, following in the footsteps of his father and his elder brother, has devoted himself to a literary career. The names of the family will be most intimately associated with the production of the "Dairet-el-Maaref," an illustrated Arabic encyclopædia. This great work was begun in 1875 by Boustros Al-Bustany, one of the most learned authors Syria has ever produced. In 1883, having just given the seventh volume to the press, he died, leaving the completion of the work to his sons, Selim and Neghib. Selim, who survived his father by scarcely a year, lived to see the seventh volume published and to write the eighth, with the aid of Neghib. The final volumes of the encyclopædia were the work of Neghib, his brother Nassil, and their most learned cousin, Suleiman, now a member of the Turkish Parliament. Though perhaps his chief work, the encyclopædia, was not the only production undertaken by Boustros Al-Bustany. Beginning life as a teacher in the Syrian College of Ain Waraka, he soon found the necessity for a new mathematic text in Arabic, and in 1846 he compiled the "Kashef el-Higab." He became acquainted with the work of the American Mission, and, in collaboration with Dr. Cornelius Van Dyke, undertook, in the mission's behalf, the translation of the Old Testament. In 1869, he published a reliable Arabic dictionary, "Muhit El-Muhit," in two volumes; two Arabic grammars; a history of Mount Lebanon; and several literary works of minor importance; and undertook the editorship of two influential periodicals, *El-Genan* and *El-Genna*. This latter work, however, made too great a demand on his time, and eventually it devolved upon his eldest son. He also founded the National Institution, from whence issued numbers of men whose influence did much to achieve the moral and intellectual renaissance of the country. Selim, in addition to his work on the encyclopædia, gained considerable repute as a political and economical writer. He also wrote several novels and plays, and published a "Modern History" of France. Neghib, who was born at Beyrouth in 1862, joined his father when the latter was commencing the sixth volume of the encyclopædia, and among other contributions furnished an article on Russia, in consideration of which he was decorated by the Czar with the Order of St. Stanislaus, third class. He succeeded his brother as editor of the two newspapers already mentioned, and continued them until they were suspended by order of the Turkish Government at the time of the rigid press censorship in 1886. He then studied law, and after practising for several years he was, in 1895, appointed a judge assessor in the Beyrouth Criminal Court. In the following year he became President of the Civil Court in the province of El-Meten, Mount Lebanon; and, in 1901, Attorney-General to the Mount Lebanon Government. In 1905 he came to Egypt, having accepted the position of legal adviser to the Egyptian Enterprise and Development Company, and the Gharbieh Land Company. He has continued his literary work, contributing articles to *El-Ahram*, *Monayad*, and other local papers, and publishing, with his brother Nassil and their cousin Suleiman, the tenth and eleventh volumes of the encyclopædia. He has received the title of Bey; he has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, third class, and Mejidieh, fourth class; and at the hands of the Pope he has been decorated with the Order of St. Gregory the Great, third class. Married in 1891, he has four sons and one daughter.

NOUREDHINE BEY MUSTAPHA, who has gained considerable distinction in the world of letters during recent years as the editor and translator of many well-known publications, was born in Macedonia twenty-seven years ago. His early education was obtained in his own country. Later on he joined the Imperial School of Law at Constantinople. Here he distinguished himself in various



1. COPTIC CHURCH FOUNDED BY NACHID BEY HANNA'S RELATIVES.
2. SCHOOL FOUNDED BY NACHID BEY HANNA. 3, 4 and 5. VIEWS ON NACHID BEY HANNA'S ESTATES.



MOHAMMED BEY WAHID.

1. The Residence at Helouan.
2. The Reception Room.
3. The Drawing Room.

branches of knowledge, including medicine and moral philosophy. Much of his leisure was devoted to the study of the poets, with the result that he is able at the present day to recite from memory many of their chief works in the Arabic, Turkish, and Persian tongues. The Bey came to Egypt a few years back, and is now actively engaged in cultivating and developing his estates at Kafr, in the Sharkia Province. He is married to the daughter of the late Shahem Pasha Khoulosi.

ROUSTAM BEY ZAKI, a passé en Egypte presque toute sa vie, et a été pendant plusieurs années au service du Gouvernement. Eduqué au Caire, à l'école des Frères, il entra au Département de l'Inspection comme ingénieur assistant en 1880. Un an plus tard il fut transféré à l'ancien bureau de la Guerre comme interprête. Il occupa un poste similaire au nouveau bureau de la Guerre, et a été nommé Chef du Commissariat Département. Depuis sa retraite, le 15 février, 1891, il se voua à l'agriculture dans ses propriétés à Assiout, dans la Haute Egypte. Roustam Bey Zaki qui est marié, à sept fils. Il est né au Caucase en 1862. C'est un Bey du degré Thanieh.

MOHAMMED BEY HASSIB has been occupied for some years in the active management of the family estates in Lower Egypt, which he inherited from his father in 1895. These estates are three in number; the first is situated at Kaliubieh, near the village of Sariacos, in the Nawa district; the second at Foah, near the village of Salmieh; and the third in the Gharbieh district. Corn and cotton are the only crops raised. The Bey is the eldest son of the late Achmed Bey Hassib, and a grandson of the la'e Hassan Bey Hassib. He was born in Cairo in 1870. Upon the completion of his education at Om Abbas School, he spent a short term in the Government service in Egypt and the Soudan. Subsequently he became a miralai in the Egyptian army. Mohammed Hassib Bey holds optimistic views with regard to the future of his country. "Egypt," he avers, "could in ten years attain the European standard of civilisation and learning if she would devote her attention to the development of manufactures and commerce, as well as of agriculture, introduce social reforms, and encourage the advancement of education by means of secondary schools and universities."

ISHAK BEY HUSSEIN is a prominent figure on the local turf. In the 1907-8 season he headed the list of winning owners with a record of over thirty successes, the prizes which fell to him being worth £E2,600 net. He has a stud of twenty-five racehorses and ponies, including Fadaan, who won the Eclipse Stakes at Cairo of £1,000 in record time; Nadeem, who has won the Grand Prize of Alexandria and also the Club Stakes, valued at £1,000 and £500 respectively, and Fadgham and El Tahowi, also winners of important events. Born in the Caucasus in 1863, Ishak Bey Hussein studied at Constantinople until he was seventeen years of age, with the idea of entering a military school. This being contrary to the wishes of his parents, however, he came to Cairo to live with his relative, Abdellatif Pasha, at one time an admiral of the Egyptian fleet and afterwards Governor-General of the Soudan. He studied Arabic, and in 1887, having succeeded to his father's estates in Upper and Lower Egypt, he married and settled down to an agricultural career. The Bey, who has travelled all over the Ottoman Empire, is extremely popular, and until recently was president of the Helouan Club. He is a Bey of the first (Mutamaiz) degree.

ACHMED BEY OMAR, chief engineer to the Tanzim in Cairo, was born in Cairo in 1871 and was educated at the Polytechnic School. At the age of twenty-one he entered the service of the Ministry of Education as an engineer, and four years later he was transferred to the P.W.D.

GIRGIS NACHATY BEY, Deputy-Chief of the "Domain's Office" of the Egyptian State Railways Department, spent many of the earlier years of his life engaged on general inspection and engineering work in the provinces. Born in Alexandria, he went to London at the age of six. Returning to Egypt four years later he studied at the American and Government Schools in Alexandria and at the Polytechnic School in Cairo. Joining the Public Works Department in 1873, he was stationed for eight years in Lower Egypt, and was then appointed Engineer-Inspector of buildings at Alexandria. Subsequently he held successively the positions of Engineer-Director of the Suez Canal at Port Said; Chief Engineer of Gizeh Province and Helouan; and Chief Engineer of the Provinces of Beni Souef, Minieh and Fayoum. In 1897 he was transferred to the Railway Administration and given the appointment which he now holds. He is in his fifty-fifth year, and has four sons, of whom one has studied engineering at the Crystal Palace, two have qualified as Doctors of Medicine in America, and one is still at school. Girgis Nachaty Bey is a Bey of the second degree, and has decorations from the Turkish Government for services rendered during the Arabi revolts.

AMIN EFFENDI MIRSHAK, son of the late Abdullah Effendi Mirshak, a Syrian merchant, was born at Damascus in 1879, and was educated in that city up to the age of fifteen, when he began a course of studies at the American College, Beyrout. Having taken his B.A. degree in 1898 he came to Cairo, and, after spending a short time with his brothers, secured an appointment under the Irrigation Department of the Ministry of Public Works as Secretary of the Basin Conversion Works. He was stationed at Minieh for about five and a half years, and was then transferred to Cairo under H.E. Ismail Pasha Sirri, the present Minister of War and of Public Works. He has written a life of his chief, and has also published articles in the *El Maktataf* and other magazines. He has one son, Anver Mirshak.

AHMED KAMAL BEY since 1896 has been engaged as an expert adviser on engineering matters to various tribunals in Egypt, but formerly he was for many years a professor and sub-director at the Government Polytechnical School. He was born in the little village of Mit-Homeir, in the province of Sharkia, in 1858. When he was but two and a half years of age his father died, but thanks to his elder brother he received a good education in Cairo, and by the time he was nineteen he had passed through all the branches of engineering, and had obtained an appointment as professor of French and mathematics at Beni Souef School. A year later he gained by examination a post as assistant professor of mathematics in the Cairo Polytechnic School, and in two years he became professor, a position which he occupied for twenty years. During the last three years of that period he discharged also the duties of sub-director of the school. The subjects taught by him covered a wide range, including higher algebra, theoretical and descriptive geometry, metallic resistance, differential and integral calculus, materials of construction, light, shade, and perspective, and mechanics, and he has since written various books on mathematics and other technical subjects. In 1896 he was replaced by an English master in the professorship, and since then has devoted himself to the profession of engineering, achieving considerable success as an expert at the Courts. One of the most important cases in which he has been engaged was that arising out of the division of the property of Prince Mohamed Ibrahim. He has made two tours of France and Switzerland. His father, the late Derwish Mustapha, a native of Hijaz, in Arabia, was a military man and fought in the Crimea.

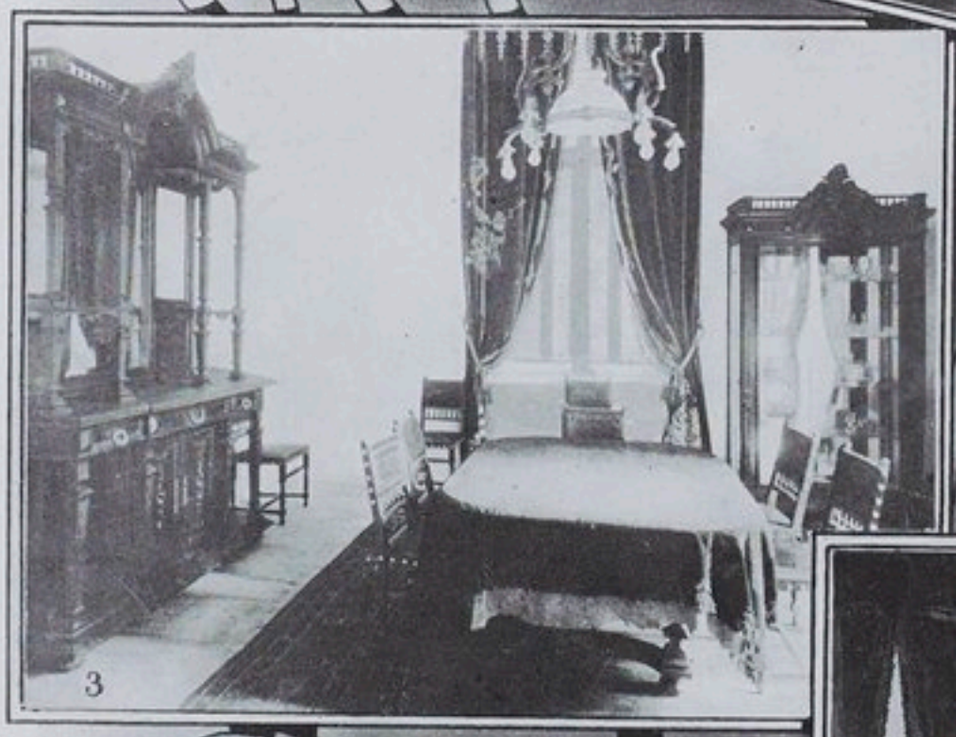
MUSTAPHA BEY KAMEL YEGHEN eut toujours l'idée d'embrasser une profession légale; il étudia au Collège des Jésuites et dans une école du Gouvernement à Alexandrie, dans l'espoir ensuite de prendre ses degrés en France. La mort de son père en 1903 changea ses projets et depuis il s'est destiné à la culture de ses domaines à Behera, Sharkieh, et Beni Souef. Un fils d'Ismaïl Pacha Yeghen, et un petit fils d'Ahmed Pacha Yeghen, il appartient à une vieille et très respectée famille égyptienne. Sa femme est une fille de Sadeh Bey Rouchde Yeghen, le père de son frère, et il a une fille. Malgré qu'il n'ait que vingt-huit ans, il a été quatre fois en Europe. C'est un enthousiaste sportsman; il aime beaucoup à chasser et à monter à cheval.

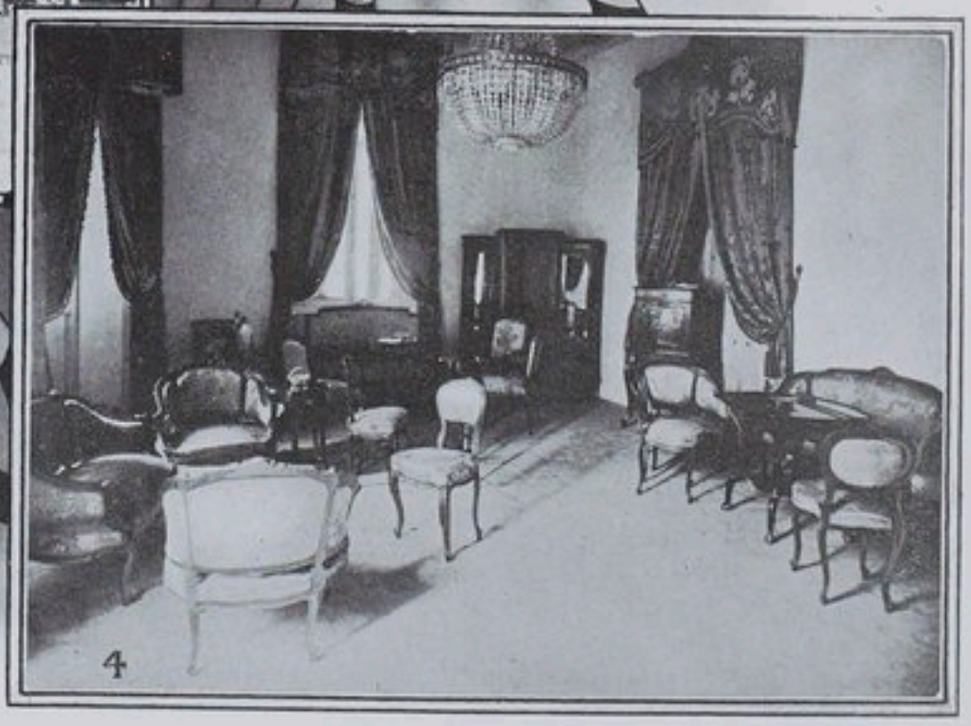
MOHAMMED SABIT BEY ZULFIKAR, water service inspector of the Cairo Locomotive Department, has been in the employment of the Egyptian State Railways Administration for the past quarter of a century. After receiving a general education in Cairo he was appointed a foundry foreman in 1884, and occupied that position for fourteen years. For three years he was chief foreman of the casting foundry, and then became an engineer in the locomotive erecting shop. His present appointment dates from 1904. He is now in his forty-fifth year, and has one son and two daughters. From his father, the late Hassan Bey Zulfikar, he inherited a small estate in the province of Minieh.

SALEH BEY ALI EL-SEILEHDAR owns considerable property in Cairo and in the vicinity of Beni Souef. The story of how this property passed into the possession of his father, the late Ali Bey el Seilehdar, is not without historic interest. Ali Bey was a native of Crete who came to Egypt in early life, and in course of time obtained an official position of some importance. In the days of Mehemet Ali Pasha he was sent to Mecca, and, following upon a series of revolts in that region, was appointed Governor of Yemen, an office which he filled for seven years. His sister married Mohamad Pasha Oan, Sherif of Mecca, and he himself acquired great influence; and when Abbas Pasha, flying from Khedive Ibrahim Pasha, took refuge in Mecca, Ali Bey used that influence to befriend the fugitive. On the death of Ibrahim, Abbas Pasha returned to Egypt, bringing Ali Bey with him, and, in recognition of past favours, gave him 2,000 feddans of land, and made him Multissim, or Governor of the district, which comprises the provinces of Ilminyieh and Beni Souef. Saleh Bey, who is thirty-seven years of age and a native of Cairo, is a Bey of the second degree. An experienced agriculturist, he has successfully cultivated cotton, sugar,







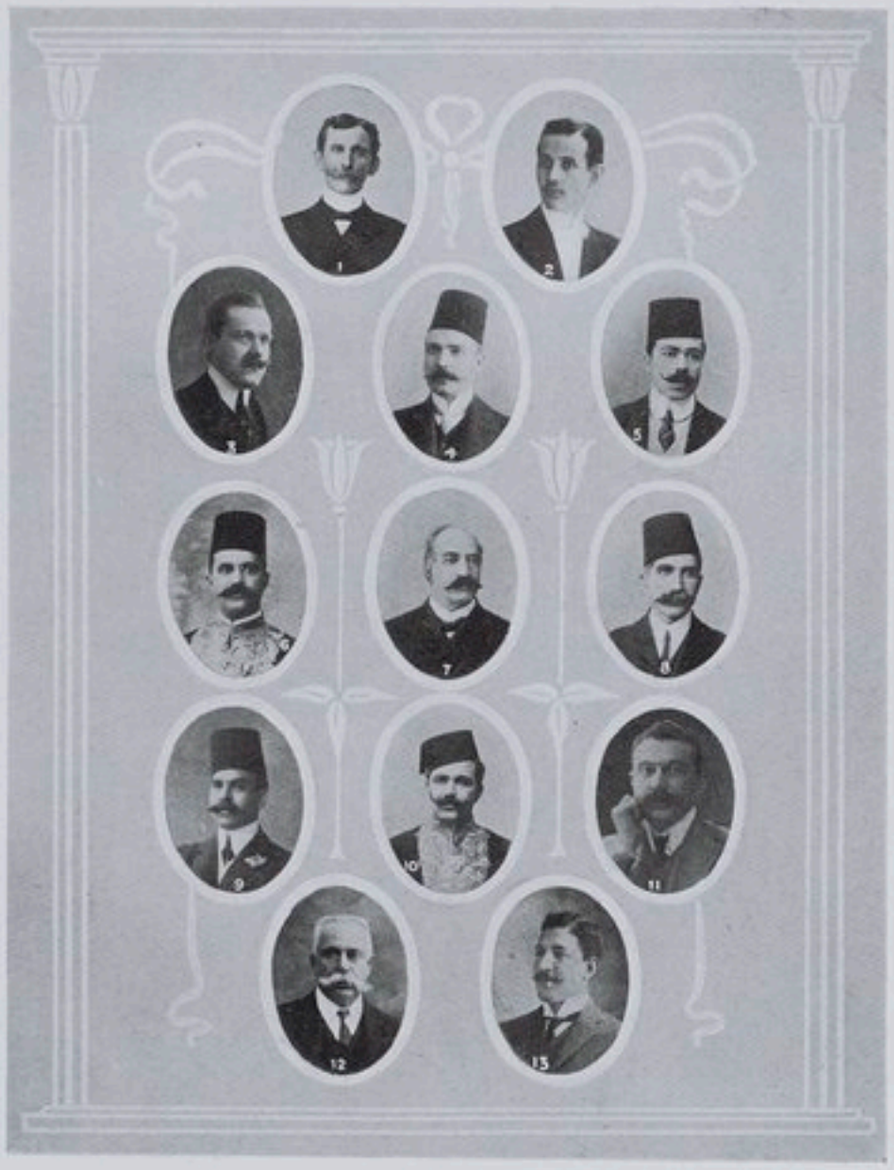


1 and 2. MOHAMMED BEY ABU HUSSEIN'S HOUSE AT SHARIA-EL-ISMAIL.
3. RECEPTION ROOM.
4. DRAWING ROOM.

grains, and wheat. He has the reputation of being a good shot with the rifle.

MOHAMMED EFFENDI OMAR SALLAM, son of the late Omar Sallam, a former well-known cotton merchant and agriculturist in Egypt, was born in 1874, and educated at the Cairo Government School. On his father's death in 1883 he succeeded to the family estates, which are situated in the province of Kaliubieh, and for some years past has devoted himself to agriculture. He has one son, whose ambition it is to enter the medical profession.

EL SAYED-MITTOILLY EFFENDI fait, sur une large échelle, des affaires importantes



RESIDENTS IN EGYPT.

1. Georges N. Coroni. 2. Mahomed Towfik Bey Soliman El Ghoudi.
3. Riza Bey Nayir Yeghen. 4. H.E. Ahmed Midhat Pasha Yeghen.
5. Mohamed Khourchid Bey. 6. H.E. Mansour N. Shakour Pasha.
7. H.E. Count Sakakini Pasha. 8. Suleiman Bey Nassif. 9. Emin Bey Yehia.
10. Mustapha Rachid Bey. 11. Nicolas D. Tocos.
12. Xenophon Giovanidi. 13. A. H. Siufi.

comme ingénieur et entrepreneur. Né à Kafr-Shokre, Dakalieh, en 1871, l'éducation qui lui fut donnée dès la prime jeunesse, le prépara à la profession d'architecte et d'ingénieur. A l'âge de 23 ans il entra au Ministère des Travaux Publics au Caire, comme Ingénieur de District, et dans cette position où il resta quatorze ans, il surveilla l'exécution d'un grand nombre d'importants travaux, tels que l'Ecole El Hamieh, l'Ecole Salibah, et une cinquantaine de maisons particulières. Il offrit récemment sa démission au Gouvernement égyptien car le poste qu'il occupait ne lui paraissait pas devoir offrir à son ambition les mêmes occasions et les mêmes ressources que celles qu'il était à même de trouver dans les entreprises privées. Actuellement il s'occupe de la construction de bâtiments dans le style arabe en Egypte, et si ses affaires continuent à prospérer ainsi qu'elles le font chaque jour, il n'aura aucune raison de ne pas se féliciter de la nouvelle orientation qu'il a prise.

SCANDER MORCOS LOUCA a hérité de propriétés considérables dans les provinces de Béni-Souef et d'Assiout où croissent le coton, la canne à sucre et les céréales ; il fait des expériences dans les cultivations, et il prend un intérêt parliculier dans la question de l'irrigation. Son père, feu Morcos Louca, était autrefois Vice-Consul des Etats-Unis à Béni-Souef et a rendu beaucoup de services aux Américains, en faisant à côté pour la communauté Copte à laquelle il appartenait beaucoup de bien. Scander Effendi est aussi un homme charitable, et malgré qu'il eut quitte l'école à l'âge de quatorze ans, il accrût ses connaissances en voyageant sur le continent et en conversant en langues italienne et française. Il est le président du Nile Club, société de bienfaisance nouvellement créée au Caire.

HAMZA BEY FAHMY naquit au Caire en 1857. Il fit son éducation dans les écoles gouvernementales égyptiennes, et à l'âge de 15 ans, il fut pourvu d'une charge auprès du Conseil Spécial du Gouvernement. Hamza Bey fut ensuite transféré au Ministère de l'Intérieur, où il devint Chef de Bureau. Immédiatement après l'avènement au trône de S.A. le Khédive actuel, Hamza Bey fut appelé auprès du Cabinet Khédivial, où il occupe le poste de Directeur des Bureaux arabes. Hamza Bey a beaucoup voyagé en Europe et en Turquie, et publie fréquemment des études dans les revues locales sur des sujets spéciaux. Son père, le Bimbashi Ali, était officier dans l'armée égyptienne.

AMIN ABD-EL-RAZIK EFFENDI, a native of Abugirg, in the province of Minieh, has devoted his whole life to agricultural pursuits. He lost his father in early life and succeeded to considerable estates in his native province. Cotton, grains, and sugar-cane are the chief products in which he is interested. He was educated at Al Azhar University, where he gained a wide knowledge of general and religious subjects.

MOHAMMED FATHI BEY YEGHEN has devoted himself to the study of agriculture and has estates at Itiai el-Baroud, in the province of Berbera. He was born at Cairo in 1868, and after receiving a general education he left school at the age of twenty to join his father, the late Khalil Bey Yagan. Eight years later his father died and Mohammed Fathi Bey Yeghen succeeded to the property, upon which cotton and all kinds of general produce are grown. He has travelled extensively in France and Switzerland and has also visited Constantinople. He is an enthusiastic sportsman and is particularly fond of shooting. A married man, he has two sons and one daughter.

MOHAMED KHOURCHID BEY occupies a prominent position among agriculturists in Egypt, and his extensive estates at Gharbieh, Dakahlieh, and Sharkia are among the most carefully cultivated and best irrigated in the country. Cotton is the principal crop, but nearly every kind of Egyptian produce is grown. Mohamed Khourchid Bey was born in Cairo in 1878, and was educated at the French Jesuit College until his father's death in 1895. In 1900 he journeyed through Europe, visiting Italy, Switzerland, France, Belgium, and Great Britain, and was much interested in the widespread use of motor vehicles which he everywhere observed. On his return he brought with him the first motor car ever seen in Egypt, and he has since been a most enthusiastic motorist. He now owns a Bayard car of 100 h.p., and with it he has established a record for the run from Cairo to Suez. He has made several motor tours in Europe, and hopes one day to cross Siberia. He was one of the founders of the Club Automobile d'Egypt. He was also the pioneer of motor boating on the Nile, and is now importing a launch of 100 h.p. Various other forms of sport claim a share of his attention ; he is a successful amateur photographer ; and he has collected a splendid library of books to gratify a taste for literature. His father was the late Khourchid Bey, a prominent official in the Khedivial Cabinet, and his grandfather was a general in the Egyptian Army.

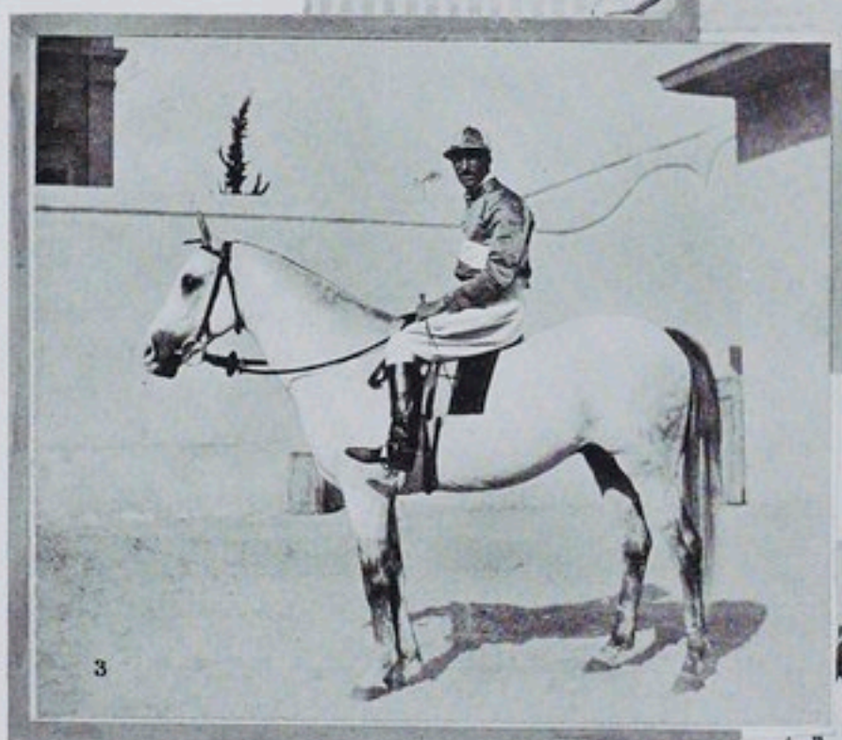
MUSTAPHA RACHID BEY est une propriétaire possédant des biens dans différents endroits tels que : Gharbieh, Minoufieh, Galliobieh, et dans plusieurs régions de la Haute Egypte ; en outre, ici, au Caire d'un grand nombre de maisons. Il est Bey de première classe et a reçu l'Ordre de Méjidieh de troisième classe. Son père, le défunt Achmed Rachid Pacha, était originaire de Turquie et occupa plusieurs hautes fonctions sous le Khédive Mohammed Ali Pacha, parmi lesquelles l'unique charge de Gouverneur de deux



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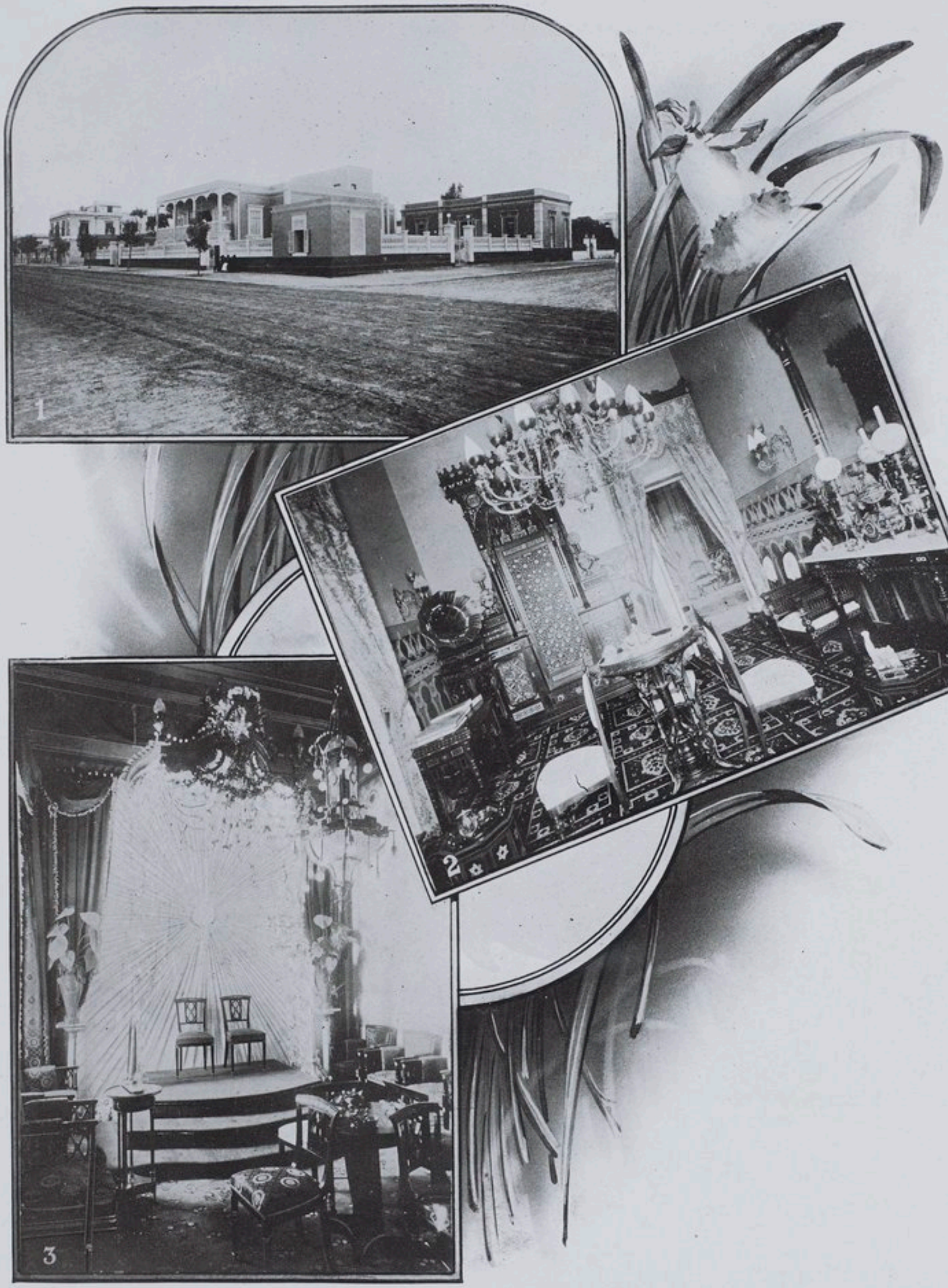
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1. ISHAK BEY HUSSEIN'S RESIDENCE AT HELOUAN.
3. FADAAN.

2. THE STABLES AT HELOUAN.
4. ABOU-EL-DHAB.



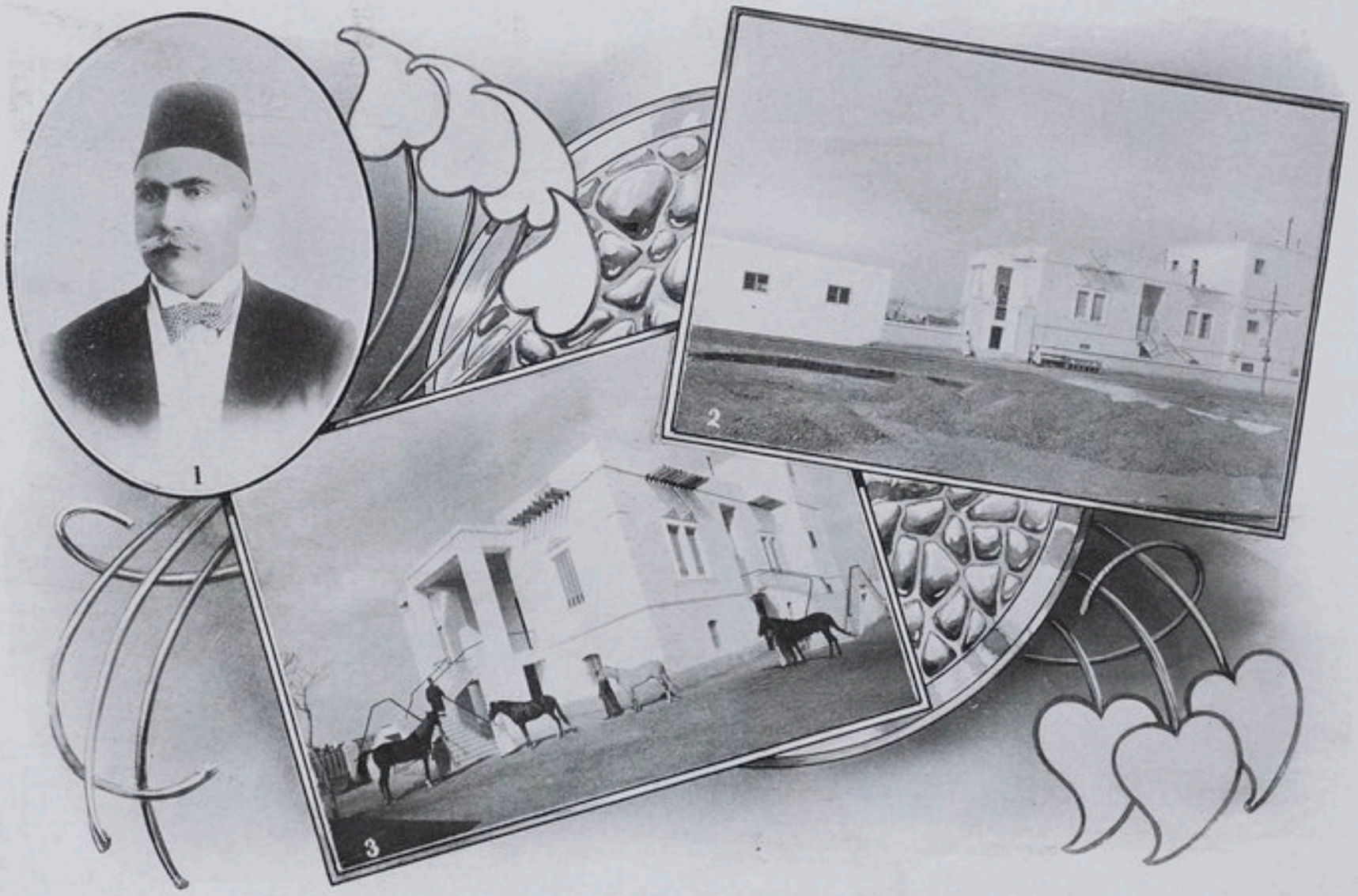
1. RESIDENCE OF MUSTAPHA BEY KAMEL YEGHEN.
2. RECEPTION ROOM.
3. CEREMONIAL ROOM.

provinces nommées Rodit-el-Bahrein (ou Gharbieh) et Minoufieh, de même que celles de Ministre des Finances et Ministre de l'Intérieur. C'était un homme très généreux dépensant beaucoup pour les mosquées, et en bonnes œuvres, non seulement en Egypte, mais en Arabie. Mustapha Rachid Bey qui est dans sa 27me année, fut élevé dans les écoles du Gouvernement du Caire; c'est un homme qui voyage beaucoup et c'est un fervent automobiliste. Son esprit littéraire le fait figurer au nombre des fondateurs du journal *Garrida*, journal publié au Caire.

SULEIMAN BEY NASSIF came to Egypt in 1881, and soon after the British Occupation he joined the War Office, where he eventually became head of the Civil Staff. In that capacity he went to the Soudan, and was present at the Battles of Toski, Hafir, and Dongola. The chief work of his career was the translation of the whole of the Army Regulations into Arabic. He has four medals, and has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class. Retiring into private life in 1906, he has since devoted himself to the cultivation of his properties in Gizeh Province. He was one of the first landowners in Egypt to adopt the system of artesian borings for water; and he has carried out extensive and profitable schemes of reclamation. Suleiman Bey is a son of the late Youssef Nassif, a Syrian, and was born in Lebanon in 1864. He was educated at the American Mission College at Beyrouth. He has travelled much in Europe, and has made three trips to the Soudan. He was, in 1906, appointed managing-director of the Egypt-Soudan Projects Corporation, Ltd.

H.E. MANSOUR N. SHAKOUR PASHA is the son of the late Mansour Shakour, a landed proprietor, originally of Mount Lebanon, Syria, who many years ago made his home in Egypt. His career has been a highly successful and prosperous one—successful in that his services have been of value to his country and recognised by the Government; prosperous inasmuch as his private business enterprises have resulted in considerable financial gain. Born in Cairo in 1868, he studied engineering at London University and in Switzerland, acquitting himself very creditably in his professional examinations, and securing honours in the subject of "Iron Structures." Returning to Egypt in 1889, he was engaged for three years in the Department of Public Works. Transferred to the Railway Service, he rose to the position of principal inspector of the Permanent Way Department, and finally became chief of the Electrical and Telegraphic Department of the Egyptian State Railways. In 1905, however, he resigned the Government service in order to devote his attention exclusively to the supervision of his private business undertakings which had already assumed important dimensions. He is the general-manager of the Egyptian Enterprise and Developing Company, Ltd., of which he was one of the founders; president of the Gharbieh Land Company; and chairman of the Koubbeh Gardens Building Land Company. He holds shares, also, in various other Egyptian commercial enterprises. Mansour N. Shakour received the title of Bey in 1896, and was created a Pasha by H.H. the Khedive, and decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, second class, by the Sultan of Turkey, in 1906. A man of sterling character, the Pasha is not only popular with the Syrians, but also numbers many friends among the Egyptians, who have come to regard him as one of themselves. He has a wide and accurate knowledge of public affairs, and his opinions upon the prospects of any commercial undertaking are always accorded respectful attention. He has one son.

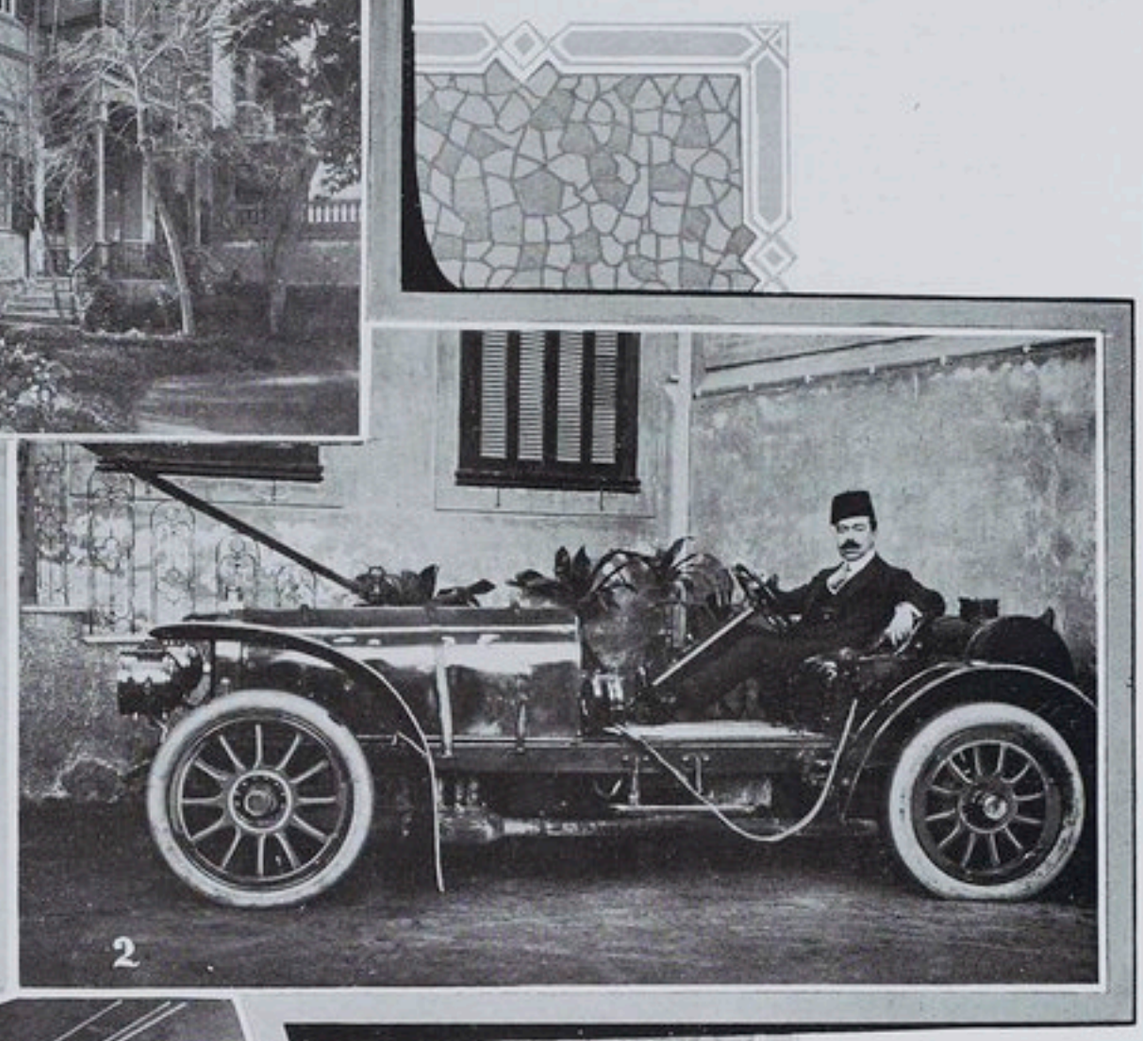
H.E. AHMED MIDHAT PASHA YEGHEN began life as a student of law. He was educated in Cairo and at Geneva, and then proceeded to Aix, where he took his degree as Licencié en Droit. On his return to Cairo, however, he joined his father, the late Haidar Pasha Yeghen, and devoted himself to agriculture, succeeding, in 1897, to the paternal estates in Gharbieh. He is a member of the Islamic Charitable Society, and being fond of horses, dogs, and other animals, he is a strong supporter of the S.P.C.A. He delights in travel, and visits Europe yearly. He is a member of the Khedivial Sporting Club, is thirty years of age, married, and has a daughter.



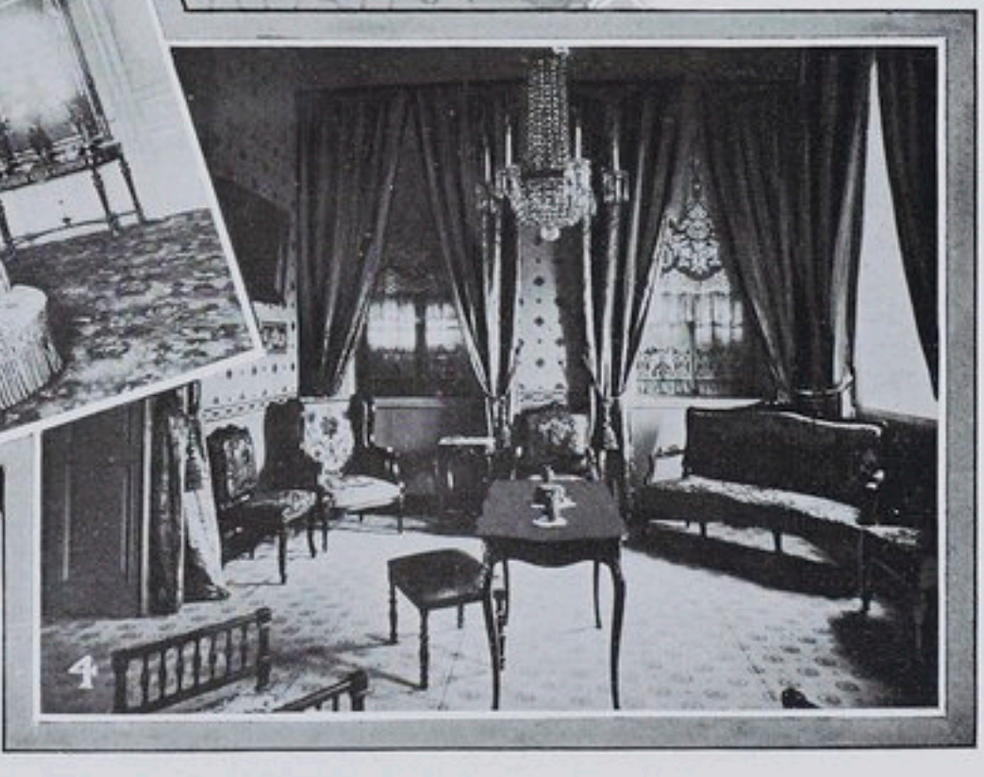
1. AHMED BEY EL-BAKRY.
2. AHMED BEY EL-BAKRY'S RESIDENCE AT HELIOPOLIS.
3. AHMED BEY EL-BAKRY'S HORSES.

MAHOMED TOWFIK BEY SOLIMAN EL-GHOUDI owns many valuable properties in Cairo, and has erected and sold several of the largest private residences in the neighbourhood of the city. His father, Soliman El-Ghoudi, came to Egypt from Tunis some







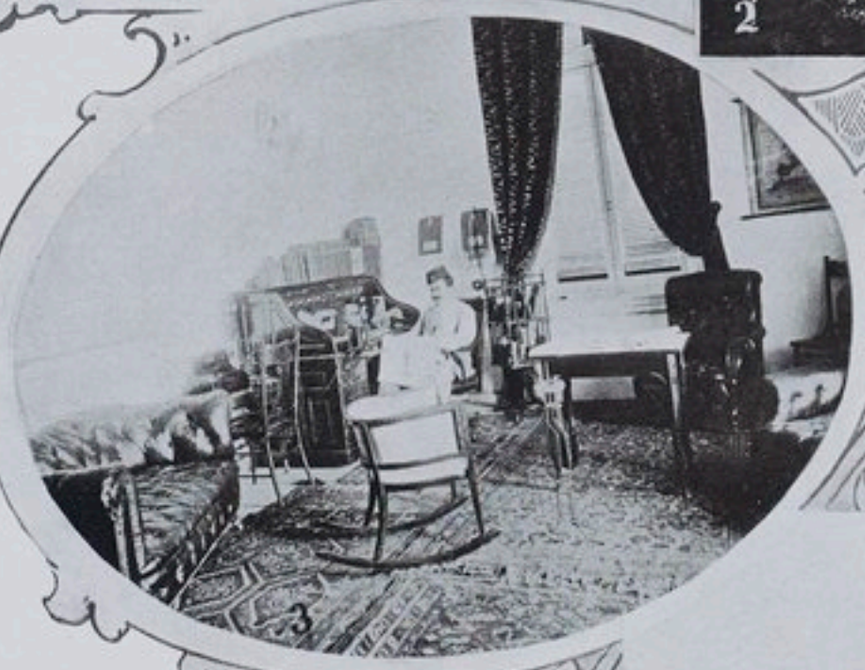


1. RESIDENCE OF MOHAMED KHOURCHID BEY.
3. DRAWING ROOM.

2. MOHAMED BEY IN HIS MOTOR-CAR.
4. A SITTING ROOM.









MUSTAPHA RACHID BEY.

1. The Residence. 2. Reception Room. 3. The Private Office. 4. Mustapha Bey in his Motor Car.

fifty years ago, and, by successful trading, quickly established the fortunes of the family. The natives, with whom a great part of his business was done, were in the habit of liquidating their debts, when money was scarce, by transferring small plots of ground to their creditors. In this way Soliman El-Ghoudi became possessed of a large area of agricultural land, which, worth little at that time, has since greatly increased in value and now forms a not inconsiderable portion of his son's wealth. For the most part cotton is grown on these estates. Mahomed Towfik Bey Soliman was educated at the Government Schools in Cairo, and speaks English fluently. He has since travelled a great deal in Europe, and has paid several visits to his native place. On the last of these visits, he was received by the Governor and had the degree of Honour conferred upon him. The Bey now resides principally in Cairo. He is married, and has two children.

H.E. SEIFOULLAH YOUSRI PASHA is perhaps best known for his prowess as a rifle and revolver shot. He has many medals and other trophies for shooting, including eleven won in open competitions in Paris, and the British Military Cup for revolver shooting at the Abbassieh Meeting in 1907. He has also acquired considerable skill as a polo player, and is an enthusiastic follower of various other forms of sport. Born in Cairo in 1870, His Excellency was educated privately at Portsmouth, and returned to Egypt at the age of twenty-one, in order to devote himself to agriculture. His father, the late Yousri Pasha, held many important positions under Government, and during the revolt of Arabi Pasha was instrumental in raising a body of troops in Albania to assist in quelling the insurrection. He also took a prominent part in bringing about the reform of the laws and tribunals of the country.

AHMED BEY EL-BAKRY assumed his present name on his marriage with the daughter of his late Reverence El-Sayed Ali el-Bakry. His father-in-law took a great interest in him, and in order to start him in life made over to him the income from several small properties. He saved the money until he was able to buy land of his own, and he now possesses considerable estates at Abbassieh, Matarieh, and Heliopolis. A sportsman by nature, he turned his attention to the breeding and training of horses, and made much profit by purchasing Arabian horses and supplying them to officers of the Egyptian and British Armies, and to well-to-do civilians. He became well known on the local turf as the owner of two famous racehorses, "Nadim" and "Mahrouss," for the former of which he refused a good offer made on behalf of the Duke of Connaught. He has now a stud of ten horses, but intends to give up racing. Ahmed Bey is extremely popular, and counts many British officers among his friends. He has travelled in France, England, Switzerland, Italy, Syria, and Arabia. Of seven sons, by his first wife, one survives; while by his second wife he has one son and two daughters. All are receiving a thorough education, and have gained certificates for proficiency in the French and English languages.

MILITARY.

BRITISH ARMY OF OCCUPATION.

TO some extent the history of the British Army in Egypt is closely identified with that of the reconstructed Egyptian Army. Since 1883, when General Hicks Pasha set out on his ill-fated expedition to Kordofan against the dervish uprising which eventually overran the vast territory of the Soudan, when a military force marched out into the desert and was swallowed up as completely as the Egyptian hosts in pursuit of the children of Israel, the British and Egyptian soldiers have fought side by side in the suppression of Mahdism, and have won mutual respect the one for the other in the restoration of peace and civilised government in the Soudan.

No sooner was the Arabi revolt suppressed in 1882 by Lord Wolseley and the authority of H.H. the Khedive, Mohammed Tewfik, re-established, than it was proposed to withdraw the British troops from Egypt. Reluctantly had the Liberal Administration ordered the bombardment of Alexandria and sanctioned the military expedition that landed at Ismailia and advanced so rapidly to the occupation of the citadel dominating Cairo. With similar reluctance was it decided to retain an armed force in the country. It is a matter of history that within a few hours of the battle of Tel el Kebir Her Majesty's Government contemplated the early withdrawal of the British troops from Egypt, but wiser counsels prevailed. Had that policy been adopted many anomalies would have been avoided, but it is doubtful whether the Khedive's Administration would have been able to initiate those reforms upon which the country is building a substantial basis for future progress. The proposal to evacuate the country created the greatest consternation amongst the Europeans resident in Egypt. In Alexandria a petition was signed favouring a permanent British Occupation. There was the customary outcry in England, and party politicians made the usual attempts to create party capital out of the political situation. In the state of the country in 1882, it was considered unsafe to withdraw the whole of the troops, and thus it was that the British force which has helped to garrison Cairo and Alexandria has come to be known by the unfortunate appellation of "The Army of Occupation."

The army has varied in strength from time to time, the contribution towards its maintenance by the Egyptian Government being £200,000 sterling per annum. In recent years it has had a total strength of nearly 6,000 men. The British Army Estimates for the financial year 1909–10 show that it will be kept at a strength of 6,015 of all ranks and arms. This force will be composed as follows :—One regiment of cavalry, 655 of all ranks; one battery of Royal Horse Artillery, and one company of Royal Garrison Artillery, 402 ; one company Royal Engineers, 161 ; four battalions of infantry (less one company in Cyprus), 3,626 ; one battalion of Foot Guards, 736 ; Army Service, 91 ; Royal Army Medical Corps, 120 ; local artillery corps, 154 ; Army Ordnance, 51, and Army Veterinary Department, 9 ; headquarters, 10— total, 6,015 as compared with 5,719 in the previous financial year, which expired on March 31.

The total expenditure for the maintenance of the British troops in Egypt and the Soudan during the year will be £504,797. The votes included in this sum embrace the following :—Pay, £249,827 ; medical establishment, £12,500 ; educational, £1,000 ; lodging, stable and field allowance, £13,560 ; conveyance of troops by land, £10,000 ; Army Service Corps subordinates, £8,545 ; remounts, £11,246 ; provisions, forage, fuel, light and colonial allowance, £127,130 ; clothing, £40,000 ; wages of Army Ordnance, £2,650 ; engineer services, £2,650 ; works and buildings, £21,206 ; and the balance will be taken up by the Army Accounts Department and miscellaneous services.

From a statement made by Mr. Haldane in the House of Commons, in introducing the Army Estimates, it appears that the re-adjustment of troops is being made because the garrison in Egypt is unsatisfactory. It is not movable, but is a sort of police. It had been suggested that it should be put in order so as to meet any possible eventualities in the Soudan. The British Government, accordingly, has brought up the establishment in Egypt to a brigade of the same strength as those in South Africa and Malta, and it is to be made more mobile. The garrison artillery will be changed into a mountain battery, the fortress company into a field company, and the mounted infantry into a camel corps. Thus the British force in Egypt will be suitable for a third of a division, and, with the forces in Malta and South Africa, will constitute the structure of a new division formed out of existing material, in addition to the nine divisions in India and six at home. By this arrangement, the Army of Occupation becomes an expeditionary force, and the policing of Egypt devolves upon the Egyptian Army.

When Field-Marshal H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught was appointed Commander-in-Chief and High Commissioner in the Mediterranean, a re-arrangement was made of the various garrisons from Gibraltar to Cyprus. The Army of Occupation in Egypt was brought under this scheme, but retains its own administrative staff at the headquarters at Chareh Kasr-el-Nil, in Cairo, the present General Officer Commanding being Major-General Sir J. G. Maxwell, K.C.B., C.V.O., C.M.G., D.S.O.

The Cairo garrison in March, 1909, consisted of the following :—

"U" Battery, Royal Horse Artillery (Major R. J. G. Elkington, Commandant).
No. 2 Company, Royal Garrison Artillery (Major R. C. Stevenson, Commandant).
No. 2 Fortress Company, Royal Engineers (Captain A. H. Dumaresq, Commandant).
7th (Princess Royal's) Dragoon Guards (Lieut.-Col. B. R. Dietz, Commandant).
1st Battalion King's Own Scottish Borderers (Brevet-Colonel D. A. Macfarlane, D.S.O., Commandant).
1st Battalion King's Royal Rifle Corps (Lieut.-Colonel R. S. Oxley, Commandant).
1st Battalion Royal Dublin Fusiliers (Brevet-Colonel A. J. Chapman, Commandant).
With the usual Departmental Corps, such as Army Service Corps, Royal Army Medical Corps, Army Ordnance Corps, Army Veterinary Corps, &c.

The Alexandria garrison consisted of the following :—

1st Battalion Alexandra, Princess of Wales's Own (Yorkshire Regiment), (Lieut.-Colonel E. M. Esson, Commandant). Detachment at Cyprus.

3rd Battalion Coldstream Guards (Lieut.-Colonel C. S. O. Monck, Commandant), with headquarters at Khartoum and a detachment at Alexandria.

Detachments of Artillery and Departmental Corps.

The excellent conduct of the officers and men of the army during the early days of the Occupation, when administrative disorder was general and foreign intrigue was at work, has been fittingly commented upon by Lord Cromer, and what was said of those days may be repeated with truth of the various regiments which have in turn formed the garrisons in Alexandria, Cairo, and Khartoum.

MAJOR-GENERAL SIR JOHN GRENFELL MAXWELL, K.C.B., C.V.O., C.M.G., D.S.O., took over the command of the Army of Occupation from Major-General G. M. Bullock, C.B., on September 13, 1908. Previous to assuming the command he had made a tour of the British Empire as staff officer to H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, then Inspector-General of Forces, who visited all the garrisons abroad. Educated at Cheltenham College, Sir John entered the army at the age of twenty, in 1879, joining the Black Watch, with the 1st Battalion of which he served in the Egyptian War, and took part in the battle of Tel el Kebir (medal with clasp, and Khedive's star). He served with the Nile Expedition in 1884–85 as staff captain (mentioned in despatches, clasp), and with the Egyptian Frontier Field Force in 1885–86 as aide-de-camp to Major-General Grenfell. He was present at the engagement at Giniss, where he won his D.S.O.; and took part in the engagement at Gimmeiza in 1888, winning his brevet as major and the Order of the Mejidieh (third class). He was present at the Battle of Dongola in 1896 (mentioned in despatches and made brevet lieutenant-colonel), and commanded the 2nd Egyptian Brigade at the battle of Omdurman. In the South African campaign in 1900–1 Sir John Maxwell commanded the 14th Brigade, and after the capture of Pretoria was appointed Military Governor (mentioned twice in despatches; Queen's medal, three clasps; King's medal, two clasps; K.C.B., C.M.G.). It will be seen from the above record that Sir John Maxwell's war service has been confined to the African continent, chiefly in Egypt and the Soudan; and it was appropriate that he should have been given the command in Egypt, where so much of his experience was gained.



H.H. THE KHEDIVE'S BODY GUARD.

EGYPTIAN ARMY.

The credit of having first formed an army in Egypt out of local material is generally accorded to the great Khedive Mehemet Ali, who, in his campaigns during the second and third decades of the last century, carried his victorious sword far into the surrounding territories, subduing even the savage Bedouin in the remote desert. This great commander and ruler first employed mercenary troops, principally Albanians and Circassians. But finding the supply of these forces insufficient for his ambitious schemes of wide conquest, he turned his attention to making soldiers of the fellaheen of the country. The fellah is hardy and robust, and, being docile as well, was soon converted into military material of the food-for-powder sort. Conscription was vigorously enforced, and the veteran mercenary levies were supplemented by large battalions of native Egyptians. It was with an army largely composed of the latter that Ibrahim, Mehemet Ali's warlike son, won the battles of Konia and Nezib and carried all before him in the campaigns against the Turks in Syria. But although the fellaheen proved a fairly good private soldier, he was found to be useless in any position of command. So the commissioned, and even the non-commissioned, ranks were recruited from Turks, Albanians, Circassians and other foreign adventurers, including some able Frenchmen who rendered invaluable service in organising and training the Egyptian troops. At the time of the battle of Konia, the fighting forces of Egypt, army and navy, comprised nearly 300,000 men, of whom some 130,000 formed the regular army.

The successors in the Egyptian rulership of the redoubtable warriors, Mehemet Ali and Ibrahim, endeavoured to keep up a national army of respectable proportions; but were not very successful. They were devoid of military genius; and, besides, had to contend with the jealousy of the Sublime Porte, by whom the number of troops was strictly limited. The material also deteriorated under inefficient administration. The fact that under Abbas I. the Egyptians lost Nejd and were driven out of the Wahabite State, which Mehemet Ali had conquered, shows how the army had declined. The Khedive Said raised the strength to 50,000 men, and amused himself with drilling and manœuvring his forces. He changed the uniform of the infantry back to the Eastern costume, and clad a troop of gigantic black Nubian cavalry in the chain armour of the early crusaders. Another troop was sheathed in bright brass, horse and man. Fortunately, he never had occasion to try the mettle (and metal) of these forces in actual warfare. Growing tired of this amusement and overtaken by failing health, he disbanded the greater part of the army, which at his death in 1863 consisted of only 3,000 men. His successor, Ismael, made it his first care to increase the military power, and, in his belief in the native capability, went so far as to promote Egyptians even up to the rank of colonel. What his army was worth was shown when a rebellion broke out in Darfour in 1874. General Gordon, who suppressed the outbreak, discarded the Egyptians altogether and used troops raised on the spot. Of the former he wrote: "The officers and men are a cowardly set. They are good marchers, and bear privation well; but that is all I can say of them"; while of his own levies he said: "I like the blacks; now, these black soldiers are the only troops in the Egyptian service worth anything." Again, in the disastrous Abyssinian campaign of 1876, the army was tried and found woefully wanting. At this time the strength was calculated to be about 60,000 regular troops, some 60,000 irregular troops, and 30,000 men with 144 guns. The infantry was armed

chiefly with the Remington rifle, and the cavalry partly with lance and partly with carbine. The irregular cavalry consisted mostly of Bedouins, who furnished their own arms and horses and were commanded by their own chiefs. A capable critic of the operations in Abyssinia said: "There was no unity of command, no cohesion among the parts of the army. This was due to the want of individual interest among the men in the campaign, a general need of good officers, and a lack of discipline as well as of any equitable system of rewards and punishments." Both organisation and discipline were lacking, as well as individual courage and "grit" in contact with the enemy. Payment, too, was irregular; and the commissariat arrangements were chaotic.

The great *débâcle* of the Egyptian army under Egyptian command came when Arabi Pasha's rebellion was quashed at Tel el Kebir. Occupying an entrenched position of great strength and outnumbering the attacking force by two to one, after only twenty minutes' fighting, the Egyptians were utterly routed and put to flight, having lost no fewer than some 2,000 killed, whilst the British troops, on the other hand, after delivering a frontal attack up an exposed and slippery slope, sustained a loss of only 459 killed and wounded. Six days later, on September 19, 1882, the Khedive Tewfik issued the laconic decree, "L'armée Egyptienne est dissoute."

It then remained for the British occupiers of the country to build up a new and properly organised military force. Lord Dufferin laid it down as a fundamental principle that while the army should be composed essentially of native Egyptians, the officers were to be supplied from England. Then began the arduous task of reorganising the whole military establishment. At first the rank and file of the reconstituted army consisted only of fellaheen, taken straight from the plough. When the power of the Mahdi became menacing on the southern frontier the necessity arose for a force of sterner composition. It was then decided to fall back upon the blacks of the Soudan, whose soldier-like qualities had been proved by General Gordon, for stiffening, what Lord Dufferin called "the invertebrate ranks of the fellaheen soldiery." Thus the army has become a force of combined racial composition. Although difficult to control, in that respect differing from the docile fellaheen, their initiative, dash, and instinct of self defence make the Soudanese invaluable as fighting troops.

As it exists to-day the Egyptian army is the worthy product of the patient perseverance, indomitable energy, and soldierly qualities of the British officer. Since its reorganisation by Sir Evelyn Wood, V.C., under a decree of His Highness the Khedive, dated December 20, 1882, it has displayed much valour and gained honourable distinction on many a battlefield, under successive Sirdars, and is now in a high state of efficiency in all its ranks. After the battle of Tel el Kebir, Sir Evelyn Wood was appointed Sirdar, with instructions to reorganise the army. Recruits were sent by the governors of fourteen provinces in proportion to the population, and the Sirdar, with a handful of British officers, was soon engaged in moulding this material into a state of military efficiency at the barracks of Abbassieh and Tura, in the neighbourhood of Cairo. Two brigades were formed, the first under British and the second under Egyptian officers, and in January, 1883, the little army, all told, consisted of 2,692, out of an establishment of 6,033. An attempt to raise a Turkish brigade having failed, it was decided to take the important step of raising Soudanese



A BEDOUIN CORPS.

battalions. Upon taking over the command from Sir Evelyn Wood in March, 1885, Brigadier-General Grenfell pursued the same policy, the wisdom of which has been proved by the distinction won by the Soudanese brigade in the various expeditions of the Egyptian Army.

Appended is a list of the battles in which the army has taken part since its re-organisation :—

Date.	Action.	Commander.
Dec. 30, 1885	Giniss	Gen. Stephenson
Jan. 17, 1888	Handub	Col. Kitchener
Dec. 20, 1888	Gimmeiza	Gen. Grenfell
July 2, 1889	Argin	Col. Wodehouse
Aug. 3, 1889	Toski	Gen. Grenfell
Feb. 19, 1891	Tokar	Col. Holled-Smith
June 7, 1896	Firket	Gen. Kitchener
Sept. 23, 1896	Dongola	Gen. Kitchener
Aug. 7, 1897	Abu Hamed	Gen. Hunter
April 8, 1898	Atbara	Gen. Kitchener
Sept. 2, 1898	Omdurman	Gen. Kitchener
Sept. 22, 1898	Gedarif	Lt.-Col. Parsons
Dec. 26, 1898	Roseires	Lt.-Col. Parsons
Nov. 24, 1899	Gedid	Col. Wingate

In each case the dervishes were the enemy and the British-commanded Egyptian Army was victorious. This last engagement resulted in the defeat and death of the Khalifa, and the final rout and dispersion of his army.

The active or field army is composed as follows : — Cavalry, 2 Egyptian and 1 Soudanese squadrons ; mounted infantry, 2 companies; artillery, 1 Maxim battery, 4 field batteries, 3 garrison companies ; camel corps, 5 mounted Arab companies ; Arab mounted battalion (Kassala) ; Arab dismounted battalion (Kassala) ; infantry, 9 Egyptian and 7 Soudanese battalions ; Medical Corps ; Department of Works ; Department of Supplies ; Department of Stores ; Veterinary Department ; staff and small units. Of all ranks, the strength on a peace footing is 16,781 men, including 130 British officers. It is placed on a war footing by calling out the reserves, numbering 9,127. The distribution of the reserves throughout the provinces of Egypt in 1908 was as under :—Kaliubieh, 299 ; Sharkia, 631 ; Dakahlieh, 1,059 ; Gharbieh, 1,068 ; Menufieh, 611 ; Beheireh, 547 ; Gizeh, 549 ; Beni Souef, 422 ; Fayoum, 458 ; Minieh, 513 ; Assiout, 1,098 ; Girgeh, 587 ; Keneh, 620 ; Assouan, 68 ; Governorates, including Alexandria, Cairo, Port Said and Canal, Suez, Damietta, 597.



LIEUT.-GENERAL LORD GRENFELL, G.C.B., G.C.M.G. (a former Sirdar).

The strength of the army is maintained by conscription, the number of recruits available each year being about 110,000, and the period of service five years in the active army (or marine) and five years in the reserve (or in the police or coastguard).

Only about seventy thousand are billeted in each year, however ; and exemption from service is granted as follows :—on the payment of the sum of £E20 before inclusion in the ballot, or after inclusion in the ballot without notice of ballot ; or by reason of Government employment ; or to sons of officers, whether on full pay or *en disponibilité* ; or to sons of officers who formerly held a commission during a period of at least ten years, and have not been dismissed or retired as a disciplinary measure ; or to sons of omdehs and sheikhs ; or on account of family reasons ; or on religious grounds, and to students obtaining diplomas at certain educational institutions. There are also several miscellaneous reasons for exemption, for example, every person of Bedouin extraction in the male line of descent, and



PROMINENT OFFICERS OF THE EGYPTIAN ARMY—PAST AND PRESENT.

1. Ali Bey Ramzy. 2. H.E. Ferik Abdul Halim Pasha Assim. 3. Milhem Shakoor Bey. 4. Miralai E. Mahmoud Helmy Bey.
5. H.E. Lewa Hussein Sherif Pasha. 6. H.E. Ferik Ahmed Djelal Eddin Pasha. 7. Miralai Hassan Bey Helmy.
8. Kaimakam Hassan Bey Lamay. 9. H.E. Lewa Mahmoud Husni Pasha. 10. Miralai Ibrahim Ragi Bey. 11. Miralai Khalil Bey Hamdi.

every person on whose behalf the military exemption tax has been regularly paid in every part of the Ottoman Empire, or every person who has been enlisted in any other part of the Ottoman Empire, is free from the obligation to serve. The liability of service holds good for males from nineteen to twenty-seven years of age ; and any person entitled to exemption who remains so exempt up to the attainment of twenty-four years of age escapes liability to subsequent enlistment. As a rule, recruits are called up the second year after the ballot, *i.e.*, when they are about twenty-one years of age. The conditions of enlistment for Soudanese soldiers are ten years with the colours, and the option, on discharge, of joining a Government colony. Provision is made for the enlistment of volunteers, the re-engagement of trained men, and the periodic extension of service with the colours.

For the Khedive's Bodyguard the standard of height is 5 feet 9 inches ; for the cavalry and artillery drivers, 5 feet 6¼ inches to 5 feet 7¼ inches ; artillery, 5 feet 9 inches and upwards ; infantry, 5 feet 6¼ inches and upwards ; and departmental corps, 5 feet 5 inches. The chest measurement for the artillery is 90 cm. and over ; for all other corps, 87 cm. and over.

command. The regulations governing promotion examinations are based on those of the British Army.

The establishment provided for by the Budget of 1909 was as follows :—

	British Officers.	Native Officers.	British N.C.O.'s.	All Ranks.	Horses, Mules, &c.
Infantry	50	354	—	10,841	426
Cavalry	2	18	1	476	408
Artillery	7	44	—	1,225	556
Camel Corps	8	25	—	696	847
Mounted Infantry	2	8	—	284	336
Staff and Departments	55	223	55	2,462	399
Arab Battalions	5	15	—	636	92
Bands	1	3	1	161	1
	130	690	57	16,781	3,065

The fifty-seven British non-commissioned officers employed with the army are stationed chiefly at Khartoum and in Cairo ; their duties are mainly clerical.

The infantry are armed with the ·303 Martini-Enfield rifle and triangular bayonet, 25 inches long, and the cavalry with lance, sword, and Martini-Enfield carbine. The headquarters, and detachments at the various important towns throughout the Soudan.

H.E. FERIK AHMED DJELAL EDDIN PASHA is now living a life of quiet retirement, in strong contrast to that which he led in his earlier days. A Circassian by birth, he went to Constantinople in 1869, when he was in his eleventh year, and from thence to Palais, where he was educated privately. Upon the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish War in 1877 he was given a commission as second lieutenant in the Fetia Cavalry, and at Plevna



CAMEL CORPS PATROL.

At the head of the army organisation is H.E. Ismail Sirri Pasha, who has under him, as the Under-Secretary of State for War, El Lewa Ismail Sirhank Pasha. Ferik Sir F. R. Wingate Pasha, K.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., is the Sirdar ; and the principal staff appointments are filled by British officers, seconded from the British Army. British officers serving with the Egyptian Army are appointed with the rank of bimbashi (major), and sign a contract to serve for two years, renewable up to ten years with the approval of the Sirdar.

Military schools are established in Cairo and Khartoum, with a view of preparing students for commissions. Soudanese boys are also trained in the Gordon College at Khartoum for military service. A few commissions are given to non-commissioned officers who have shown ability for military

armament of the Maxim battery is the ·450 Maxim automatic machine gun on the ordinary galloping carriage. The field artillery has six Maxim-Nordenfelt mountain 12½-pounder guns, with fixed ammunition. The three garrison artillery companies are trained to handle heavy guns of various calibres ; and there are rocket tubes and quick-firing ordnance on gunboats and in the forts.

The greater proportion of the troops are stationed at Khartoum and Omdurman. The former being both the capital of the Soudan and the headquarters of the Egyptian Army. With the exception of Cairo, where there is a force of over 3,000 men, there is no larger garrison in Egypt. Halfa, which at one time boasted a frontier garrison of nearly 3,000 men, has now but a few police. There is a small garrison at each of the provincial

he was wounded slightly, although he was not in the city itself when it was sacked by the Russians. For his services during the campaign he received the Distinguished Service Decoration (the Gold Giftihar), and three medals. After the war he spent a further three years in Palais, and became Chief of the Secret Service. During his eight years' tenure of this office he was once imprisoned for six months for endeavouring to write a history of the Circassians, and on another occasion he was exiled for eight months for a political offence. After leaving the Secret Service he was sentenced to banishment a second time, but was recalled by the Sultan Abdul Hamid, who needed his advice on private affairs. His old post was offered him, but he declined the honour, and was appointed instead A.D.C. to the Sultan. Eventually he married a princess of the

Khedivial house, and in 1904, the Sultan refusing to grant him permission to go to Egypt to see his wife, he left Constantinople secretly and has since lived in retirement in Cairo. He holds the rank of major-general in the Turkish Army, and is at present engaged in writing his autobiography for publication in England and Turkey.

H.E. FERIK ABDUL HALIM PASHA ASSIM, now retired on pension, was among the officers of the Egyptian Army who served in the wars with Servia and Russia. He was present at most of the engagements, and received the medals awarded for those campaigns. He is a descendant of one of the oldest families in Macedonia, but at the age of ten he came to Cairo, under the guardianship of his uncle, Abdul Maksoua Bey. He attended the Mobtadian Primary School at Abbassieh, and he took third place in an official examination, for which no fewer than twelve hundred students entered. Deciding upon a military career, he spent three years in the cavalry section of a school in Abbassieh, and five in the military department. At the end of that time, having passed the necessary examinations, he joined the Egyptian Cavalry as a second lieutenant. In due course he was gazetted first lieutenant, and soon received his company. When the war with Servia broke out he was attached to the Staff Corps. During the troubles with Russia he served under Prince Hassan, and at the conclusion of the campaign attained his majority. For a time he was commandant of the Khedive's Bodyguard, and subsequently became first aide-de-camp and then chief of aides-de-camp, with the rank of general, to Tewfik Pasha. From 1900 till 1906 he held the office of Administrator of the Wakfs, and during this period the revenues increased from £200,000 a year to £500,000. His Excellency, who is now fifty-eight years of age, has been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, first class, the Grand Cordon Ottoman, a medal corresponding to that given with the D.S.O., the Greek medal, and the Siamese Order of the White Elephant.

MILHEM SHAKOOR BEY, an inspector of the Recruiting Department of the War Office, is a native of Mount Lebanon, and was born in 1850. He was educated in the National College, founded at Beyrouth by the late Professor Boustros Bustany, compiler of the Arabic Encyclopædia. He came to Egypt in 1881 in connection with the mission conducted by Miss Whateley, a daughter of the famous archbishop, and during the events of the succeeding year he was the means of protecting refugees from the massacre in Alexandria, together with two native families who were adherents of the Khedive. He placed them for safety in Miss Whateley's British Mission Schools, and for these services he was subsequently publicly thanked in the columns of the *Egyptian Gazette* of November 1, 1882. It was Shakoor Bey who circumvented Arabi Pasha's design upon the Suez Canal communications. Calling to see two of his friends at the War Office, he chanced to see Arabi's telegram ordering that the communication be cut. He managed to have the order delayed for twenty-four hours, and in the meantime he found means of sending a copy of the telegram to Stone Pasha, chief of staff to Khedive Tewfik, who was with the Khedive in Alexandria. Shakoor Bey was afterwards arrested as an English spy, and his life, with the lives of all the Christians in Cairo, was saved only by the timely arrival of the English cavalry. In 1884, Shakoor Bey entered the Egyptian War Office under Sir Evelyn Wood, and in course of time he was appointed Arabic secretary to the Sirdar. He served in the Gordon Relief Expedition, under Sir Francis Grenfell, as a member of the Intelligence Department. He was present at the battles of Giniss, Toski, Tokar, and Gimmeiza; he took part in the Suakin Expedition, and he was with the Dongola Expedition under General Kitchener. He was employed in the Intelligence Department throughout, and was four times mentioned in despatches. He has the Egyptian star and clasp, and the Orders of Mejidieh, third class, and Osmanieh, fourth class. He was also decorated with the Austrian Order of Francis Joseph, in recognition of his services in connection with the rescue of Father Orwallader and the Austrian nuns, and Baron Rudolf Carl von Slatin Pasha, from Omdurman. In early life Shakoor Bey was greatly interested in agriculture, and, possessing at that time estates in the Lebanon, he conducted numerous experiments in grain cultivation. His wife, an Irish lady, whom he married in 1879, is a daughter of Richard Chute, D.L., and



SOUDANESE DRUMMER.

the Hon. Rose Chute, of Chute Hall, Co. Kerry, Ireland, and grand-daughter of the third Baron Ventry. His son is a civil engineer, and he has one daughter. His father, the late John Shakoor, fought in the wars of Ibrahim Pasha, on the side of the Amir Bishier Shihab, the then Governor of the Lebanon, and afterwards accompanied the Amir in his exile to Malta and Constantinople as his agent. John Shakoor possessed a remarkable natural instinct for the divination of subterranean water-bearing strata. In later life he was appointed a member of the Lebanon High Court for the Protestant Community, and was well known for his uprightness and justice, earning the title of "Father of the poor."

H.E. LEWA MAHMOUD HUSNI PASHA, who is now in his fifty-third year, was appointed in 1905 Amir el-Hadj, with the duty of taking supreme command of the annual pilgrimage from Egypt to Mecca. He had previously spent many years as a military schoolmaster and as an officer in the Egyptian Army. He saw active service during the Nile Expedition as staff officer to General (now Lord) Grenfell, a position which he had occupied from the formation of the new Egyptian Army in 1883. In 1885 he was attached in a similar capacity to the staff of the late Colonel Duncan. He was staff officer to the War Office, and superintendent of the lithographic press from 1886 to 1890, and then, having attained the rank of adjutant-major, he was appointed staff officer at Assouan. In 1893 he returned to Cairo as bimbashi, or major, of the 8th Battalion, and was subsequently transferred to the 2nd Battalion. He took part in the Dongola Expedition of 1896, and in the Soudan campaigns of 1897 and 1899. He was present at the fall of Omdurman, and was with the Kordofan Expedition which overtook and slew the Khalifa. For his services he has the Egyptian star, the Nile Expedition medal, the English and Egyptian Soudan medals, and seven clasps, namely, Firket, Hafir, Soudan (1897), Atbara, Khartoum, Soudan (1899), and Gedid. He has also been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh (fourth class) and Mejidieh (third class). At the beginning of 1900 he was placed in charge of his old battalion, the 8th, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and was stationed at Omdurman until 1903, when he was retired on full pension with the rank of colonel. He was promoted to the rank of lewa, or brigadier-general, on appointment to his present office in 1905. His Excellency is a native of Cairo, and, after passing through the Government Primary and Secondary Schools, completed his education at the Polytechnic School of Engineering in Cairo, and at the Cavalry School at Abbassieh. In 1874 he received his commission as second lieutenant, and remained at the military school as professor of geography and arithmetic, and as assistant master of English for nearly nine years. During the Arabi revolts he was with the late Mahmoud Pasha Sami as staff officer until the English entered Cairo, when he returned to the military school, remaining at that institution until his appointment under Lord Grenfell. He has a good knowledge of English and a slight acquaintance with French and German. His favourite pastime is the study of scientific treatises and periodicals, and the perusal of newspapers from all parts of the world.

MIRALAI IBRAHIM RAGI BEY, previous to his retirement on pension in 1902, had a long and distinguished military career, culminating in his appointment to a special post in the service of the Khedive. After a course at the Polytechnical School and the Military Artillery School at Abbassieh, he was given a commission in the Egyptian Horse Artillery, and served through the Servian and Russo-Turkish wars. At the conclusion of the latter campaign, he was appointed A.D.C. to H.H. Khedive Ismael Pasha, and was attached to the palace. On the death of the Khedive, he returned to the Army, and during Arabi Pasha's revolts he was given a captaincy in the Cairo Force, and was engaged in recruiting work. On the formation of the new Egyptian Army, he was appointed to a captaincy in the Horse Artillery under Major Woodhouse Pasha. Later, he was appointed Major Woodhouse's successor in the command of the battery, with the rank of major. In 1885, soon after Gordon's expedition, the dervish question assumed a serious aspect, and during the operations which ensued, Ibrahim Ragi Bey served under General Stephenson, and was present at the battle of

Giniss. He commanded the Horse Artillery through the engagements at Suakin in 1888, and in the following year he was present at Toski and subsequent battles in the Soudan. He returned to Cairo in 1891 as staff officer to General Rundle, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and in 1893 was appointed commandant of the Garrison Artillery in Egypt. Two years later he was placed in charge of the recruiting district of Alexandria, and in 1897 he was promoted to a similar post in Cairo. His final appointment was a special post in the service of the Khedive, which he occupied during the years 1901 and 1902. Ibrahim Ragi Bey has the Nile medal with three bars, the Egyptian star, the Soudan medal, the Order of the Mejidieh (third class), and the Order of Osmanieh (third class). He has always been a keen observer of the military problem in Egypt, and is at present engaged in writing a book setting forth the advantages of the present over the old system in all branches of the Army. He has expert knowledge of engineering and agriculture, and has turned his knowledge to good account in the improvement of his estates in Upper Egypt. He has travelled much in Europe and America, and has a son in the United States engaged in the study of medicine.

MIRALAI E. MAHMOUD HELMY BEY has spent practically the whole of his life in the Egyptian Army, and has filled many positions of trust and responsibility in such a manner as to earn the warm commendations of his superior officers. He joined as a subaltern in November, 1885, after having been trained in the engineering section of the Government military schools at Abbassieh. In the following year he received his commission as a lieutenant, and was appointed staff officer to General J. H. Wodehouse, who then commanded the mounted corps. He next joined the staff of Lieut.-General Sir H. L. Rundle, and whilst with him was promoted captain, and was then attached successively to the staffs of General Holled Smith and General C. S. Parsons. In January, 1894, he was transferred to the Department of Stores and held the rank of adjutant-major, and in October, 1898, he was appointed staff officer and Acting Director of Stores, Cairo, with the rank of major. During the Soudan campaign he acted as Director of Stores under the late Colonel W. S. Gordon, a cousin of General Gordon, and was mentioned in despatches for services rendered during the Dongola Expedition. He was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in October, 1902, and to that of colonel in May, 1907, and acted alternately in the capacities of officer commanding the Forts and War Office representative at Alexandria, under Brigadier-General L. B. Friend. He has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, third class, and Mejidieh, fourth class. His father, the late Ahmed Bey Helmy, was educated in Paris, and for a time served as a captain in the French Army. When he returned to Egypt he was appointed a professor of military tactics at the Abu Zabal School, Cairo. Afterwards he became chief translator to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and was entrusted with the work of translating the Government Code for the Mixed Tribunal. More recently he was a professor of French and geography at the Military School at Abbassieh. Colonel Helmy, who is a brilliant English scholar, is now in his forty-second year. He has two sons and one daughter, all of whom have a thorough knowledge of the English language. His favourite recreations are literature and shooting.

ALI BEY RAMZY, who recently retired on pension from the Vice-Mudirship of Sharkia Province, and who still occupies an important position as agent for the estates of H.H. Princess Fatma Hanem, a granddaughter of the late Khedive Ismael Pasha, has enjoyed an active career, embracing army, police, and civil employments. Born some sixty years ago in a little village in the Caucasus, he came to Cairo when only twelve years of age under the guardianship of his uncle, who placed him in the Military School at Abbassieh. He remained at the school for eight years, until, with the rank of first lieutenant, he was commissioned to join the Shargihieh or "Battalion of Giants." Three years later, he received his company, and subsequently was given an appointment in the Volunteer School, opened for the sons of Egyptian nobles. During the Servian and Russo-Turkish Wars he saw active service, and was successively appointed adjutant-major and A.D.C. to Prince Hassan Pasha, the Commander-in-Chief. He was next engaged in completing the clerical work of the Army Contract Department at Constantinople, until, being granted a year's furlough, he returned to Egypt. During his stay in Cairo the Arabi revolt occurred, and the Bey was impressed into the service of the insurgents and given command of a battalion. At the battle of Tel el Kebir, he was taken prisoner and placed under arrest, but as his part in the revolt had not been voluntary, he was discharged after thirty days and made a commandant of police in Cairo. He was associated with Lord Dufferin until the latter's departure from Egypt, and then transferred to Sharkia Province, where, five years later, he was made Vice-Mudir. Ramzy Bey owns a considerable area of land in that district and in the province of Menufieh, and is extremely fond of reading, spending much time in his library.

H.E. LEWA HUSSEIN SHERIF PASHA, a retired officer of the Egyptian Army, was educated at various military schools, including a cavalry school. He joined the Army in 1879 as a second lieutenant, and went through the whole of the Soudan campaign. He was present at the battles of Tel el Kebir, Kafr el Dawar, and other engagements. After the occupation of the country by the British he was attached to a cavalry division, with which he remained until 1897. He took part in the capture of Khartoum, and, upon the fall of the Mahdi, was appointed Vice-Commander of the Berber District, under E. Hunter Pasha. Besides receiving exceptionally rapid promotion, he was awarded all the Soudan decorations. From 1899 until his retirement in 1907 he was stationed at the Recruiting Depôt at Alexandria. In recognition of his distinguished services he was decorated by the Egyptian Government with the third class Order of the Mejidieh. A native of Cairo, where he has a large estate, his Excellency is forty-eight years of age. He is an ardent sportsman, and has a reputation as a big-game shot.

KAIMAKAM HASSAN BEY LAMAY has held many important posts during his long and active career, and now that he has retired on pension his services are still in requisition as one of the advisers on engineering matters to the local courts. He was educated at Ezbet el Borg, Abbassieh, at the Government Secondary School, and at the Artillery School, Abbassieh. At the age of eighteen he was appointed assistant teacher of military science at the Military School, Abbassieh, and a year later he became assistant at the Abbassieh Observatory, where he remained four years. For a time he was drafted to the Egyptian Field Artillery, with the rank of captain, but returned to the Military School as Professor of Military Science, and soon afterwards obtained his majority. After a short interval on half-pay leave, he was appointed Governor of Tura Prisons. He was next employed under the Intelligence Department; and finally, was attached to Colonel (now General) Wingate, with whom he remained until his retirement on pension with his present rank. Lieut.-Colonel Hassan Bey Lamay, who is in his fifty-third year, is a native of Ezbet el Borg, Damietta. From his father, the late Hassanin Effendi Hilal, formerly chief engineer of Damietta fortifications and inspector of various other forts, he inherited small estates in Lower Egypt. He has erected several houses in Cairo and Alexandria; among them a splendid residence at Abbassieh, equipped with all the most modern conveniences, and commanding wide prospects of charming scenery. He is very fond of sport, especially of shooting and racing, but takes his chief pleasure in business. His only son is still pursuing his studies at the Cairo School of Law.

MIRALAI HASSAN BEY HELMY, born in Cairo in 1865, was attached to the 4th Battalion of the Egyptian Army as second lieutenant when eighteen years of age, and quite early in his military career saw active service with the Nile Expedition. He gained his first lieutenancy, and was twice mentioned in despatches for the D.S.O. In 1886 he attained the rank of captain, and was transferred to the 13th Soudanese Battalion at Halfa, where he remained two years, assisting, during his stay, in quelling two or three risings, including that of Moussa Pasha. Drafted in the same capacity to the 10th Soudanese Battalion about the middle of 1888, he took part in the action of Gimmeiza, being mentioned in despatches; and in the following year he was present at the battles of Argin and Toski, receiving mention in despatches, and the Order of Mejidieh, fourth class. From 1891 to 1893 he was commandant of a section of the Cairo Military Depôt; he was then transferred to the Assouan district as staff officer with the rank of adjutant; in April, 1894, he proceeded in the same capacity to the frontier; and later in the same year he joined the 9th Soudanese Battalion at Tokar. In 1896 he took part with the 5th Battalion in the Suakin Expedition, defeating Osman Digna at Taroi, and in the Dongola Expedition. In 1897 he returned with one half of the 5th Battalion to Suakin; and in the following year he was transferred, with the rank of major, to the 18th Battalion at Berber, taking part in several minor engagements round Khartoum, and again earning mention in despatches. On his return from the Soudan, for reasons of health, in 1901, he was attached to the 6th, and afterwards to the 2nd Battalions at Cairo, and was granted the Osmanieh decoration, fourth class. In 1905 he was for a time in the Recruiting Department, but in July of that year he was promoted to the command of the 7th Battalion with the rank of Kaimakam, proceeding with the battalion to Suakin, early in 1907. Finally, he was given the post of Assistant Adjutant-General (native) in Cairo, which he now holds, and was promoted to the rank of colonel. He has the Egyptian star, the British medal, and the Soudan and Nile medals, with four clasps. Colonel Helmy has three brothers who hold officer's rank in the Egyptian Army; while his father, the late Colonel Aly Bey Elssamah, was formerly in charge of the Engineers, and was present at many campaigns.



EGYPTIAN MOUNTED POLICE.

POLICE AND CRIME.

AMONGST the numerous and complex problems with which the Egyptian reformer has to deal, few present greater difficulties than that of the formation of an efficient police force. Here, as elsewhere, no very immediate or striking results are to be expected from the adoption of an improved system of administration. All that can be done is to move gradually in a right direction, in the hope that, by persistent effort, some real improvement will in course of time be effected. I have no doubt whatever, that, as regards this special subject, the direction in which the Ministry of the Interior is moving is right."

So wrote Lord Cromer in 1906. The present police system under which Egypt is policed is the result of successive organisations carried out between 1883 and 1894, ending with the abolition of the post of Inspector-General of Police in 1894.

For administrative purposes Egypt is divided into mudiriehs and governorates. There are fourteen mudiriehs, each under the control of a Mudir, and four governorates, each under the control of a Governor.

The Mudir or Governor is directly responsible to the Minister of the Interior for the maintenance of public security, and is head of the police of his respective province or governorate. He has under his direction a commandant of police to assist him in all matters connected with the administration of the force.



EUROPEAN OFFICER OF THE CAIRO FORCE.

The mudiriehs are sub-divided into markazes and the governorates into qisms. Each markaz and qism is under the control of a mamur, who is responsible to the Mudir or Governor for the public security of his district, and is head of the police force. A moawin of police assists the mamur in the discharge of his public security duties. Each markaz contains numerous villages, under the control of an omdeh, who, with a force of village watchmen (ghaffirs), is responsible to the markaz for the security of his village and outlying hamlets (asbehs).

There is a commandant of police in each of the towns of Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said, and fourteen in the provinces. The total strength of the force is 7,062, distributed as follows :—

Cairo	1,649
Alexandria	1,371
Port Said	292
Suez	98
Provinces	3,652
Total	7,062

Officers and native constables for the police are trained at the Police School, Abbassieh, Cairo. Candidates are selected in September each year. The school consists of :—60 cadet officers, 300 cadet constables, and 300 recruits (for the provincial guard companies).

The course of instruction for officers lasts two years, for constables and recruits eight months.

This police school was instituted by Lord Kitchener in 1891. Its progress was retarded for lack of funds. In recent years, as a result of the financial freedom of action following the signature of the Anglo-French Agreement, more progress has been effected, however, and some three hundred cadets are being passed through the school annually.

In this connection it is interesting again to quote Lord Cromer's comments on the changing system as observed by him prior to his departure from Egypt :—"It is perhaps as yet too early to speak of the results which will eventually be obtained. I hear occasional complaints. 'It is sometimes said,' Mr. Machall writes, 'that the superior intelligence of the new class of constables is employed to extort larger sums of backsheesh than ever from the population. But, uphill though the task may be, no effort is being spared by the staff, under the capable guidance of Major Elgood, the new director of

the school, to strengthen their character, and to set before them higher ideals than they have known before.' That there will be a certain amount of failures is more than probable. But neither Mr. Machell nor Major Elgood need be discouraged. I have little doubt that, as a body, the constables turned out from the School will be very superior to those who enter the service under the system which has hitherto obtained. 'I do not suppose,' Mr. Machell writes, 'that any policeman in the world receives a better training.' From what I have myself seen of the School I can testify to the accuracy of this statement. As to morals and character in general, the Egyptian constable cannot be expected to develop higher ideals than those of the society in which he lives."

On May 28, 1908, the second term of compulsory active service for conscripts was abolished. Prior to its abolition, conscripts were liable, after the expiration of their five years' service in the Army, to serve a further five years either in the Police or in the Coast-guard. This liability ceased in the case of all soldiers whose term of service with the colours expired on or after June 1, 1908. At that time, the men serving in the Police were divided into three classes, viz :—

(*a*) *Native Constables.*—These men are volunteers who must reach a certain educational standard before they are accepted, and who undergo a course of training in the Police School.

(*b*) *Soldiers serving a second compulsory term.*

(*c*) *Soldiers serving a first term in the City Guard Company.*—These men are recruited in the same way as conscripts for the Army, and are employed principally on guard and escort duty in Cairo and Alexandria.

In addition to the above, the police contained a few non-commissioned officers and men who had re-enlisted on a voluntary two years' engagement, after completing their term of compulsory service.

On the abolition of the compulsory second term service, the arrangement adopted for maintaining the Police consisted in filling vacancies partly by enlisting volunteers and partly by an extension of the system of guard companies. The organisation and term of service of the native constables remained unchanged, but the pay was raised from £E27 to £E39 per annum (including quarters and clothing) from June 1, 1908, in order to ensure a constant supply of candidates and to make an increase of numbers possible, if necessary.

The places of the men serving a second compulsory term were gradually filled by volunteers. In order to attract the latter, the rates of pay were raised to the following extent, the first column showing the rates prior to May 28, 1908 :—

	Old rates per annum.	New rates per annum.
Bash-Shawish (Sergt.-Major)	£E36	£E54
Shawish (Sergeant)	33	48
Onbashi (Corporal)	30	45
Nafar (Private) in cities	21 & 24	36
" " in provinces	15 & 21	33

Non-commissioned officers and men serving on a voluntary two years' engagement were allowed to volunteer for the police, on signing an engagement to serve for a period of five years, and received the higher rate of pay.

From October 1, 1908, a new section of the Police School was formed to undertake the training, for a period of eight months each year, of conscripts for the new provincial guard company. These men, on completion of their training were posted to the districts and provincial towns, where they are employed chiefly on guard, sentry, and escort duty, in the same way as men of the city guard company.

A certain number of European constables (260 in all) are employed in the principal towns—Cairo, Alexandria, Port Said, and Suez.

The rates of pay of European constables range from £E66 per annum for a third class constable to £E120 for a head constable. These men have, in most cases, received a military training in a European army. They are of different nationalities—British, French, German, Italian, Greek, &c.

The accompanying statement shows rates of pay of the police :—

CITIES.

Grade.	European or Egyptian.	Cairo, Annual Pay.	Alexandria, Annual pay.	Suez Canal, Annual pay.
		£E	£E	£E
OFFICERS :				
Commandant	European	1,200	900	900
Chief Inspector	"	500	—	—
Assistant-Commandant	"	—	550	—
Inspector	"	400	—	—
"	European and Egyptian	360	—	360
"	European	300	300	—
"	European and Egyptian	240	240	240
Mamur	European	—	300	—
"	European and Egyptian	240	240	240
"	"	192	192	—
"	Egyptian	180	180	—
Moawin	European	200	216	210, 240, 300
"	"	192	192	—
"	Egyptian	180	—	180
"	European	168	—	—
"	Egyptian	156	—	—
"	"	144	144	144
"	"	120	—	—
Molahiz	European	156	156	156
"	Egyptian	96	96	96
"	"	84	—	—
NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS :				
Solat	Egyptian	—	60	—
Head Constable	European	120	120	120
First Class Constable	"	90	90	90
Second " "	"	78	78	78
Third " "	"	66	66	66
Bash-Shawish	Egyptian	54	54	54
*Shawish	"	48	48	48
*Onbashi	"	45	45	45
*Native Constable...	"	39	39	39
*Nafar	"	36	36	36

* Mounted and Foot Police.

PROVINCES.

Grade.	European or Egyptian.	Annual Rate of Pay.
		£E
OFFICERS :		
Commandant ...	Egyptian	420
" ...	"	360
" ...	"	300
Asst.-Commandant	"	180
Mamur	"	180
Moawin	"	144
"	"	120
Molahiz	European	144
"	"	120
"	Egyptian	84
"	"	72
NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS :		
1st Class Constable	European	90
2nd " "	"	78
Sol	Egyptian	60
Bash-Shawish ...	"	54
*Shawish	"	48
*Onbashi	"	45
*Native Constables...	"	39
*Nafar (1st Class) ...	"	33
*Nafar (2nd Class) ...	"	15

* Mounted and Foot Police.

The following statement shows the cost of the police force in the current year :—

Service.	Annual Cost. £E.
1. Administrative services ...	108,065
2. Police School	22,195
3. Cairo Police	82,698
4. Alexandria Police	65,820
5. Suez Canal Police	22,323
6. Provincial Police	140,589
Total	£E441,690

Public security is maintained in the villages by the Ghaffir force.

There are altogether 50,000 village watchmen throughout the whole of Egypt.

The total annual cost of the Ghaffir service is £E600,000. This expenditure is met by the Ghaffir cess levied on the population.

In addition to the ghaffirs, who may be regarded as private individuals rather than as Government servants, there are in certain villages omdehs, or headmen, who are in a way responsible for the peace and good order of the village. The omdehs receive no pay, but are entitled to a few privileges. They are allowed a remission of the land tax on 10 feddans of land, their children are

not liable for conscription, and they have a certain status as headmen of the villages.

Gradually the police system is being spread over the most remote districts in order to secure good order and tranquillity throughout the land. To render the escape of the criminal more difficult, every important village in Egypt is connected by telephone with its markaz town, and each markaz town with its mudirieh town. This introduction of the telephone enables the authorities to notify cases of crime and outbreaks of fire, and at the same time affords facilities to the Irrigation Department for the regulation of sluices during the rise of the Nile. There are approximately 2,500 telephone lines, which are maintained at a cost of £E31,000. Large as this sum may appear it leads to greater economy in controlling affairs, and it is hoped that eventually the administrator may be able to talk to every important village in Egypt from his office chair in the Ministry of the Interior.

The present Director of the Personnel and Accounts Department of the Ministry of the Interior, from which the administration is conducted, is Mr. H. Carter-Wilson, and the respective Commandants of Police in Cairo and Alexandria are El Lewa Harvey Pasha and El Lewa H. C. P. Hopkinson Pasha. Harvey Pasha re-organised the police of Alexandria in 1886, and was afterwards transferred to Cairo, where he brought the force to a higher state of efficiency. It was he who introduced the finger-print system of identification into the country in 1890. For a time he was attached to another department, and his return to the position of Commandant of the Cairo Police in March of this year was hailed with acclamation by various organs of public opinion.

The whole system of securing public safety is still subjected to a considerable amount of criticism, but it is not our province to inquire how far these criticisms are justified. That the Ministry of the Interior is itself dissatisfied, and is striving to attain a higher efficiency, is evident from an important circular recently issued to the Mudirs and Governors in regard to the prevention of crime and the detection and conviction of criminals.

In his report for 1907 on the Prisons Department, Colonel Coles Pasha writes:

"I believe I am correct in stating that police efficiency is sometimes tested by comparing the number of convictions obtained with the number of persons arrested. Judged by this test, Alexandria, Cairo, Mansourah, Port Said, have all come out well, with convictions (in First Instance) exceeding 80 per cent. On the other hand, the arrests in Damanhour, Mellawi, and Tahta appear to have been very indiscriminate, Tahta especially showing only 19 per cent. convicted of persons arrested."

CRIMES AND DÉLITS DÉNONCÉS.

The following table shows the number of crimes and *délits* reported to the Public Security Department from January 1 to December 31 in each of the years 1906, 1907, and 1908, and the number of cases returned as real after preliminary inquiry:

	1906.	1907.	1908.
MEURTRES—			
Faits dénoncés.....	816	822	1.011
Cas réels	711	713	864
VOLS CRIMINELS—			
Faits dénoncés.....	725	725	699
Cas réels	493	508	502
VOLS DÉLICTUEUX—			
Faits dénoncés.....	23.325	22.384	24.344
Cas réels	17.060	17.000	19.488
CRIMES—			
Faits dénoncés.....	4.579	4.389	4.776
Cas réels	3.316	3.323	3.654
DÉLITS—			
Faits dénoncés.....	88.246	81.357	85.293
Cas réels	64.024	61.223	67.269

Disregarding cases recorded during the month of December and carried forward to the following year, cases classed provisionally, and cases awaiting instructions, the real cases may be classified as follows:

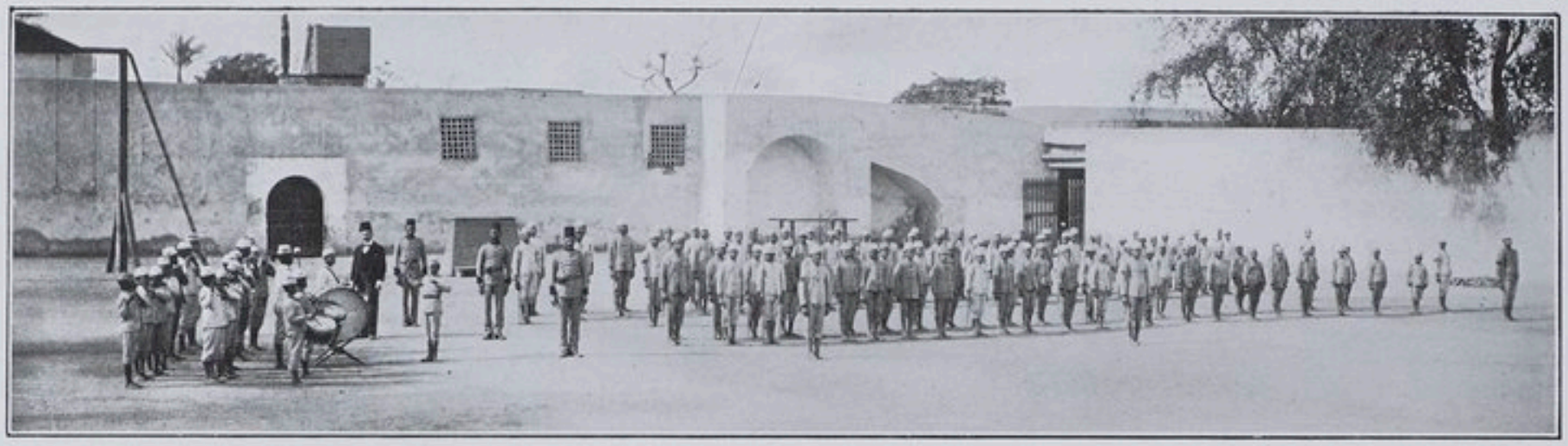
	1906.	1907.	1908.
MEUTRES—			
Condamnations	216	186	251
Acquittements	45	56	58
VOLS CRIMINELS—			
Condamnations	137	120	131
Acquittements	44	64	49
VOLS DÉLICTUEUX—			
Condamnations	7.197	7.164	8.183
Acquittements	1.209	1.190	1.370
CRIMES—			
Condamnations	998	967	1.065
Acquittements	252	247	308
DÉLITS—			
Condamnations	42.613	37.967	41.640
Acquittements	4.267	4.685	5.382



A COMMANDER AND HIS OFFICERS.

COLONEL G. S. HARVEY PASHA, the Commandant of the Cairo Police, is a son of the late Mr. Harvey, of Carnousie, in Banffshire. He was educated at Trinity College, Glenalmond, and entered the Royal Highlanders in 1876, being present at the battles of Tel el Kebir and El Teb. He joined the Egyptian service in 1884, and raised "Harvey's Blacks," who have done good work in the Egyptian Army. He was Commandant of Police at Alexandria, and held the post of Inspector-in-Chief of Egyptian Police.

COLONEL H. C. B. HOPKINSON BEY is Commandant of the Alexandria Police. He obtained his commission in the British Army in 1891, and saw service in the Dongola Expedition in 1896 and in the Nile Expeditions of 1897 and 1898. He is decorated with the Order of the Mejidieh.



DRILLING AT THE CAIRO REFORMATORY.

PRISONS AND REFORMATORIES.

IN countries where modern European methods are brought into contact with the native customs of centuries, it is inevitable that there should be conflict of opinion, if not a certain degree of opposition, until the advantages of the more civilised methods are recognised by the results produced. This remark applies with special force to prison administration, which was first treated on scientific lines in European countries as the result of strenuous agitation by reformers in the early part of the nineteenth century. In some British Colonies, especially those where Chinese form the lower stratum of society, the prison is regarded by the native much as the middle-class Englishman regards a Scottish hydropathic establishment—as a place of rest and relaxation, where, in healthful surroundings, and under specialised medical supervision, he enjoys his adolescence and eats the bread of ease under conditions that entail a minimum amount of beneficial restraint and discipline.

The question of how prisoners should be treated was for many years one of the vexed questions of Egypt. During the past ten or eleven years every prison in the country has been rebuilt on the highest modern principles, under the supervision of the Inspector-General of Prisons, Colonel Charles E. Coles Pasha, C.M.G., and though, in some respects, the prisons may still be far behind those of Europe, as regards cleanliness and hospital accommodation, it may be advanced that the department of the prisons of Egypt has little to learn from the prisons elsewhere. While he is anxious to raise the standard to the highest possible point, it may be accepted as the policy of the Inspector-General that he aims not merely at making imprisonment a punishment, and, therefore, a deterrent of crime, but also reformative, so that when the criminal returns to society he may not remain a predatory pest, but become a skilled and efficient worker. It is for this reason that Coles Pasha has for many years advocated the establishment of a reformatory for the treatment of adult habitual criminals. In this respect Egypt is probably in advance of Europe, as a decree was promulgated during the past year creating such an institution.

In the latest official report available for details, that of 1907, it appears that the number of habitual criminals has remained constant, or nearly so for the five years from 1903. Nevertheless, it may be accepted as a satisfactory indication of the state of the people that the total number of persons dealt with by the Prisons Department in 1907 was less than in 1903 by 22,155. How far this is dependent on the idiosyncrasies of the various magistrates is subject of comment, however; for why, asks the Inspector-General, should the Cairo courts sentence 7,677 persons to simple imprisonment and Alexandria only 1,502? The prison figures include the persons sentenced by the administrative courts, so cannot be taken altogether as showing the working of the regular courts. In fact, statistics in the Judicial Adviser's report of 1907 show that a contravener's chance of going to prison or being dealt with by fine, even in Cairo itself, depended largely on the district in which he resided. The Inspector-General suggests the abolition of simple imprisonment for less than a month, and the substitution of labour, and he thinks the State would not be a loser. At all events, there should be more uniformity in dealing with petty offenders, and forced labour, or *corvée*, is a mode of punishment in Egypt, not perhaps available in more civilised European countries.

Though the total number of admissions for the year 1908 was 84,632, compared with 73,786 in 1907, the following statistics for a period of five years show how many persons were sent to the several prisons :—

1903	...	...	...	85,388
1904	...	...	...	81,745
1905	...	...	...	73,827
1906	...	...	...	70,351
1907	...	...	...	63,233

A notable fact is the reduction of the number of women sentenced from 12,741 in 1903 to 3,176 in 1907. That more persons of superior education appear amongst the prisoners may be taken as indicative of the spread of education rather than of a stronger criminal tendency amongst the educated classes, but it is a fact worthy of attention by those who are interested in the study of criminology. The total number of women in prison at the close of 1908 was 324, compared with 337 in 1907.

In 1907 only 1,769 prisoners were released on conditional liberty as compared with 2,019 in the previous year. The release of 72 prisoners was stopped on account of misconduct in prison, and 537 were refused liberty by the Mudirs on grounds of public security. An effort is being made to attain a higher degree of efficiency and discipline in the prisons. There were a good many offences against discipline, especially in the penal servitude establishments, which serves to show the deterrent effect of the prison arrangements on the criminal classes.

The daily average number of persons in confinement in all the prisons of Egypt, convict, central, and local, in 1908 was 12,226 as against 11,421 in 1907. The total number of prisoners confined at the close of the year amounted to 13,120, compared with 11,935 in 1907. There are three convict prisons—at Gizeh (Tourah), Kaliubieh (Abou-Zaabal), and Menufieh Barrage—and here the number confined at the end of 1908 was 3,506 against 3,368 in 1907. There are eleven central prisons (two each at Cairo and Alexandria), these being for prisoners sentenced to fourteen days and over, and ninety-four local prisons. At the end of the current year there were in these prisons 6,980 persons undergoing detention or imprisonment as compared with 6,287 in 1907; 1,159 were under appeal against 1,018 in 1907, and 1,475 were still awaiting trial, or 213 more than in the previous year.

The mortality per 1,000 on the average population was 13·5 as against 12·34 in 1907. The total number of deaths in 1908 was 166, and 17 were released on medical grounds, 5 suffering from pulmonary tuberculosis.

Nineteen of the prisoners were sentenced to death for murder in 1907, and 63 to life imprisonment for murder, and 6 for gang robbery. Murder, homicide, robbery, and pillage by bands of men were among the more serious crimes. The totals of persons convicted in that year under the various classifications of offences were as follow :—

Crimes	...	...	...	...	...	1,532
Délits	...	...	...	...	...	31,058
Contraventions	...	...	...	...	...	12,437
Administrative and Discipline—						
Irrigation and Nile Commission offences	...	...	...	...		8,201
Omdehs' Courts offences	...					8,334
Other administrative offences	...					330
Military and discipline offences						371

The following table is interesting as showing the nationality of the prisoners convicted :—

Egyptians—	
Mahomedans	58,155
Copts	3,087
Syrians...	176
Turks	68
Armenians	181
Greeks...	475
Europeans	40
Other nationalities	580

Of the prisoners, 7,746 elected to work in lieu of imprisonment, but 211 failed to report themselves, and 360 failed to complete their task and were imprisoned.



FEMALE WARD, CENTRAL PRISONS.

The Staff of the Department, including the Inspector-General, Deputy Inspector-General, Principal Medical Officer and Secretary, was as follows :—

Classed Officers	168
Unclassed Officers	402
Armed Guard...	234
Hospital Warders	94
Temporary Establishment from Industrial Fund	421

The ratio of warders to prisoners was 6·20 per cent. in 1907. In this connection it is advocated by the Inspector-General that a superannuation fund should be created in order to increase the stake of the warder class in the service and so improve their quality. "Under the existing system," he writes, "a warder has everything to gain by being dishonest and little to lose. He knows he is entitled to nothing, and the small indemnity (if any) he gets as a favour on his discharge will not provide the necessities of life for more than a few months. On the other hand, if he is not found out, he has no difficulty in a few years in accumulating quite a small capital. If he remains honest, it is probably because he has not the brains to provide for the future."

In spite of the improvements that have been effected in recent years, there is still a considerable amount of overcrowding in the convict and central prisons. It was laid down by a Commission which sat in 1886 that a prisoner in Egypt should have 40 superficial and 600 cubic feet space. Owing to the overcrowded state of the majority of the prisons, the prisoners in association wards have not been able to obtain a sufficient amount of space. This is mitigated to a great extent, however, by the construction of the prisons, gratings being substituted for closed roofs over the corridor spaces. The Inspector-General pleads for the maintenance of the expenditure on prisons, and expresses the opinion that if the Egyptian Government granted £E30,000 per year for ten years for building and reconstruction purposes, the year 1918 should find the Egyptian prisons completed and no further expenditure required but upkeep.

The total expenditure of the department during the year (exclusive of special grant for building, but inclusive of industries) amounted to £E186,602 ; the gross earnings of prison industries amounted to £E50,840, against £E44,742 in 1907.

The cost per prisoner on daily average population being £E11 (£E11.630 mills. in 1907).

The total sum expended during the year on prison buildings was £E34,075, including a credit of £E4,000 for petty repairs, as follows :—

Reformatory	£E18,290
Damanhour	7,452
Barrage	1,679
Tourah	1,933
Abou-Zaabal	914
Other prisons	3,807
	£E34,075

In the matter of expenditure on prisoners, Egypt pays less per prisoner than Great Britain or Europe, but rather more than India. The Egyptian prisoner is not pampered or overfed. In 1902, Dr. R. G. Kirton, Principal Medical Officer, reported that the diet in use was insufficient. Three years later, certain alterations of the dietary scale were introduced on his recommendation. As it was represented that this scale was too liberal, at the request of the Inspector-General, he made a comparison with the dietary scales in use in European prisons and also in India, with the result that he found that the nutritive value of the Egyptian diets was less than those of other countries, besides being less varied in their character. The average weight of an Egyptian prisoner is given as 60 kilos, compared with 70 kilos for European prisoners, and about 50 kilos for the natives of Bengal.

Not the least interesting part of the work done in the prisons has reference to the industries taught to the prisoners. Unfortunately, there is no Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society in Egypt, and consequently men who have learned a useful trade during their period of incarceration are apt to fall back upon their evil ways. Mr. W. Delanoy, Inspector of Industries, is of opinion that the Egyptian prisoner passing through the workshops is quite competent to earn a livelihood after his release, and, in time, other Government departments may be induced to co-operate in the employment of these men. In many respects, the released Egyptian prisoner is better able to embark on a career of respectable industry than the prisoner in Europe, for he is turned out with more advanced ideas and practical knowledge than the workman he will have to compete against in his village. He also leaves with a fair grasp of other trades than the one taught him, if he be at all observant.

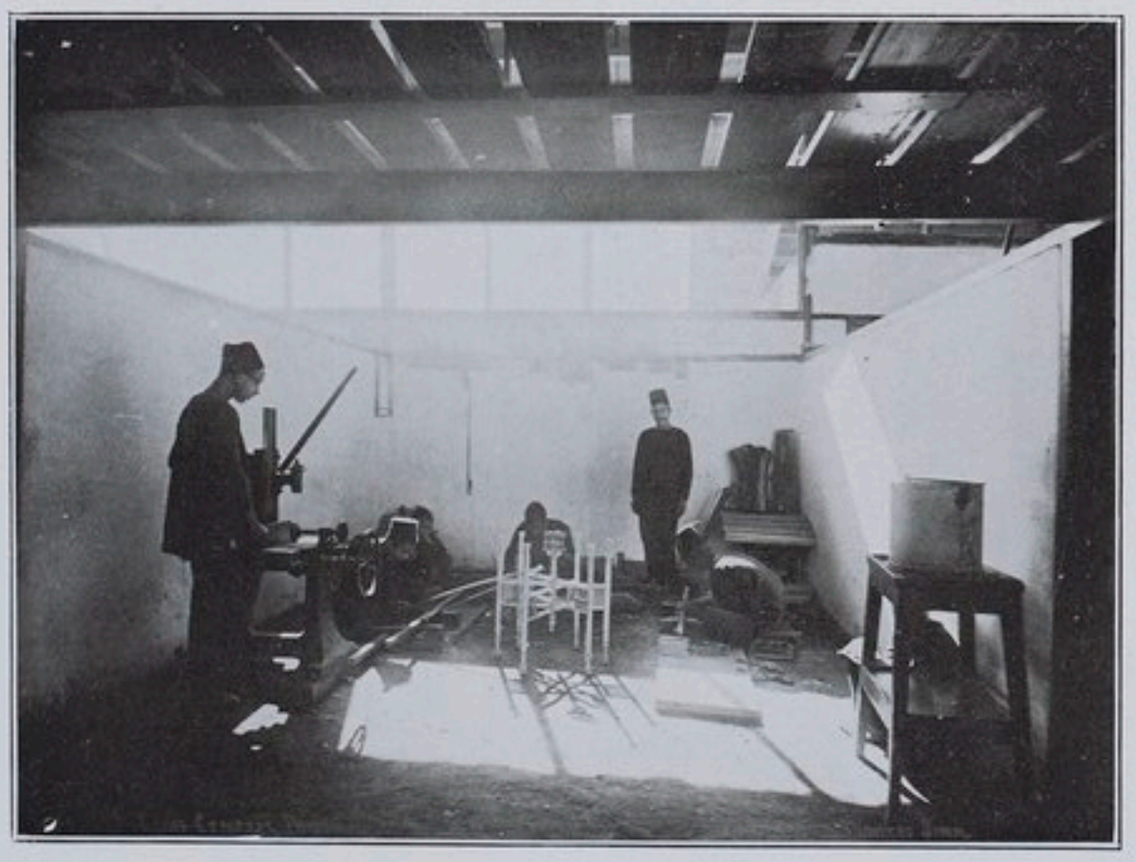
The year 1904 marked a new departure in the treatment of the juvenile Egyptian criminal. It is found that the birching of youngsters with a criminal tendency has a



MATAF MAKING, CENTRAL PRISONS.



TAILORS' SHOP CENTRAL PRISONS.

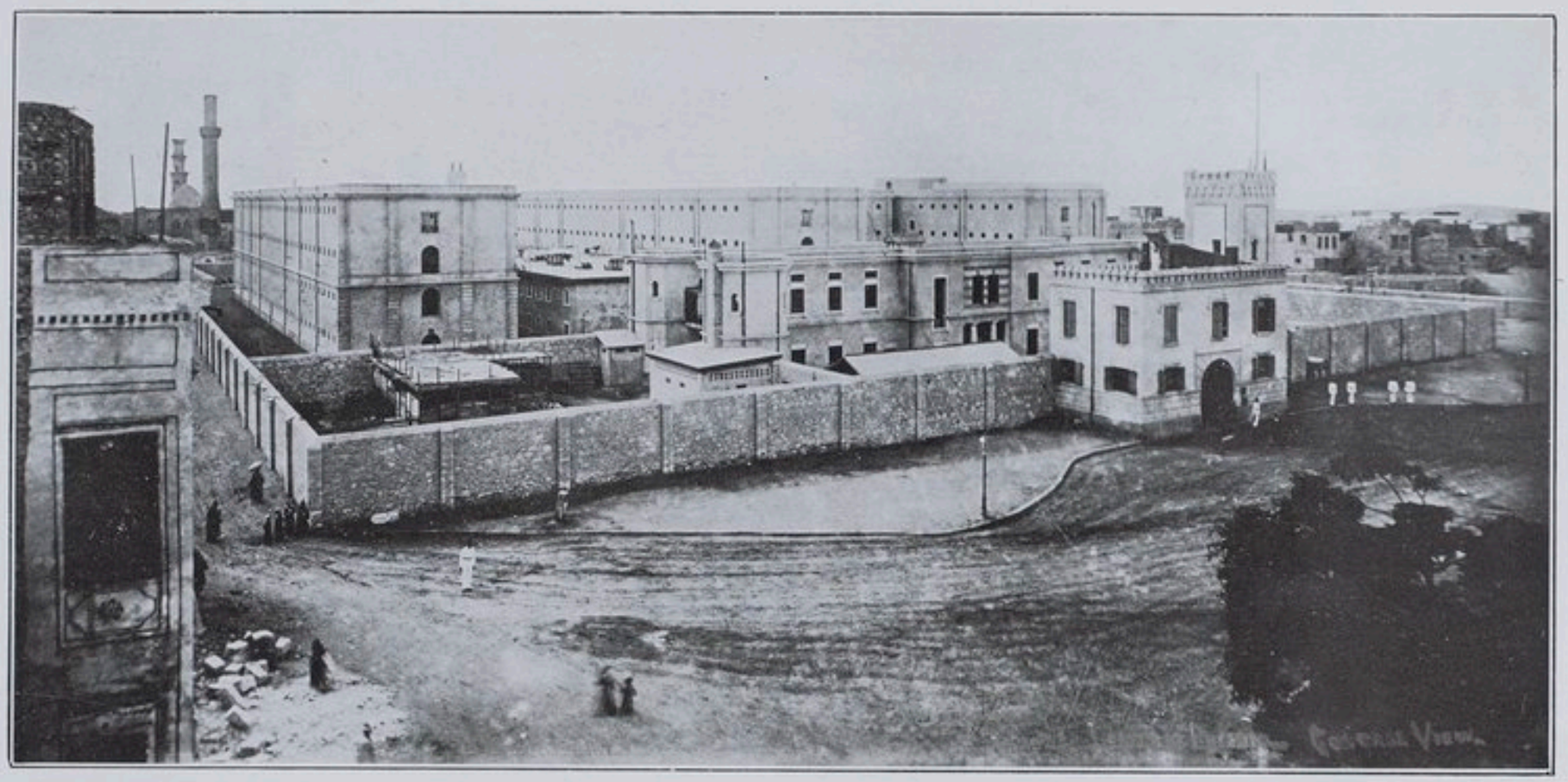


TURNERS' SHOP, CENTRAL PRISONS.



THE SCHOOL ROOM, CAIRO REFORMATORY.

salutary effect, and during the past five years there has been a reduction in the numbers of children sent to prison. During the year 1908, 1,881 juveniles were whipped, as against 1,974 in 1907. A new reformatory, built to accommodate 500 boys and 160 girls, was opened in 1907; and in that year 138 boys and 33 girls were admitted. The admissions in 1908 were 240 boys and 27 girls, and the total number of inmates on December 31, 1908, was 518 (475 boys and 43 girls), as against 438 in 1907. The large increase in the number of admissions is due to the new law dealing with waifs and strays. The children are taught dictation, penmanship, arithmetic, reading, religion, and the Koran, and, while all made satisfactory progress, it has to be noted that the children under thirteen years of age produced the most satisfactory results. The boys are taught printing, bookbinding, carpentry, shoemaking, tailoring, tinsmithery, blacksmithery, and farming, and a few of them are trained in music for the band. They are rewarded with badges for good conduct, and, under certain conditions, are allowed fifteen days' vacation in the year. At the first experiment only two out of 136 failed to report themselves after the vacation. Gratuities are also given for work done, and 396 boys had £E50.273 mills. distributed amongst them as pocket money in 1907. Boys discharged were given £E98.694 mills. on leaving, and 405 boys at the end of the year had £E807 standing to their credit in the bank, some of them having as much as £E7. The staff of the reformatory numbers 55, and its total cost in 1907 was £E7,490. Special reference is made by Dr. Kirton to the great interest and care taken by the medical officer (Dr. Ali Helmi) in the children of the reformatory, and the Inspector-General congratulates the officers on the success of their work, especially A. M. Papazian Bey, the Secretary of the Prisons Department, who devotes much of his spare time to looking after the interests of the boys. The small committees of the Umdiriehs give valuable assistance in supervising the juveniles released from the reformatory, and the recently created Protection of Children Society in Cairo has undertaken to look after juveniles residing in Cairo. With juvenile Courts, a model reformatory, and societies to continue the supervision of the young after release, Egypt may be congratulated on being up to date.



THE CAIRO CENTRAL PRISONS.

COLONEL CHARLES E. COLES PASHA, C.M.G., the Director-General of the Administration of Egyptian Prisons, was born in 1853, and is a son of Major-General Gordon Coles, of Bath.



FRENCH HOSPITAL, CAIRO.

HEALTH AND HOSPITALS.

THE records of the earliest days of the medical history of Egypt are lost in the shades of antiquity. The first mention of the subject is about 4000 B.C., when Athothis, who succeeded Menes, the first known king of Egypt, is said "to have been a physician and to have written treatises on anatomy."

Following this comes the "Papyrus Ebers" (the first definite knowledge that we have), written about 3500 B.C., the translation of the title of which is, "The book of preparation of medicines for all the corporeal parts of individuals." This document contained the names of various maladies, together with prescriptions for their cure. Among the diseases particularly mentioned is one described as a peculiar wasting fever, known as "Uchet."

Though the Egyptians at that time knew little about anatomy, their medicine was highly specialised. Every physician belonged to a sacerdotal college, and the sick had recourse to the nearest temple, whence they procured the physician best suited to their case. The fees took the form of offerings to the gods, or gifts to the temple, from which the medical staff was maintained.

Till the time of Hippocrates there were no physicians so famous as the Egyptians, but with the subjection of Egypt by Alexander the Great, and the sway of the Ptolemies, her medicine gradually succumbed to the Greek, with which it became merged.

The modern medical history of the country may be said to commence in 1820, when Mehemet Ali made an initiatory attempt at establishing trustworthy medical men by engaging a few doctors and apothecaries for his military and marine forces; but there was no chief or director among them till 1825, when a French physician named Clot was charged by the Viceroy with the duty of organising a regular medical service. The first proceeding of this gentleman was to establish a Board of Health in Cairo, having control over the *personnel*, equipment, and finances of all hospitals, as well as direction of medical affairs in general. Originally, the administration thus formed was concerned with the Army and Navy alone, but subsequently its operations were extended, and in addition to civil hospitals in all the chief towns, dispensaries were established in Cairo and Alexandria.

The Quarantine Service, now the "Sanitary Maritime and Quarantine Council of Egypt," owes its birth to the outbreak of cholera six years later (1831), and a consequent meeting of the Consular Body, into whose hands Mehemet Ali placed all means which could secure the success of the innovation. The greatest difficulty was experienced in carrying out any sanitary measures, on account of the ignorance and fanaticism of the people, who looked on such measures as contrary to divine law and against the precepts of religion. With such difficulties the Department had always, and has still to some extent, to contend. Progress was slow for other reasons, chief of which was, perhaps, the lack of sufficient funds for the carrying on and development of the work.

In a report by Greene Pasha (Director-General, 1885–1891), the following passage occurs:—

"In 1884 the offices of the (then) 'Sanitary Department' were at the Ministry of Finance, where two rooms and a passage was all that could be spared for their accommodation. There were no central stores, only a damp cellar at Kasr-el-Aini, containing, as stock, four large jars full of arsenic. Hospitals were undieted, and totally devoid of equipment, registration was extremely imperfect, and vaccination neglected or performed in a perfunctory and useless manner."

What a difference to the state of affairs extant at the present day will be shown later.

About this time (1884–86), great changes took place. A large number of employés who had drifted into the Service, without being of any real use, were dismissed. Brigade-Surgeon Greene Pasha first became Sub-Director, and a few months later Director-General, and under him the whole working of the Department was completely reorganised. The incubus that had ever held back the progress of the Administration was removed. We speak of the lack of funds sufficient for carrying out the reforms so badly needed, for after protracted negociations it was settled that half the octroi receipts of Cairo, amounting to about £E70,000 a year, should be applied to sanitation, and the recognised limit of administrative expenditure raised by a similar amount.

The present Director-General, Mr. W. P. G. Graham, formerly an officer in the R.A.M.C. and the Egyptian Army, has been in the Administration since 1895, and succeeded Sir Horace Pinching as Director-General in 1907. He is assisted by Lieutenant-Colonel Garner as Deputy Director-General, also formerly of the R.A.M.C., four Chief Inspectors, and eight (British) Divisional Inspectors. The work of the latter is chiefly in the provinces, where each has charge of a division consisting of two or three provinces or mudiriehs, each of which has an Egyptian Public Health Inspector at its head. The mudiriehs are subdivided into markazes, each in charge of an Egyptian Medical Officer, responsible through the Mudirieh Inspector to the Inspector of the Division. Below these again are the village barbers, one of whom in nearly every village is under the control of the Department. These men give information of births and deaths for purposes of registration, notice of any unusual or suspicious illness, and also assistance to agents of the Administration who may visit the village for such purposes as vaccinating, disinfecting, or the inoculating of cattle. It is hoped in time to pay these men an adequate wage (at present only a small proportion of them receive a "gratification" from the Department), and to make them act as village registrars. At present

this is impossible, as very few of them can read and write.

In this way the head of the Department is kept in touch with the remotest villages.

Also under the direction, and forming part of this Administration, are the following branches, each of which is more fully dealt with later :—

1.—General, Infectious, and Ophthalmic Hospitals, and the Hospital for the Insane.
2.—The Hygienic Institute, and Bacteriological Laboratory.
3.—The Khedivial Chemical Laboratory.
4.—The Antirabic Institute.
5.—The Engineering Department.
6.—The Veterinary Service.
7.—The Vaccine and Serum Institutes.
8.—The Medical and Veterinary Schools ; and
9.—The Statistical Department.

The total number employed by the Administration, including the above establishments, the British and Egyptian Inspectors, Medical Officers, Clerks, Messengers, &c., amounts to no less than 1,640 (not including a varying staff of day-labourers taken on from time to time when urgent or special work renders such a step necessary). Of the total number of 1,640, about 550 are *cadré* and come under pension laws.

Included in the above is an army of 145 accountants, secretaries, clerks, typists, and book-keepers ; 110 messengers, 23 porters, and (including those engaged in the various hospitals) no less than 339 other servants, besides a company of 34 sweepers.

SUB-SECTIONS OF THE ADMINISTRATION.

1. General, Infectious, and Ophthalmic Hospitals, and the Hospital for the Insane.

There are Government General Hospitals at Cairo, Alexandria, Port Said, and Suez, as well as in seventeen other smaller towns, having in all a total accommodation of 2,153 beds. The largest and most important of these is the Cairo Hospital at Kasr-el-Aini, in connection with which is the Medical School. This Hospital is under the direction of Dr. Keatinge, assisted by a capable staff of highly qualified British physicians, surgeons and nurses. There are beds for 660 patients. During the past year (1908), the number of in-patients treated was 8,161 (in 1907 the number was 7,602), while the total number of out-patients was 37,506 (33,688 in 1907). The number of operations performed during the year (exclusive of ophthalmic operations) was 1,853. The current expenditure during the year amounted to nearly £22,500.

An interesting branch of the work of this Hospital is that which deals with foundlings, the total number brought in during the year being 126. Of these many are in such a weak state from long exposure and lack of proper care and nourishment that they do not long survive their admission ; but others thrive, and when such a step is found advisable are put out to nurse. Of these, a certain proportion are ultimately adopted by people who have no children of their own.

Besides the Government General Hospitals, there are established in the principal towns several private hospitals, supported by the different nationalities and religious bodies. Among these may be mentioned :—The Anglo-American, Italian, Greek, French, and Church Missionary Hospitals in Cairo ; the Greek, German, and Israelite Hospitals in Alexandria ; the American Mission Hospital in Assiout, &c., &c.

Nearly all the Government Hospitals have a small section reserved exclusively for infectious cases ; some of these are separate buildings in the same compound as the hospital, But in Cairo the Infectious is quite apart from the General hospital. It is practically situated on the edge of the desert, yet not too far from town, and has an area of about seven acres. This Hospital is in charge of an Egyptian Medical Officer, but the bacteriological and research work is conducted by a specialist from the Central



MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS OF EGYPT.

1. Dr. Ibrahim Nachaty. 2. Dr. D. Démétriadis Bey. 3. Dr. Aly Bey Labib. 4. Dr. Hussein Yousri Bey. 5. Col. Dr. Selim Bey Monsally.
6. Dr. Mohamed Choukry Fatin. 7. Dr. Bayoumi Fathi Bey. 8. Dr. Ibrahim Pasha Hassan. 9. Dr. Élout Pasha.
10. Dr. Mahmoud Taher. 11. Dr. Mohamed Tahir. 12. Dr. Lipa Bey. 13. Dr. Ismail Sidki Bey. 14. Dr. Issa Pasha Hamdi.
15. Dr. Hassan Bey Serry. 16. Dr. Nedjmeddin Arif Bey. 17. Dr. Yacoub Wardah Bey. 18. Dr. Mohamed Samalooty.
19. Dr. S. Voronoff. 20. Dr. Adam Scheuber. 21. Dr. Nikolas Z. Joannides. 22. Dr. Faouzy Abou 'l Seoud Bey. 23. Dr. Aly Bey Ibrahim.

Administration. The staff includes a well-qualified nurse, two overseers, a clerk, male and female attendants, &c.

The hospital, which can accommodate 120 patients, is divided into two compounds; one consisting of well-built sections, divided into classes, and the other consisting of a number of wooden huts specially intended for epidemics but which can, when occasion arises, be used in ordinary times, should the accommodation in the other section not prove sufficient.

Connected with this Hospital is one of the Government disinfecting stations, fitted up with the most recent appliances for effectively carrying out disinfection of bedding, clothing, &c., not only of the hospital itself, but of half the town of Cairo, the other half being allotted to a second station at the opposite end of the city. The work is supervised by six European disinfectors, assisted by a number of Egyptians.

OPHTHALMIC HOSPITALS.

The two travelling Ophthalmic Hospitals provided and maintained under the aegis of the Department out of the interest of a capital sum of £60,000 given by Sir Ernest Cassel in 1903, for the relief of ophthalmia in Egypt, have developed into a definite branch of the Department of Public Health, which has been and will be still further extended in the future, on Government funds.

One permanent hospital has been built at Tantah, and a second is in course of construction at Assiout. The two travelling hospitals continue their work, changing their sphere of action about twice a year.

The staff consists of an Ophthalmic Surgeon, Mr. MacCallan, F.R.C.S., &c., who, under the Department, has entire charge of the scheme. He is assisted by two Inspectors (one of whom is a British ophthalmic surgeon) and a staff of five Egyptian surgeons. The number of patients examined at the hospitals during the year (1908) was 20,614, and 6,426 operations were performed. In 1907, the corresponding figures were 22,000 and 6,794. (This diminution is accounted for by the fact that for nine complete months the posts for two British Inspectors were unfilled.)

GOVERNMENT HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE.

The Hospital for the Insane is situated a few miles north of Cairo, on the edge of the desert. Originally an old dismantled palace, it has gradually been improved and enlarged. The grounds in which the hospital is built have an area of 91 acres. The additions have been built on the separate system, each section being a small hospital with its own enclosure. The sections are connected with each other and with the old main building by roads lined with trees. They are mostly of one storey only, and number twenty-four in all. The electric lighting, water and hot water supply (in great part) and the electric control clock and telephones are centralised. The institution has been organised by the present director, Dr. J. Warnock, who is now assisted by a British deputy director, six Egyptian medical officers, and a staff of about 270 attendants, nurses, clerks, &c. At present there are over 1,000 patients. Nearly 300 of these are women, and 200 are classed as "accused lunatics," *i.e.*, people accused or convicted of crime or felony, but found irresponsible for their actions on account of insanity. The number admitted in 1907 was 613, of whom 30 suffered from general paralysis. Pellagra seems to be one of the chief causes of insanity in those admitted. The use of "hasheesh" (*cannabis indica*) also accounted for 64 admissions. The death rate, calculated on the average daily number of patients, was 9·56 per cent. in 1907. One-third of the total number of patients admitted during the year came from the town of Cairo. The total cost of maintenance for the year was £E25,000, equal to about £E30·5 per patient per annum. Most patients are treated gratuitously, but a few pay sums varying from P.T. 1 to P.T. 40 daily. The total received during 1907 from this source amounted to nearly £E3,300.

The non-restraint system is followed; mechanical restraint being only used to prevent self-injury or to protect surgical dressings as in England. On account of the limited accommodation at present available, Egyptian patients are received only after being duly certified by medical men to be both insane and dangerous. Foreign patients are admitted on the order of a Consul.

2.—The Hygienic Institute (and Bacteriological Laboratory).

The Hygienic Institute, which adjoins the Central Administration buildings of the Public Health Department, is under the direction of Professor H. Bitter. The Institute is a single storied building, consisting of bacteriological and chemical laboratories, with a room for micro-photography and a small library.

One of the most important functions of the Institute is the bacteriological and serum diagnosis of infectious diseases. In practice, owing to the incidence of plague in the country, and the possibility of the introduction of cholera by pilgrims on their way to or from Mecca, these two diseases come in for a large share of attention in the laboratory. The ordinary routine is that on the occurrence of a suspected case of either disease in any of the provincial towns or villages, specimens from the patient are at once transmitted to the institute for examination, the result of which is telegraphed to the medical officer in charge of the case. A similar arrangement exists for the diagnosis of diphtheria in the town of Cairo, but here the results are transmitted by telephone and letter.

In connection with the Infectious Diseases and other Hospitals, diagnostic examinations are made for typhoid and Malta fevers, malaria, &c., and a good deal of work is done on diseases of animals for the Veterinary Section.

The water supply of Cairo is controlled by regular bacteriological and chemical examinations made in the Institute; and similar examinations are made in the cases of many provincial towns.

In addition to the routine work, research work on the diseases of the country and on various hygienic questions is constantly in progress in the Institute.

3.—The Khedivial Chemical Laboratory.

This was formerly a private laboratory, but was subsidised by the Government in 1882, and the then Khedive graciously allowed the use of his title, so it became the "Khedivial Laboratory." The amount of the annual subsidy was £E1,800. In 1886, however, the laboratory was purchased by the Government, and became part of the Public Health Department. It is at present under the direction of Mons. A. Pappel, assisted by a qualified chemist. Though it is well fitted up with the latest appliances for carrying on the particular work undertaken, through the continual increase of that work, the laboratory and its staff could be very much enlarged with advantage to both.

Among the more important branches undertaken by this section of the Public Health Department may be mentioned:

(1) The chemical control of milk and butter offered for sale in Cairo, and to a minor extent in the provinces.

(2) The analysis of drugs and chemicals sent in by the Inspector of Pharmacies. These analyses (of which 744 were made in 1907) numbered over 1,000 in 1908.

(3) The study of the water supplies both of Cairo and of many of the provincial towns In this connection 200 analyses were made during the past year.

4.—The Antirabic Institute.

This Institute was founded by Dr. Tonin, and was supported by the Italian Benevolent Society until 1906, when it was taken over by the Egyptian Government. The present director is Dr. Bain, of the Pasteur Institute in Paris, who joined the Department in May, 1906. The staff consists of a chemist, for the preparation of the serum and vaccine necessary for the work of the Institute, a clerk, and two servants.

The work of the Institute is twofold. First, the preventive immunisation of people bitten by animals rabid or suspected of rabies. Second, research work on suspected animals, &c. The immunisation is effected by combined vaccination and seropathy. The vaccine used is obtained from the spinal cord of rabbits that have been inoculated with a fixed virus, while the serum is yielded by goats and sheep that have been immunised and hyper-immunised.

The number of people treated is shown in the following table:—

Year.	Egyptians.	Europeans domiciled in Egypt.	Patients from abroad.	Total.
1906	327	63	11	411
1907	421	72	22	515
1908	537	54	36	627
Totals	1,285	189	69	1,553

As all patients are kept very carefully under observation for at least a year, the statistics are as nearly exact as is possible, and it is found that the rate of mortality of the patients treated is a very low one (almost identical with that of similar European institutions), viz. 0·49 per cent. in 1906; 0·43 per cent. in 1907; and 0·65 per cent. in 1908.

5.—The Engineering Department.

The Engineering Department is under the direction of a highly qualified sanitary engineer, with a staff of three British and twenty European and Egyptian assistants. In addition to these, when any special work has to be carried out, a number of temporary workmen are employed and are dismissed on completion of the work in hand.

The work of the Department includes the designing and supervision of all new buildings under the control of the Director-General, including hospitals, abattoirs, public health offices, disinfecting stations, &c., as well as the keeping in repair of these buildings, and also the sanitation as regards water supply and drainage of all public buildings.

Sanitary measures in connection with "Etablissements Insalubres," filling in of "birkas" (stagnant pools), the sanitation of mosques and baths, the choice of sites and planning of cemeteries, are also undertaken by the engineers of this Department.

6.—The Veterinary Service, and

7.—The Vaccine and Serum Institutes.

The Veterinary Section is under the direction of a Chief Veterinary Inspector, Mr. W. Littlewood, M.R.C.V.S., &c., who has been connected with the Administration since 1886. He is assisted by eight British and twenty-eight Egyptian Inspectors. Of the latter, five are attached to head office, the remainder working in the provinces. There is also an office staff of seven clerks under a chef de bureau. The scope of this section includes the supervision of the Contagious Diseases (Animals) Act; advice to the Government on all veterinary questions; charge of all animals (about 2,500) of the Civil Departments of the Government; inspection of all abattoirs, cattle markets, stables, cowsheds, milk shops, tanneries, &c., and, in addition, the supervision of the Veterinary School.

The Vaccine Institute (providing lymph for vaccination purposes) is also under the direction of the Chief Veterinary Inspector. It provides not only for Government needs, but also sells large quantities of lymph to the Egyptian Army and the Army of Occupation, as well as to private practitioners and hospitals. It gives gratuitously a certain quantity yearly to various charities. The quantity collected last year amounted to no less than 515,530 doses, and owing to its careful preparation, the vaccine is of the first quality.

The Serum Institute is under the direction of a British bacteriologist, assisted by two veterinary surgeons, four native assistants, a British overseer, two clerks, and sixty saises or cattle grooms. The number of animals naturally varies considerably, but at the time of writing there are 360 cattle besides horses, camels, donkeys, mules, and smaller animals.

The primary work of the Institute is to supply an anti-toxic serum against cattle plague. About 30 litres of this serum are produced daily. This is obtained by injecting the blood of animals infected with the disease into others which have been rendered immune. From the latter, at intervals varying from a fortnight upwards, a quantity of blood is taken, and from this a serum is obtained which proves of the very greatest prophylactic value when injected in small quantities into cattle in infected areas.

Besides this, an anti-scorpion serum is being obtained from horses; animals are under observation for Egyptian, Texas, and other fevers, and guinea pigs are bred in large numbers to supply the laboratories.

8.—The Medical and Veterinary Schools.

The Cairo School of Medicine, which forms part of the Ministry of Education, is in connection with the General Hospital at Kasr-el-Aini, and Dr. Keatinge, who is Director of this hospital, is also head of the Medical School. He is assisted by a large staff of European professors, holding qualifications from the best universities of England and the Continent. The greater percentage of the students enter the service of the Government on the completion of their training.

In order to provide suitably qualified Egyptian lecturers for future service in the school, the Government, during the past year, has decided to send certain of the more promising of the students to an English University for a course of training in some special branch. These on their return will enter the school as assistant lecturers or professors, and in time will, if found suitable, rise to higher positions in the school.

The Veterinary School.—This school contains at present about forty students. There are nine lecturers, of whom six are European. The course is a four years' one. The school trains men who afterwards become either veterinary inspectors, teachers in the school, or private practitioners.

9.—The Statistical Department.

This department is under the direction of Dr. Franz Engel Bey, who has been connected with the Administration since 1880. He has an office staff of ten under a chef de bureau. The work of this Department includes the control of registration, collection and tabulation of births and deaths in the whole country, registration of vaccination, and the issuing of various publications on these and other subjects. Chief of these are:—

(1) A weekly return showing the numbers of births and deaths (with ages and causes of death) in the principal towns, and of infectious diseases in the whole country.
(2) Quarterly and yearly returns of births and deaths (giving ages and diseases, deaths by violence, &c.) in the principal towns, and of infectious diseases in the whole country.
(3) Yearly returns of births, deaths, and vaccinations in the whole country.
(4) Tabulation of movement in the hospitals.
(5) Occasional reports on births, deaths, mortality, epidemics, &c.

Copies of birth and death registration certificates are also issued at any time on demand.

VITAL STATISTICS.

According to the census of 1907, the enumerated population of Egypt (excluding Bedouins) is given as 11,189,978.

Of these, nearly ten millions are Egyptians, the remainder being foreigners of various nationalities. It is difficult, however, if not impossible, to calculate with any exactitude the foreign population of the country; firstly, because neither the Bedouins nor the Europeans are subject to any fixed law as regards registration of births; and, secondly, the numbers entering and leaving the country must cause a continual fluctuation in the total. The figures for 1897, however, were estimated as follows:—Bedouins 602,139, and foreigners 112,447.

Among the latter are people from every country in Europe, and from most of the other countries in the world. No less than nineteen nationalities are represented officially (*i.e.* have one or more consuls) in the country. Of these sixteen are European, the remaining three being Persia, the United States, and Brazil.

After the Egyptians, the Greeks are most numerous, of whom it is estimated there are about 40,000. Next in numerical order come the Italians (25,500), then the British, who (including Indians and Maltese) number about 20,000.

Though notifications of births amongst foreigners is not compulsory, the Public Health Administration has been informed of 1,299 births amongst Europeans during the past year. In 1907, the figure was 1,508.

The registration of deaths is more under control, as death certificates must be produced before an interment order is issued. In 1907 the deaths among the foreign population amounted to 2,584, equal to an annual death-rate on the estimated foreign population of about 23 per thousand.

Detailed statistics for the whole of Egypt collectively are not available, but for the towns particulars have been prepared for 1908 by Dr. Engel Bey, Chief of the Statistical Bureau of the Administration, from whose tables the following figures have been obtained:—

Towns.	People.	Population.	Births.	per 1,000.	Deaths.	per 1,000.
Cairo	Egyptian	648,964	31,225	47·5	22,721	34·6
	Foreign	35,219	424	—	943	(26·8)
Alexandria	Egyptian	333,068	15,160	44·9	10,119	30·0
	Foreign	46,119	481	—	908	(19·6)
Port Said	Egyptian	47,648	2,096	43·1	974	20·0
	Foreign	11,322	172	—	152	(13·4)

It is interesting to note from the above table the proportion of Egyptians to foreigners in these towns. In the case of Port Said there are about four Egyptians to every foreigner. In Alexandria the proportion is approximately seven to one, while in Cairo it is over eighteen to one.

INFANTILE MORTALITY.

For purposes of comparison of the infantile mortality among the Egyptian and European population, the figures for the 20 principal towns are here given for 1908:—

(a) *Egyptians.*—The estimated total (Egyptian) population of the 20 principal towns (1908) is 1,566,948, and the number of deaths 511,135, equal to an annual death-rate of 32·6 per 1,000. Of these 19,511 (38·2 per cent.) were of children under 1 year, and a further 7,528 (or 14·7 per cent.) of children between the ages of 1 and 2. That is, nearly 53 per cent. of the total deaths occurred among children under 2 years of age.

(b) *Foreigners.*—The number of deaths that occurred among foreigners during 1908 in the same towns was 2,215. Of these 449 were of children under 1 year (*i.e.*, 20·3 per cent. of total deaths), and a further 167 (or 7·5 per cent.) of children more than 1 but less than two years old, making a total of 616 (or nearly 28 per cent.) of deaths occurring under 2 years.

This is shown in the following table:—

People.	Total Deaths.	Deaths under 1 year.	Per cent.	Deaths between 1 & 2.	Per cent.	Total deaths under 2 years.	Per cent.
Egyptians	511,135	19,511	38·2	7,528	14·7	27,039	53·0
Foreigners	2,215	449	20·3	167	7·5	616	27·8

The above table shows a striking difference between the death-rate of Egyptians and foreigners, the former being 53 per cent. and

the latter only 27·8 of total deaths for children under two years of age. This is undoubtedly due to the greater care paid to children of European parentage (both under ordinary conditions and when they are ailing) than to those of the natives, as a large proportion of the deaths occurring among these latter during the first year is due to intestinal troubles, caused by improper feeding, while the deaths occurring from one to (say) five years are for the most part the result of measles or complications following measles, owing to inadequate treatment or neglect, complications usually taking the form of lung troubles, bronchitis, or pneumonia, which in children already weakened by the measles are particularly apt to have a fatal effect.

This is a state of affairs that can only be improved by the education of the parents, many of whom at present look on illness as being only the "Will of God," and therefore not to be gainsaid.

INFECTIOUS DISEASES.

CHOLERA, PLAGUE, AND OPHTHALMIA.

Among the many infectious diseases the Department has continually to be ready to combat, and from which countries in cooler latitudes have comparatively little to fear, are cholera, plague, and ophthalmia.

In dealing with the sub-sections of the Egyptian Public Health Department, the method of dealing with ophthalmia (from which so many Egyptians suffer) and the Ophthalmic Section of the Department have been described briefly, as has also the Hospital for Infectious Diseases at Abbassieh; but as the country is from time to time liable to an outbreak of cholera, especially at the time of the great Mahomedan pilgrimage, a few words on the subject, and the precautions taken to guard against an outbreak of this disease, may not be considered out of place.

Every year thousands of pilgrims from Algeria, Tunis, Turkey, and other places north of Egypt, make their way to Mecca. They must necessarily pass either across the Delta or through the Suez Canal. In the Hedjaz they meet, and to a greater or lesser extent mingle with, other pilgrims from India and the Far East, where cholera is endemic. Conveyed from these latter, cholera would very readily enter the country were not special means taken to prevent it. Every year, therefore, at the time of the pilgrimage, more especially on the return, the strictest precautions are taken:—

(*a*) To guard against the admission of the disease, and

(*b*) To control, as far as possible, its spread, should it once gain access to the country.

With regard to (*a*) guarding against the admission. This is to a large extent the affair of the International Quarantine Board in so far as the first line of defence is concerned, which acts in accordance with regulations laid down by the Paris Conference of 1903. The action of the Board is then supplemented by the Department of Public Health, and the routine measures edicted by the latter are arranged in close connection and sequence with those of the Board, so that a continuity of defence is assured.

In order to avoid the introduction of the disease by foreign pilgrims, if possible (when coming from or through an infected country or district), they are not permitted to land at all, but pass through the Canal in strict quarantine, both on the outward and return journeys; those who land at Alexandria to embark again at Suez, or vice-versâ, are received at the port of entry by the quarantine authorities, and handed over to the Public Health Department. They then remain from five to seven days under observation, and, finally, special arrangements are made for passing them on to the port of embarkation, where they are again kept under observation till embarking.

On the return of the Egyptian pilgrims, they have first to pass a fixed period of quarantine at Tor, in accordance with the pilgrimage regulations. On arriving at Suez their names and destinations are extracted from their passports, and they are allowed to proceed. Meanwhile, the Medical Officer (of the Public Health Department) in whose district any of such pilgrims reside is warned of their arrival, and he keeps them under observation for a period sufficient to ensure against any suspicious illness occurring without the knowledge of the Department.

(*b*) The control of the spread of the disease, should it once get a footing in the country, is a matter of the very greatest difficulty, and under existing circumstances cannot be looked to with any confidence. Not the least important reason is perhaps the extreme rapidity with which the infection spreads and the difficulty of obtaining immediate information of an outbreak.

Prophylactic measures must be arranged and staff and equipment organised in advance, for it would be fatal to await the outbreak of the disease before taking such steps; and as the risk of infection is not confined to the few weeks during which the pilgrims return, but may occur at any time, the country must be always ready to take up a fight with the disease. Preparations are accordingly made and orders formulated, which, on any town or district becoming infected, would come into operation immediately. Among the more important of these are those relating to—

1. Isolation of sick and measures of disinfection connected therewith.
2. Careful observation and isolation of contacts.
3. Mobilisation of temporary hospitals, with necessary staff and equipment.
4. The control of water and food supplies, and many other matters of detail too numerous to mention here.

PLAGUE.

Of the two distinct forms of plague, the bubonic is much the less virulent, and bacteriologists are agreed that this form of the disease is largely if not exclusively transmitted by the agency of rats, and is not directly infectious from man to man. The main danger, however, is that when the bubonic form exists, and proper treatment is not available, there is always the liability, under special conditions, of the more dangerous pneumonic form developing from it, which is to be dreaded both on account of the extreme rapidity with which it spreads, and also on account of the fatal nature of the disease.

The earliest records existing in the Department show that as far back as 1834 the disease existed in Alexandria, and that in 1835 the number of deaths attributed to plague in that town numbered 8,343, of which 4,459 occurred in a single month (March). The population of Alexandria at that time was probably little over 75,000, which would give a death rate of over 110 per 1,000. The total number of deaths from plague during the ten years ending 1843 was 12,380. After this the disease died out, but the country became reinfected in 1899, when 93 cases, with 45 deaths, occurred in Alexandria. During the last ten years (1899 to 1908 inclusive), the figure for the whole of Egypt is only 3,509, *i.e.* considerably less than occurred in Alexandria in a single month in 1835. This is largely due to modern methods used in combating this disease, which consist chiefly in—

(1) Obtaining early information of its appearance.
(2) Isolation or observation of patients and of those who have been associated with them.
(3) Immediate and thorough disinfection.

Information is obtained by telephone or telegraph from the centre where the outbreak occurs, the local and central Public Health Authorities are at once apprised, and the Markaz Medical Officer proceeds to take immediate steps for the provision of a temporary plague hospital, and the special plague inspector is communicated with. So also is the nearest disinfecting station, and a gang of disinfectors proceeds immediately to the infected area, which is at once systematically disinfected.

EXPENDITURE.

In order to give some idea of the annual expenditure incurred by the Department, it will be sufficient to give some figures from the Budget for the last two years, which show the amounts available for expenditure under the different heads.

In the Budget for 1909, the estimated expenditure of the Egyptian Government for the year is given as £E15,100,000 (fifteen million one hundred thousand Egyptian pounds). In 1908, it was £E1,473,000. Of this, the following sums may be included in the general acceptance of the term Public Health Expenditure:—

(*a*) Public Health Department: ordinary expenditure—1909, £E291,405; 1908, £E278,244.

(*b*) Public Health Department: special expenditure—1909, £E48,988; 1908, £E36,000.

(*c*) Expenditure of the Quarantine Board—1909, £E78,362; 1908, £73,562.

(*a*) This sum covers such annually recurrent expenses as salaries, upkeep of hospitals (general, infectious, insane, and ophthalmic), laboratories, &c., and ordinary expenditure of the veterinary section.

(*b*) The "special expenditure" includes such items as are not regarded as recurrent annually, such as cost of new buildings, credits for combating plague, cholera, cattle-plague, &c.

(*c*) The expenditure of the Quarantine Board is met by the income derived from quarantine dues, &c., with the exception of a grant or allocation from the Government amounting to £E7,500 per annum.

Mr. W. P. G. GRAHAM, M.B., who is now Director-General of the Sanitary and Public Health Department, like so many other officials in Egypt, served for some years in the British Army. He retired from the Royal Army Medical Corps in July, 1887, to take service under the Khedive. As will be seen from the facts given in our article on public health, great changes have been effected in Egypt under the new régime, and to Mr. Graham's initiative is due much credit for the various improvements.

ANGLO-AMERICAN HOSPITAL.

The idea of an Anglo-American Hospital was realised as the outcome of a meeting,

held at the Savoy Hotel in March, 1901. Lord Cromer and His Honour Judge J. S. Long presided, and a resolution was passed that subscriptions be invited with a view to the creation of such a hospital.

The hospital was built on a site next to the racecourse on Gezireh Island, and was opened in January, 1903. It contains special, private, and general wards, and has altogether twenty-two beds. Owing to the generosity of the late Sir Hugh Smiley and of Mr. Leigh Hunt, there are two free beds for patients without means.

Patients are admitted without respect to nationality, though preference is given to British and American subjects; and on an average some 275 cases pass through the institution during the course of a year. Modern surgical appliances are to hand in the well-equipped operating theatre, stocked with such drugs as are in constant use.

Maintenance charges are met by patients' payments, and by subscriptions and donations.

The management is vested in an executive committee, elected out of a general committee of twenty-four members of which H. B. M. Agent and Consul-General and the Agent and Consul-General of the United States are *ex-officio* chairman and vice-chairman. An honorary medical staff is attached to the hospital, while the matron is assisted by seven fully-trained English nurses.

L'HÔPITAL FRANÇAIS DU CAIRE.

The Hôpital français du Caire owes its foundation to the initiative and generosity of M. the Marquis de Reverseaux, a former Minister for France in Cairo. Funds were raised locally, and these were supplemented by a grant from the French Government, and the hospital, begun in 1898, was opened on March 25, 1901. It is situated on a hill in the Abbassieh quarter, on the outskirts of the town, and patients have the advantage of the pure and invigorating desert air. It has accommodation for about sixty persons, who are received without respect to nationality. During 1907, 661 cases passed through the wards, made up as follows:—French, 210; English, 18; Italian, 22; German, 8; Greek, 178; Austro-Hungarian, 5; Belgian, 5; Ottoman, 204; and Russian and Spanish, 10.

The hygienic and sanitary conditions to be found at the hospital are of the most modern kind, and continual effort is made by the authorities to keep abreast of the advances of science in regard to medical and surgical appliances.

The administration is undertaken by a council of which the French Minister in Cairo is honorary president, and the French Consul president. The medical director is Dr. Brossard, whose reputation, acquired during a practice extending over fifteen years in Egypt, is a sure guarantee of the success of the institution. In recognition of his eminent and disinterested services he has been created by the French Government a Chevalier of the Legion of Honour. His collaborators are Dr. Pupier, Dr. Diamantis, Dr. Duverger (specialist in diseases of the ear, nose, and larynx), Dr. Marini (oculist), and Dr. Gatineau (surgeon-dentist). The nursing of the sick and other matters connected with the interior administration of the hospital, are confided to the Filles de la Charité de St. Vincent de Paul, who are assisted by male ward attendants.

For upwards of four years the hospital has been provided with a bacteriological laboratory, which is under the direction of Dr. Pupier, a former pupil of Professor Arloing, of Lyons, and of the Pasteur Institute, Paris. All kinds of researches necessary to the diagnosis of diseases can be carried on. There is also a radiological laboratory, which permits of the practice of operations by means of radiography, radioscopy, and radiotherapy for the diagnosis and treatment of various maladies.

L'ASSOCIATION INTERNATIONALE D'ASSISTANCE PUBLIQUE.

This association was established in Cairo in May, 1907, on lines broadly similar to those of the St. John Ambulance and kindred societies in England and on the Continent. Already its useful work, which was begun actively in March, 1908, has commended itself to the public, and thanks to the devotion of voluntary helpers and to the generosity of donors and subscribers, the association from the outset has been in a position to pay its way and free from any incubus of debt.

The headquarters are situated immediately opposite the British Consulate in the Chareh Gameh Charkass. The house stands in its own grounds at some distance from the road. The old salemlek, or lodge, near the gate, has been converted into a surgery, where patients are treated upon arrival; while the main building contains offices and committee rooms, an inspector's room, and bedrooms for the volunteers.

The system of working is simple and at the same time thorough. As soon as a case is reported by telephone or other means from any part of the town, a cyclist is despatched to the spot with first-aid requisites. If he finds the case to be a serious one, he telephones for help, and a "team" of men is sent with an ambulance, and the patient is brought to headquarters, where a medical officer is always in attendance. There are at present ten or twelve teams of seven men each, and there are cubicles at headquarters for three teams, so that by night or day men are always available for service. Each of the men receives training in first-aid principles from members of the medical committee, which consists of four honorary and three paid doctors.

The cases treated by the association are of the most varied description. Perhaps the largest classes under which they fall are those of burns, received as a result of the bursting of oil lamps; of poisoning from scorpion stings; of accidents due to the carelessness of local cab-drivers and motorists, and of injuries from the collapse of buildings. It should be noted that cases are treated without reference to race or creed, and that no charge whatever is made; though, needless to say, many patients are glad to consider themselves under obligation to the association and to discharge that obligation as liberally as their means will allow.

The general working of the association is in the hands of an executive committee of three inspectors, the members at present being G. Martini, E. Camilleri, and V. Sarda. The expenses, which amount to about £E120 a month, are met by members' subscriptions, by the proceeds of lotteries, fêtes, masked balls, concerts, &c., and by contributions from the public. Life members pay £E10; honorary and committee members pay P.T. 120 annually; and active members, who are liable to be called upon for service, pay P.T. 60 a year. There is a further category which includes volunteers who pay no subscription, but are required to give their services at stated hours.

The honorary president of the association is H.E. Dr. Onofrio Abbate Pasha; the active president is H.E. Idris Pasha Ragheb; the vice-president is F. de Martino Bey, and the general secretary is Mr. G. Carri. The honorary medical committee comprises Dr. Abbas Bey Helmy, Dr. Walter Innes Bey, Dr. R. Tonin, and Dr. R. Amster. In addition to the foregoing, the general committee includes:—O. Cartoni, G. Sierra, J. E. W. Peacock, E. Buccianti, P. Barbey, V. Ticci, A. Garofallo, V. Buccianti, G. Martini, E. Camilleri, V. Sarda, G. Bertini, J. Parienti, F. W. Hart, D. Caralli, and Fadlallah Gazal.

H.E. DR. IBRAHIM PASHA HASSAN held the post of Director of the Government Medical School in Cairo from 1891 till 1896, and since 1896 has been honorary president; and though he has now retired from active official service he still finds some scope for his activities as a member of the Water Commission. This year he is to be one of the representatives of the Egyptian Government at the International Medical Conference at Buda-Pesth. He has attended in the past similar congresses at London, Berlin, and Bombay. Born in Cairo in 1844, he was educated in Paris and Berlin, specialising in forensic medicine. When twenty-six years of age, he was appointed to a post in the School of Medicine, where he remained nine years. He was then attached as medical adviser to ex-Khedive Ismael, and went abroad with His Highness for nine years. On his return he was appointed Sanitary Inspector to the Board of Health under the Ministry of the Interior, but two years later he was once more appointed to the Medical School as a professor of forensic medicine. He published a valuable treatise on that subject, and also one entitled "Pathologie Interne." He has been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh (third class) and Mejidieh (first class), with the Order of the Crown of Italy (third grade), and with the Academique Palme Française. His elder son, Dr. Aly Bey Ibrahim, was born in 1875, and was educated at Naples with the sons of Khedive Ismael Pasha for seven years, and afterwards at Munich, where he secured his diplomas and M.D. degree. He toured the Continent for a year, and on his return to Egypt in 1901 opened a practice in Cairo as a surgical specialist. He is attached to the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital. Botany is his favourite study, and he is engaged on a comprehensive work on that subject. Dr. Ibrahim's second son is in Minieh, where he holds the position of Chief Director of the Children's Hospital.

LE DOCTEUR HASSAN BEY SERRY, avant l'obtention de la pension il y a douze ans, occupa pendant dix-sept ans le poste de médecin officiel, et d'inspecteur sanitaire de toutes les écoles du Gouvernement au Caire. Avant cela il occupa l'emploi de médecin officiel dans la province de Ghizeh, puis médecin officiel en chef à Ramleh et à Alexandrie; ensuite chef du service sanitaire de la police dans le district de Darb el Gamamize. En quittant le service du Gouvernement il ouvrit une pharmacie au Caire et obtint une petite clientèle, mais il céda cette pharmacie depuis quatre ans et vit maintenant retiré. Il est bey au degré de Mutamaiz et a obtenu la médaille du Congrès de Médecine. Il est né au Caire en 1853 et fit ses études à l'école

de Kasr-el-Aini ; il passa son doctorat à l'âge de vingt-deux ans. Son père, feu Ali Pacha Ibrahim, fut à son temps ingénieur inspecteur au canal de Suez, ayant fait ses études comme ingénieur militaire à Metz. En conséquence il débuta au Ministère de l'Instruction publique et il obtint au moment de l'occupation anglaise une position au Ministère de la Justice. Le Docteur Hassan Bey a un fils, Mohamed Bey Serry, qui est né à Alexandrie en 1882 et qui etudia à l'Ecole Tewfikieh du Gouvernement. Il partit pour Paris où il obtint sa licence à la faculté de droit et revint en Egypte en 1906, et l'année suivante épousa la fille d'Emin Pacha Shamsi. C'est un homme d'un physique robuste ; il est pationné pour les sports. Il a considérablement voyagé, et pendant qu'il reste sur le Continent il cultive et développe son goût et ses capacités pour la musique.

DR. ALY BEY LABIB, surgeon at the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital, studied medicine at the Government Schools in Cairo, and took his diploma in 1888. From that time he has been connected with the hospital, first as assistant to Dr. Milton, then as sub-director, and now as surgeon and teacher of gynecology. He has written numerous articles on medical subjects, especially on bilharzia and urinary fistula. Fond of travel, he has visited most European countries. A son of the late Major Shafai Bedawi, he was born in Cairo, and is now in his forty-third year. He is married to a cousin of Sayed Tewfik el-Bakry, and has one son and three daughters.

DR. SAMUEL SERGE VORONOFF, a nationalised French subject of Russian origin, was born at Voronège, Russia, in 1866, and was educated in Paris, taking his degree as Bachelor of Science at the Sorbonne. He practised in France, as an assistant to various well-known medical men, until 1894, when, at the request of some friends in Egypt, he established himself in Cairo. He became medical adviser to the Khedive, and in 1898 he created an International Medical Society. Later, he conceived the idea of holding a Medical Congress for the study of diseases peculiar to hot countries, and this, meeting with the approval of the present Khedive and of the leading medical authorities, was, in 1902, carried into effect. Dr. Voronoff was appointed Secretary-General of the Congress and Vice-President of the Surgical Section ; and one of the features of the gathering was his report on the "Surgical Treatment of Abscess of the Liver in Egypt." Many contributions from his pen have appeared in such well-known journals as the *Archives orientales*, Paris, the *Bulletin de la Société médicale du Caire*, and the *Revue de Gynécologie* of Paris. His published books include "Etudes de Gynécologie et de Chirurgie générale," and a "Manuel pratique d'Opérations gynécologiques." He has recently founded a fortnightly journal entitled *La Presse médicale d'Egypte*. In 1908 Dr. Voronoff opened a free school for nurses in connection with his private hospital in the Avenue de Shoubra, and already much useful work has been done by the students. He is a Grand Officer of the Order of Mejidieh, this distinction having been conferred upon him in recognition of his services in organising the medical congress above mentioned.

MONSIEUR LE DOCTEUR HUSSEIN YOUSRI BEY, qui prit son diplôme à l'Université de Paris, est un spécialiste des maladies nerveuses et des troubles internes, et son habileté chirurgicale est de toutes façons à la hauteur de celle des meilleurs praticiens européens. Il possède une nombreuse clientèle comprenant plusieurs des principales familles du Caire. Il édite une feuille médicale mensuelle, intitulée "Hippocrate," dans les colonnes de laquelle il a publié de nombreux articles sur la question de la fourniture publique de l'eau, en soutenant des opinions qui ont été approuvées par des experts anglais, français et allemands. Fils de Mohamed Bey Shakir, fonctionnaire du Gouvernement en retraite, il naquit en 1868, et fit ses études à l'école de médecine du Gouvernement au Caire. A son retour de Paris en 1893, il fut pendant trois ans, avant de s'établir pour son compte, attaché au Département de la Santé publique comme inspecteur médical pour le Mousky et le district de Darb-el-Ahmar.

DR. ADAM SCHEUBER, specialist for diseases of the skin, and the author of several valuable works on the subject, has been established in Cairo since 1898. Born at Riga in 1868, he studied medicine at Dorpat, and then spent a year and a half with Hofrat Professor Kaposi, of Vienna. He qualified as a doctor of medicine in 1894, and for the next four years "walked" various hospitals in Vienna, Berlin, Paris, and Prague. Just before coming to Egypt he was assistant to Hofrat Professor F. I. Pick, at the Royal Imperial College for Skin Diseases at Prague. His surgery and consulting rooms are situated in the Duke of Sutherland's Building, Sharia el-Genaina, Cairo.

LE DOCTEUR NIKOLAS Z. JOANNIDES, après avoir terminé ses études médicales à l'Université de Berlin, et étudié avec le Professeur Neisser à Breslau et à Paris, vint au Caire en 1904, et est depuis bien connu comme spécialiste des maladies de la peau. A sa clinique de la rue du Télégraphe égyptien, il possède une grande collection de modèles et de spécimens des maladies épidermiques, ainsi qu'une installation électrique complète, y compris tout le necessaire à la photographie par les rayons X. Il a également une seconde clinique au Mousky. Descendant de l'ancienne famille grecque des Kokoslis, il est né à Athènes en 1878, au moment de la révolution de Thessalie, et fit ses études en Grèce, en Allemagne et en France. Il a été décoré de l'Ordre du Sauveur par le roi de Grèce. Son père, Zacharie Joannides, est un banquier bien connu de Volo.

DR. D. J. DÉMÉTRIADIS, Norwegian delegate to the Conseil Sanitaire Maritime et Quarantenaire d'Egypte, came to Alexandria in 1888 to practise as an oculist, and was president of the Ophthalmological Society of Egypt. A son of Dr. Jean Démétriadis, a former medical practitioner at Constantinople, he was born at Sifno, Greece, in 1862, and was educated at the Faculté d'Athènes. Proceeding to Paris, he continued his studies at the Eye Hospital of Dr. Galezowski and Dr. Wecker, where he remained for three and a half years. Dr. Démétriadis has founded special wards for eye diseases in the Greek and Menasce Hospitals in Alexandria, and is a liberal supporter of various local philanthropic organisations. He is president of the Greek Scientific Society, and a member of all the principal Hellenic institutions. He devotes much of his leisure to literary work, and has contributed numerous articles on Egyptian Ophthalmic diseases to various French and other medical journals. Married to Aretie, a daughter of the late Theodore Naoum, merchant, of Alexandria, he has one son and one daughter.

LE DOCTEUR D. J. DÉMÉTRIADIS, délégué de Norvège au Conseil Sanitaire, Maritime et Quarantenaire d'Egypte, vint à Alexandrie en 1888 pour y exercer sa profession d'oculiste, et devint Président de la Société Ophtalmologique d'Egypte. Fils du Dr. Jean Démétriadis, ancien médecin de Constantinople, il est né à Sifno (Grèce), en 1862, et fit ses études à la Faculté d'Athènes. Parti pour Paris, il les continua à l'Hôpital Ophtalmologique des Docteurs Galezowski et Wecker, où il séjourna pendant trois ans et demi. Le Dr. Démétriadis a fondé une clinique spéciale pour les maladies des yeux à l'Hôpital Grec, ainsi qu'à l'Hôpital Menasce à Alexandrie, et donne un appui libéral à diverses sociétés philanthropiques locales. Président de la Société Grecque Scientifique, il est membre des principales institutions helléniques. Il emploie ses loisirs à des travaux littéraires, et a publié d'importants articles dans des journaux français et étrangers sur les maladies ophtalmiques en Egypte. Il est marié avec Mlle. Arétie Naoum, fille de feu Théodore Naoum, et en a eu un fils et une fille.

DR. MOHAMED CHOUKRY FATIN, who has been in private practice in Cairo for four years, has the Egyptian medical degree, and is a post-graduate of the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital, where he spent two years after leaving the Cairo Government Medical School. He has been attached for the past two years to the Kalaon Hospital for Eye Diseases, and at the same time has been associated with Dr. Madden, the well-known specialist. He has some literary ability, and has written articles on hypnotism and spiritualism, as well as a brief history of medicine. He is a member of the High Schools Club and of the Constitutional Reform Club.

LE DOCTEUR FAOUZY ABOU'L SEOUD BEY, se spécialisa comme oculiste après cinq ans d'études à Paris, et s'est établi depuis 1897 au No. 16 de la rue Abdine, au Caire. Né dans cette dernière ville en 1873, il obtint à vingt-et-un ans le diplôme de l'Ecole gouvernementale de Médecine, et avant d'aller en Europe, il fut pendant quelque temps employé à la Direction des Services Sanitaires. Il consacre tout le temps dont il peut disposer à des études scientifiques, et en reconnaissance des services qu'il rendit en publiant une série d'articles sur les maladies des yeux pour le Congrès egyptien de 1902, il lui fut décerné une médaille d'honneur.

DR. IBRAHIM NACHATY, B.Sc., M.D., who has been in medical practice in Cairo since 1907, is a son of G. Nachaty Bey, a prominent official of the Egyptian State Railway Department, and was born at Alexandria in 1883. He was educated at the Collège des Frères, Cairo, until he reached the age of sixteen, and then went to Baltimore to study medicine. After graduating, he visited Paris, London, and Vienna, in 1905, and made a special study of genito-urinary and venereal diseases. He is an enthusiastic sportsman, with a preference for shooting and riding.

DR. MOHAMED SAMALOOTY for the past two or three years has acted as private assistant to Dr. Fischer, the well-known specialist in eye diseases at the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital. Trained at the Government Medical School in Cairo, he took his diploma in 1901, and was then employed for six years as a medical officer under the Ministry of Public Instruction. He belongs to an ancient and highly respected family. His father, Sheikh Mohamed Samalooty, of Samalut, in the

province of Minieh, was a scholar and poet, whose writings are still read by many of his countrymen.

DR. NEDJMEDDIN ARIF BEY, who has been in practice as a surgeon in Cairo for some years, is a man of varied experience. After obtaining the diploma of the Ecole Militaire Médicale, Constantinople, he joined the Turkish Army, in which he saw active field service with his regiment at Zeitoun, Armenia, and attained the rank of captain. He was subsequently transferred to Adana, where he formed a branch of the "Comité Ottoman, d'Union et Progrès." This led to his arrest, and he was sent to Yemen, but, on reaching Port Said, he contrived to escape, and made his way to Paris, where he remained in practice for some two years and a half, becoming a member of the Société d'Obstétrique de Paris. In 1901 he decided to settle in Egypt, where for many years his late father held the post of First Secretary to the High Commissioner of Turkey. He started a practice in Cairo, and also established the *Turc*, a newspaper which continued to appear until the Constitution of Turkey was granted. He also represented locally the "Comité Ottoman, d'Union et Progrès," which had managed to survive the opposition offered to it in the early stages of its existence. Dr. Nedjmeddin was born at Erzeroum, in Asia Minor, in 1872, but, in consequence of the Russo-Turkish War, his parents removed to Constantinople, where he was educated privately until, at the age of thirteen, he joined the Ecole Militaire Médicale. His father, Mohammed Bey Arif, rendered signal service at the time of the Russo-Turkish War in Asia Minor, and was the author of two books—one dealing with the war, and the other a compilation and translation of "A Thousand and One Hadith" (*i.e.*, sayings) of the Prophet Mahommed." These two works were at first prohibited in Turkey, but have since commanded a wide sale. The Bey's grandfather was a nephew of Karajahanem Ibrahim Pasha, who, in conjunction with his nephew, destroyed in 1826 the barracks of the Janissaries who mutinied and opposed the reforms during the reign of Sultan Mahmoud II.

DR. BAYOUMI FATHI BEY, now in private practice at the European Pharmacy in the Chareh Abd-el-Aziz, was for twenty-six years attached to the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital, filling successively the position of house surgeon, assistant to the surgery section, general chloroformist, and assistant to the lock and eye departments. In 1900 he attended a medical congress of eye specialists in Paris, and read a paper entitled "The Radical Cure of Granular Lid." He has also written a small pamphlet on the use of chloroform. A son of the late Mohamed Fathi Effendi, he was born in Gizeh in 1864, and was educated in Cairo, where in 1888 he secured the diploma of the Government Medical School. Married in 1900 to Miss A. G. Rowntree, he has two sons.

LE DR. YACOUB WARDAH BEY a établi au Caire sa pratique depuis 1907, et avant cette date a tenu successivement la position d'officier médical en chef dans les hôpitaux du Gouvernement, à Port Saïd, Tantah, et Assiout, et d'inspecteur médical en chef la du Gouvernorat de Damiette et de province la de Béni Souef. Il est propriétaire de la New-Union Pharmacy et aide aussi à certaines heures à la Pharmacie de Charité attachée à l'église catholique grecque. Un fils de feu Joseph Wardah, marchand en Syrie, né en 1860 à Damascus et éduqué à Damascus, au Caire et à Paris, il prit son diplôme en médecine dans ces deux dernières villes, il étudia specialement les maladies de la vessie ; il a fait un millier d'opérations. Quelques unes élogieuses ont paru dans *The Lancet*. Le Dr. Wardah a été décoré de l'Ordre du Médjidieh, quatrième classe ; c'est un Bey de troisième degré. Il est possesseur de terrains de valeur à Assiout.

C'est le **Docteur ISMAIL SIDKI BEY** qui a eu le premier l'idée de l'hôpital construit il y a quelques années par l'Administration des Wakfs, et pendant six ans il consacra tout son temps à cette institution sans aucune rémunération. Fils de feu el Sayed Abdel Wahab Seif, il est né à Alexandrie en 1875, et après avoir étudié la médecine, il prit son doctorat à l'Ecole Gouvernementale de Médecine au Caire. En 1899, il fut nommé interne à l'hôpital Kasr-el-Aini, où il resta en cette qualité, et en qualité de médecin, pendant cinq ans. Lors du départ du Dr. Milton, il quitta l'hôpital, et entra à l'Hôpital des Wakfs ; plus tard il s'occupa exclusivement de sa clientèle privée. C'est un spécialiste pour les accouchements, et il a publié des ouvrages sur ce sujet. Il s'est consacré aussi pendant longtemps à l'étude des narcotiques. Le Docteur Ismail Sidki Bey parle couramment l'arabe et le français, et connait bien l'anglais et le turc ; dans es voyages, il a passé quelque temps à Paris et à Amsterdam. Politicien doublé d'un patriote, il est beaucoup aimé pour son caractère charitable, et comme membre de la Société pour la Prévention de la cruauté contre les enfants, il a beaucoup aidé à réprimer, dans les classes pauvres égyptiennes, la tendance qu'ont les parents à négliger leurs enfants.

DR. MAHMOUD TAHER has held, since 1892, the post of Medical Officer of the Cairo Prisons, and prior to that date filled several Government appointments as Chief Medical Officer of Sanitary Hospitals of Provinces. A son of Sayed Mohamed Bey Mahmoud, he was born in Cairo in 1865, and was educated at the Government Medical School, where he gained his diploma in 1889. He was then sent by the Egyptian Government to study under Dr. Koch, the well-known German specialist, and finally he spent a year at King's College Hospital, London. Since his return to Egypt he has specialised in diseases of the ear, nose, and throat, being a pioneer in this branch of specialised study. In 1889, Dr. Taher was chosen by ballot to attend the wounded dervishes after the battle of Toski, and for this and for his subsequent services he was decorated with the Order of the Mejidieh, fifth class. He owns agricultural land at Benha.

DR. MOHAMED TAHIR, a son of Abbas Effendi Tahir, who was at one time in Government service, was born in Cairo in 1880, and secured his diploma from the Egyptian School of Medicine in 1904. He then joined the Travelling Ophthalmic Hospitals, but he was promoted to the position of assistant ophthalmic surgeon at the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital in 1906, when the ophthalmic hospitals were taken over by the Government. At the same time he established himself in private practice, and took premises first in Boulac Road, and afterwards at Ataba el Khadra.



NUBAR PASHA GARDENS, ALEXANDRIA.

ALEXANDRIA.

OWING to the strong light it sheds on the early struggles of the Christian Church, the history of Alexandria forms an interesting page in the record of our civilisation. In this city, as in Rome, the tragedy of a dying faith battling against a new creed was enacted; and, if the neighbourhood of the Coliseum saw the most important events in the struggle, the vicinity of the Alexandria Museum witnessed the *coup de grace* aimed at paganism, when Hypatia was martyred for her gods. But in spite of these historical facts, comparatively little has been written about the capital of the Ptolemaic dynasty and the seat of culture in the early centuries of the Christian era. This is perhaps due to two circumstances—to the greater interest which is being shown to-day in the mysteries of Thebes and Memphis; and to the really few monuments which are left standing to point back to the age of Cyril and Arcadius. Consequently the average mind cannot picture to itself the past, and it needs the imaginative genius of a Kingsley or Pierre Loti to present it to our mind. Thanks, however, to the discovery of the ruined city of Saint Menas and the tombs of Chatby and Kom-esh-Shukafa, it is possible that within a few years Alexandria's renaissance will no longer be purely commercial, but archæological and perhaps artistic as well.

Standing to-day on the eastern sea-front of the city from the point at which the Ramleh cars start, and gazing out across the deep blue waters of the Mediterranean to where the sun shines golden brown on Fort Kait Bey and on sandstone mosques and buildings, it is hard to realise that this same bay was the scene of Cleopatra's amours with Cæsar and Mark Antony; that its shores were lined with marble temples, baths, palaces, and public edifices in luxurious profusion in a forest of obelisks and elegant columns; and that, on Pharos Island—the site upon which Fort Kait Bey now stands—was erected the first lighthouse the world had seen—a high, majestic, marble structure that ranked among the seven wonders of the ancient world.

Similarly, when we stand at the base of Pompey's Pillar and look southwards, beyond the Mahmoudieh Canal, from the salt-strewn shores of Lake Mareotis to beyond Mex, across intervening stretches of sand—gradually being reclaimed, it is true, but still drearily brown—it is difficult to believe that years ago all this district was as a fair garden, that it stretched in a green sweep of colour away into the desert, to the city of Saint Menas and, perhaps, even farther, as far, perhaps, as the dwellings of the anchorites in Wadi Natron. Yet so it was. The great metropolis of the Ptolemies, the city of learning of the early Christian era, degenerated. Constantinople was founded and a rival port grew up in the Bosphorus; the Arabs came and made Fustat-Kahira—or Cairo—their capital, and the new city robbed Alexandria of her splendour and importance. Then the canal which placed her in communication with the Nile was gradually filled up with sand; the desert encroached from the south upon lands that had been tilled and cities that had been built, and buried them in a winding-sheet of sand that gradually unrolled itself to the very gates of the city whose great buildings meanwhile had been destroyed by fire, conquest, and internecine strife. Centuries passed, and Alexandria sank gradually into oblivion and insignificance, until finally, in 1800, the British, in enforcing the capitulation of the French in Alexandria, caused the sea to flow into Lake Mareotis—until then a fresh-water lake—and inundated the neighbouring land, destroying its villages.



PORT OF ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

So much for the past. What of the present? What is Alexandria to-day? A great commercial city; one of the principal ports of the Mediterranean; the mercantile entrepôt of an Egypt which has been made to shake

off the stagnation and sloth of ages, to slough the dead skin of slavery and grow in prosperity under British guidance and the influence of British energy, and the northern genius for obtaining the best practical results. Little, indeed, has the Alexandria of to-day to show of her past, of her pristine splendour in the Ptolemaic era, or of her later decline and decay. She is now, save for a few stray relics of her ancient glory, entirely modern. She belongs entirely to the present, reflecting in every feature this hustling age of commerce. Her harbour is her centre of life nowadays, the factor of her present greatness, a greatness purely commercial, therefore purely modern. Business, activity, trade, and shipping have marked this spot for their own; a forest of masts, spars, and funnels, emerging from a bed of hulls, greets the eye. Tourists in multitudes land from steamers continually arriving, and hasten to the hotel or the Cairo train. Arabs in their Oriental garb are seen pulling, carrying, or pushing loads of luggage. The swarthy dragoman gesticulates; hotel porters and tourist agents hustle each other in their excitement; cranes and pulleys load and unload in a fever of energy; donkeys, horses, and mules pull strenuously at the traces of carts, and ungainly camels slouch off with their burdens. The cries of vendors, the whistling of sirens, the ringing of bells, and occasionally the firing of salutes from the fort as a foreign man-o'-war enters the harbour, are among the sounds to be heard in this most busy spot; and, day after day throughout the year, similar scenes are to be witnessed and heard. Thousands of boats and ships enter the harbour every year, discharge and load, and leave again. All the Egyptian-grown cotton comes to Gabbary or Minat el Basal for export, and is stored in the huge "shoonas" until shipped to England and other countries. Grain and cotton-seed are also warehoused in large quantities. The prices quoted here for the produce of the country control the Egyptian market. The central offices of the Custom House, and of the Ports and Lighthouses, the Court of Appeal of the Mixed Tribunal, the head office of many banking and commercial concerns, of the Eastern Telegraph Company, and of the Quarantine Board are in Alexandria; and the passage through the port of the imports and exports of the country make the commercial phase of everyday life in this city more and more pronounced. Thus it comes that Alexandria with its four hundred thousand inhabitants is the second city of importance in Egypt, and ranks with Genoa, Marseilles, and Constantinople as a great port associated with the Mediterranean trade.

What a change is all this from the Alexandria of the far-off days of yore! And how and when did this latter-day phase begin? How and when did the city revive from the state of decline and insignificance into which she had fallen when her ancient glory had departed? When Mehemet Ali, that giant among Egyptian rulers, wished in 1819 to create a navy in order to wrest his country's independence from Turkey, he chose Alexandria as a port or arsenal, and, having so chosen, he carried out extensive improvements. He had the Mahmoudieh Canal cleaned out, and a scheme drawn up for the formation of the western harbour. This was the beginning of the new era for Alexandria, her re-birth. Since then, and in spite of the opening of the Suez Canal, the foundation of Port Said, and the bombardment of 1882, the commercial renaissance of Alexander the Great's capital has continued, until now, under the benefits bestowed upon Egypt by the British Occupation, she is once more a city of first importance. To assert that more capital is invested in Alexandria than in Cairo might be an overbold statement, but certain it is that from a commercial point of view the seaport excels the capital. Practically the whole cotton trade lies in its warehouses to the north of the harbour; and if Cairo be the key to the Egyptian situation from a strategic standpoint, Alexandria is the open door to the whole of the Delta and the Valley of the Nile. Its harbour is always crowded, loaded trains rush to and from the south, and barges travel up and down the Mahmoudieh Canal to the Nile. Towards the east the fashionable suburb of Ramleh, one of the prettiest and oldest of garden cities, is growing apace; towards the west Mex is being incorporated in the city, and the Khedive's Mariout Railway is opening up a forgotten sand-swept district to modern agricultural enterprise.

Alexandria is built upon a long and somewhat narrow strip of land, bounded on the north by the Mediterranean and on the south by the Mariout lake. The geological formation of the district varies from a sandy desert subsoil under the eastern and central portions of the town, to a very recent limestone outcrop towards the west. The greatest length within the municipal boundary is 25 kilometres (15½ miles), and the total area of the city is 5,000 hectares (12,230 acres). The thickly built upon and main portion of the city lies in the centre, south of the eastern and western harbours. The public abattoirs, the cattle quarantine ground, the tanneries, and such-like establishments are located on the eastern side and about five kilometres from the city. The Mahmoudieh Canal, the great commercial waterway linking up with the Nile, forms the southern boundary of the city. Most of the cotton is brought down on this waterway, and is unloaded at Minat el Basal, near the end of the canal, where it is pressed in the large cotton presses at Minat el Basal, then sold and shipped to Europe. The canal is spanned by six iron and four timber swing bridges, which are open for traffic at certain hours. The State Railway lines run from the commercial district of the city in an



OLD PORT, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser).

easterly direction to join the Cairo main railway, and are spanned by large bridges at Gabbary and Moharrem Bey.

The domestic affairs of the city are controlled by a municipality. As showing the enormous and rapid growth of the city and its suburbs, it may be mentioned that the total rental value which in 1894 was £E460,380 and in 1902 had increased to £E640,344, is expected to reach the large figure of £E1,200,000 in 1910.

Seen from the sea, Alexandria is anything but attractive. The lighthouse, Ras el Tin palace, the minarets of a few mosques, Fort Napoleon with its signal-station, and, on a clear day, Pompey's Pillar, are conspicuous objects rising above an indistinct mass of one or two-storeyed houses. The harbour with its large Custom Houses lies in a wind-protected bay to the west of the city. Slightly to the north is the naval arsenal, to the west the new breakwater, and to the south the long cotton and corn mole with its railway lines, cutting the harbour into two—an inner (or northern) and an outer (or southern) part. Near by, a series of locks show where the Mahmoudieh Canal, which forms the southern boundary of the city, leaves the sea on its way to the Nile. This quarter is the busiest. Vehicles of all kinds and beasts of burden are continually on the move; to the right of the canal and the mole stand the immense warehouses of Minat el Basal, to the left those of Gabbary. Cotton, cotton-seed, corn, and coal are stored here in huge quantities; the produce of the country waiting to be exported at a propitious moment, the imported articles to be sent up the Nile to Damanhour, Tantah, or Cairo. The cotton exchange of Minat el Basal also is in this vicinity, and a noisy place it is in the autumn and winter, when the latest Liverpool prices are eagerly awaited by merchants and speculators. Noteworthy in this district of storehouses are the many hydrants which the municipality have caused to be erected in order to combat a possible conflagration.

From the harbour a series of lanes and streets lead into the Ibrahim Street, and past Napoleon's Fort or Fort Cafarelli on its low hill, to Mehemet Ali Square, the largest and most elegant square in the city. In its centre, and facing the Bourse, is a large bronze equestrian statue of the Pasha, whose name is given to the square. To the left of the Bourse Cherif Pasha, the Regent Street of Alexandria, lined with large and handsome shops, runs to the Rosetta Street and, continuing at an angle under the name of Rue de la Gare, leads to the railway station, in the vicinity of Fort Kom-ed-Dimas, which is situated on a hill commanding the city and occupied by British soldiers. The headquarters of the army are in Rosetta Street, opposite Cherif Pasha, where, also, is the central police station, or *caracol inglisé*.

When Alexander the Great built his city in 331 B.C., near the hamlet of Rhakotis, opposite the island of Pharos, and between the sea and lake Mareotis, he divided it into two parts by means of a large street, running north-east and south-west from the Canopic Gate (afterwards Sun Gate) in the east, to Cibotus' Harbour (later Moon Gate) in the west. To this street the Rue Rosetta now corresponds, and to the Sun Gate the Rosetta Gate or Round Point near the Waterworks corresponds. It is a broad and handsome street, containing two fashionable hotels and the municipal buildings. The latter are soon to be transferred to the Eastern Harbour, at a considerable expense, part of which will be defrayed by the State. The museum of Alexandria is located in a small side street to the north of the municipal buildings and is worth visiting, as it contains many objects found in the vicinity of the city, including the Apis bull, life-size, and hewn out of granite. The importance of the collection is due above all to the light it throws on Græco-Roman art and the debt it and subsequent art movements owe to the genius of the Egyptian people. The flourishing state of Alexandria under the earlier Ptolemies, and the subsequent philosophical and religious debates in the halls of the great museum, assisted the evolution of a new art movement which eventually developed into two distinct styles, both of which originated in Alexandria, namely Byzantine art and Coptic, or as it is more generally called, Arab art. Any one who has studied Ptolemaic art on the spot, and followed the struggle between Oriental and Christian in the third, fourth, and fifth centuries after Christ, will recognise that the Alexandrian school forms the link between Græco-Roman and Egyptian art on one hand, and Byzantine and Copt-Arabic on the other.



NATIVE SCENES, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photos by Reiser.)

The museum of modern Alexandria, dating from 1903, must not be confounded with the famous museum for which, together with its library, both founded by Ptolemy Soter, the great Macedonian's burial-place was justly celebrated. The ancient museum stood likewise in the Rosetta Street, near the site now occupied by St. Catherine's Square, with the Roman Catholic Cathedral. It must have been an imposing edifice, harbouring, as it did, many thousand students. As a matter of fact, it was more like our modern universities—another Al Azhar, for instance—and the famous library, with over nine hundred thousand volumes in manuscript, lay to the north, perhaps in the vicinity of where Mehemet Ali Square is situated. But not a vestige of either Ptolemy's museum or library, or of the palaces and temples which once beautified the Regia district, is to be found to-day. Doubtless Romans, Jews, Christians, and Arabs, all had a hand in the destruction of the city's far-famed monuments. The remains of the gymnasium and paneum, of the Sema where Alexander was buried, and of the theatre, the background of which was the sea—all are gone.



FORT NAPOLEON, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

Returning to the Mehemet Ali Square by the Tewfik Pasha Street, which runs parallel to Cherif Pasha Street, it comes to mind that it was in this square that the greatest damage was done during the bombardment of the city in 1882 by the British, both by the mob and the ships' guns. The only buildings dating from before that attack which are standing to-day are St. Mark's Church, containing a memorial bust to General Earle, who fell at Kirbekan in 1885, and the law courts, in which sit the Courts of Appeal of the Mixed Tribunals. But the damage done has long since been repaired, and imposing new buildings now surround the square, across which sweep the cooling breezes of the sea. Open-air cafés have been erected in the garden under the palm-trees; and here in summer the effendi will sit sipping his coffee and gazing at the passing ladies, mostly Syrian, Greek or Italian, whose beauty has given a certain celebrity to the modern city, as the loveliness of a Cleopatra and the virtue of a Hypatia gave its predecessor years ago.

Passing down Post Street, the visitor comes to the General Post Office and its annexe on the eastern sea front. The Scottish Church and a French Protestant Church, as well as two or three hotels and music-halls of lesser importance, are situate in this and the neighbouring streets.



MUNICIPAL BUILDINGS, ALEXANDRIA.

The eastern harbour is a magnificent bay, which used to be the principal port of the ancients. In those days the hammer-shaped extremity of modern Alexandria was the famous Pharos Island, joined to the mainland by a vast embankment pierced by two passages and called the Heptastadium on account of its length, which was seven stadia. In the course of time, what with the deposit thrown against it by the waves and the ruined stones used in filling up gaps, the embankment grew wider and wider until to-day it forms a stretch of *terra firma* over a mile in width. At the eastern extremity of the bay the Lochias Peninsula, upon which was situate the royal palace and the temple of Artemis, was prolonged by a breakwater (Diabathra) to the Taurus Islands, opposite the famous lighthouse. Consequently the harbour was practically circular in shape and admirably protected against the breakers and winds of the sea. Since those times, however, the Islands of Taurus (as well as that of Antirrhodus), the Diabathra, and the greater part of the Lochias Peninsula to the north of the spot where Fort Silsileh now stands, have disappeared, and the bay, being open to the sea, cannot be used as a harbour. Only fishing-boats now make use of its waters. A scheme has been prepared by the Government, however, to construct breakwaters across the mouth and thus restore to Alexandria the harbour which was hers in the past. In the meantime, in order to prevent the sea from encroaching upon the land and inundating the lower streets, a strong, high, circular wall, over the top of which upon a windy day the spray of the waves dashes in showers, has been built from Fort Kait Bey to Fort Silsileh. By means of this improvement a considerable area has been reclaimed from the sea and is available for building purposes. Unfortunately the financial depression
Egypt like a heavy cloud
or three years, has prevented the
being developed, and the new embankment

with its broad, semi-circular road is separated from the city by stretches of desolate sands covered with huge blocks of stones, the remains of fallen ruins—such as the tower of Hercules. Nevertheless, it is likely to become in time one of the most important business quarters of the town ; and the completion of the new harbour will bring the greater part of the shipping within its immediate reach.

Towards the east along the sea front is the Windsor Hotel. In its neighbourhood is the Tour Eiffel, one of the largest music-halls, and the old market place, while the new *halles* which are being constructed are situated to the south of the hotel. They are of the most modern design, and promise to be the finest of their kind in Egypt. Lying between the sea front and the Cherif Pasha Street, and intersected by many

At the end of the Gare de Ramleh Street are several immense cafés with large galleries looking out seawards, which are popular rendezvous, especially in the summer evenings, when orchestral concerts are given. The excellent electric tram service to the fashionable suburb of Ramleh, Egypt's Ostend, begins here, and runs eastwards past Victoria College, the British Consulate, the Egyptian Hospital, and the handsome new Greek schools at Chatby. These schools, built in the classic Greek style in white stone, rank among the finest buildings in Alexandria.

The eastern extremity of the sea front is reached at Fort Silsileh. Near by are the old slaughter-houses and an up-to-date lazaretto. Going westward from the Post Office towards the Heptastadium of the ancients, the Governor's palace is passed. Then begin the native quarters of the city, with their winding

lighthouse. The palace is a two-storied series of buildings, oriental in appearance, looking out across the western harbour, and northwards to the open sea. It is off the lighthouse that the Alexandria Yachting Club holds its annual races during the summer. The headquarters of the Alexandria Swimming Club, and of several kindred institutions, are likewise in this neighbourhood. Owing to its prominent position, commanding both harbours of Alexandria, the hammer-shaped extremity of Pharos (or Ras-el-Tin) is strongly fortified. Most of the original forts, erected by Mehemet Ali and Ismael Pasha, have been superseded, both here and in other quarters of the town, by more modern ones, such as Forts Ada and El Helalieh, which, with Forts Kait Bey, Cafarelli, and Kom-ed-Dimas, form the defences of Alexandria, and the points of vantage from which the city could



RUE CHERIF PASHA, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

irregular lanes and the busy Rue de la Gare de Ramleh, with its tramway line, is the great mercantile centre of the city. Shipping and insurance companies, commission agents and brokers, banks and import houses have their establishments in this essentially European part of Alexandria. The offices of the Eastern Telegraph Company and of the *Egyptian Gazette*, *Les Nouvelles*, *Le Phare* [illegible] to be found in or near [illegible] Street, which contains, [illegible] Post Office, also the [illegible] Sporting Clubs. The [illegible]uses are above the Bourse, [illegible] the Mehemet Ali Club is in the Rosetta Round Point.

alleys and protruding windows, their many picturesque mosques and quaint bazaars. Though by no means as typical as those of Cairo, they are quaint in their way, with their indefinable admixture of Levantine intrusion. In the mosques nothing of any art value is to be found.

The site of the Governor's palace coincides with the beginning of the old Pharos Island and the end of the Heptastadium, though it is impossible to distinguish between the two to-day. The Rue Ras-el-Tin runs due west from here to the Khedive's summer palace of the same name, built on the north-western extremity of the peninsula, between the barracks of Ras-el-Tin and the modern

be shelled in the event of any riots taking place in the streets. These forts are naturally held by the British.

In order to enable the Khedive to reach Ras-el-Tin by train, a branch line has been constructed from Gabbary Goods Station to the vice-regal palace. The continuation of this line, after running between the Mahmoudieh Canal and Lake Mareotis, joins the main line to Cairo at Sidi Gaber and Mellaha.

From Mehemet Ali Square or St. Catherine Square, the Rue Abou Dardah runs southwards past the Coptic and Armenian Churches, the European Hospital and the Mosque of Sidi Amr—perhaps the finest and

largest in Alexandria—to the site of the ancient Serapeum. This was an immense marble temple dedicated to the worship of the god Serapis, who is said to have been



STREET IN ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

the Greek god Hades (introduced by Ptolemy Soter I), with the attributes of Osiris and Apis, hence Osiris, Apis, or Serapis. According to all accounts this temple was one of the most beautiful buildings of the ancient world, only surpassed in splendour by the Capitol at Rome and the Acropolis at Athens. To-day, one or two granite sphinxes on a hill-side crowned by Pompey's Pillar, comprise all that is left of the great building. Pompey's Pillar is a column standing 100 ft. high, erected in the reign of Diocletian. The shaft of the huge pillar is monolithic and fluted, and was hewn out of red granite. According to Dr. E. A. Wallis Budge, the title of Pompey's Pillar was given to it because the prefect in whose term of office (A.D. 302) it was erected bore that name. Certain it is that Pompey the Great could not have had anything to do with the column, seeing that he died over three hundred years prior to its erection. A garden is being laid out on the sandy hillside of the Serapeum. Curious visitors can enter the subterranean passages of the obliterated temple; but it is hardly worth their while to do so, as there is nothing to be seen. Dr. Botti, the curator of the Museum, believes, however, that excavations in the neighbourhood of Pompey's Pillar and the Serapeum would result in important discoveries, and it is his intention to pay special attention to this locality in the near future.

To the south-west of Pompey's Pillar at Kim-esh-Shukafa, a quarry near the Catacombs and the Mahmoudieh Canal, a most extraordinary and interesting Roman-Egyptian tomb of great magnitude was discovered in 1900. It is a subterranean family mausoleum dating from the first centuries before and after Christ, and consisting of three superposed galleries or platforms, the lowest of which is, unfortunately, under water, which continually filters in from the canal. Very instructive from a student's point of view is the curious mixture in the construction of this tomb of Roman, Greek, and Egyptian methods, among which the last-named is, perhaps, pre-eminent. Admirable in every way, too, is the electric lighting of the galleries, chapels, and rotunda, effected by the museum officials in this extraordinary monument.

The Mahmoudieh Canal, an important though by no means an elegant or clean body of water, especially when the Nile is low, flows to the south-east of Alexandria along the handsome gardens of Sir John Antoniadis, a rich Greek merchant whose generosity to the city, the poor, and the Greek colony has become proverbial. Next to these gardens the Municipality has laid out an extensive park, named the Nouzha Gardens. This region is rapidly becoming one of the most popular suburbs of the city during the summer months, several elegant villas having already sprung up on the opposite bank of the canal. It is easily reached from the centre of the city by an electric car which, running along Moharrem Bey Street, crosses the railway line to Cairo on a viaduct in close proximity to the principal station, whence Mehemet Ali Square can be reached in a few minutes. A German hospital, conducted by the Diaconess sisters, stands in Moharrem Bey Street, and affords an asylum for the sick poor.

To the south of the Rosetta Street and parallel with it, is the Rue d'Allemagne, with an electric car running out to the Round Point. Almost touching each other in the last named streets and the Rue Daniel R. Nebi, are a handsome Jewish synagogue, school, and cemetery; the coptic church of St. Mark, the Greek archbishopric and hospital, a picturesque mosque containing the tombs of Said Pasha and Prince Hassan, Kaiser Wilhelm's Heim together with a German school, and the theatres of Zizinia and the Alhambra. Nothing could give a better idea of the conglomeration of races and creeds and of the combination of the lighter with the more serious aspects of life in the modern city of Alexandria. It is assumed that St. Mark preached in Alexandria in 69 A.D., and the Copts regard him as their first patriarch. His mortal remains were transported from Egypt to Venice when the Crescent waved over Alexandria.

At the upper end of the Rue d'Allemagne, before reaching the Jewish cemetery, is a hill upon which stands an ancient granite column, found in the neighbourhood and erected by the Municipality in front of the Government hospital to commemorate the fall of Mahdism in the Soudan and the capture of Khartoum. On an adjacent hill and commanding a fine view of the Eastern Port, the Heptastadium, and Ras-el-Tin, is a white stone column, also discovered in this part of the town, which is dedicated to Queen Victoria.

Beyond the Egyptian barracks, at the last turn of the Rue d'Allemagne, are the



RAS-EL-TIN PALACE, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

European or Christian cemeteries of the different sects that constitute the population of Alexandria. To explain what sectarianism and religious schism and strife meant in

Alexandria, would be to write a history of the past, giving an account of ever-recurring internecine feuds, that did more to enable the Arab warrior to conquer the land than any other circumstance. Orthodox, Jacobite, Agnostic, Anthropomorphic, Coptic, Neo-Platonic are some of the denominations that s'ruggled for one form or another of religion in the fourth or fifth centuries; and to these should be added Jews, pagans—Egyptian, Greek, and Roman—also the followers of Arius, Athanasius, and Julian the Apostate. Many of these sects have disappeared entirely. To-day there are left Anglicans, Roman Catholics, members of the Greek Orthodox Church, Copts, and Armenians. These sects have their cemeteries in this part of the town, and many beautiful monuments adorn these final resting-places. Beyond is a small Arab burial-ground; but the principal native cemetery will be found to the north of Pompey's Pillar. This disposal of the cemeteries is according to tradition, for when Alexander founded his city, the Egyptian part of the town lay to the west and was called Rhakotis from the Egyptian *Ragetit*, (hence the modern Coptic name of Alexandria *Rakoti*, whereas the Arab calls it *Isskanderieh*), while the Jewish quarter lay to the east, where the Jewish synagogue and cemetery are to-day. The Christian cemeteries, being of later date, were laid out to the east of the Sun Gate, where they are still to be found.

As regards the social constitution and general aspects of life in Alexandria, the population is very mixed. Among the lower classes the Egyptian and foreign elements mingle as they would never dream of doing in Cairo; also in the upper classes they manage to live side by side in harmony—a gratifying state of things which may be attributed largely to the existence of a Municipality and to the absence of an army of government officials. Politics, owing to the same probable reasons, play a relatively small rôle in the daily life; while all considerations of science, art, and archæology are choked by the city's strenuous commercial activity. Affairs of commerce, the state of trade, the movements in stocks and shares form the staple of the daily round of conversation in the clubs, in the streets, on the wharves, on the trams, in the trains, in short, everywhere in this city once famous as the battle-ground of various religions and sects at deadly enmity one with another, now wholly and whole-heartedly given to the worship of the modern deity Mammon, who exacts the most exclusive devotion from his followers.

It cannot be said that tourists favour Alexandria. They arrive in the western harbour, land, and rush off to Cairo, where there is more sunshine and less rain, also more to see and less commercial talk. They do not remain in Alexandria to study Græco-Egyptian art; and after a day spent in the Cherif Pasha Street, travel south as quickly as they can. Owing to this, Alexandria is dull in winter—the tourist season proper for Egypt. But during the summer, when the heat of Cairo is considered to be unbearable, thousands of holiday-makers of certain defined classes from the capital spend two or three months on the Mediterranean sea-shore. This is consequently the season of such gaiety as Alexandria enjoys.



PLACE DES CONSULS, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

But whereas tourists spend freely, the class of people who stay at Alexandria, being acquainted with current prices, spend little. The summer visitors consist almost entirely of faded officials on a few days' leave from Cairo, business men from the capital unable to get over to Europe and a certain class of Levantine who invariably return to Cairo richer than they left. During the summer months, life in Alexandria is consequently gay; but it might be made much more so, if an Improvement Committee were formed to organise popular amusements on a large scale. As it is, sea-bathing constitutes the chief recreation, and it is to be

regretted, that, owing to dangerous currents making off the shore, fatalities frequently occur, some of which might be avoided if more efficacious means of life-saving were provided. Other amusements include racing, yachting, and rowing, picnics, theatres, visits to music-halls, and café-concerts.

Of the suburbs the most interesting and beautiful is Ramleh, lying to the east. After passing Chatby and Camp Cæsar, at both of which Græco-Roman tombs have been discovered, the Ramleh tram runs out due east along the sea-shore. The Sporting Club's grounds, delightfully situated among palms and fig-trees, are first passed and then Sidi Gaber is reached. It is a station on the main railway to Cairo and the junction for the branch line to the Khedive's Ramleh palace, Aboukir and Rosetta. The village of Sidi Gaber is a quarter of a mile distant and near the sea. This village is famous for the picturesque fair held in August and for its



MEHEMET ALI'S STATUE, PLACE DES CONSULS, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser).

luscious figs. The whole district grows this fruit in large quantities, and the tram passes through orchards of fig-trees, with the sea just visible on the left and the marshy shores of Lake Mareotis on the right. Just before reaching Bulkeley, where the members of the small British colony reside in pretty villas situate in gardens overlooking Stanley Bay, lies the Carlton Hotel. From here to San Stefano is the most interesting part of the tram ride, as continuous lines of villas, peeping out from behind groves of trees, border the tramway. San Stefano is a palatial hotel and casino belonging to the Nungovich Hotels Company. The wide terrace on the sea is the fashionable rendezvous during the summer months, both in the afternoon and at night. Here dancing, banquets, musical entertainments, and other festivities, as well as open-air cinematograph displays may be enjoyed every evening. Gambling is also permitted in one of the rooms of the hotel; which also possesses a theatre and a spacious ball-room. In the hotel also the Government have their headquarters and offices during the hot summer months. The terminus of the electric line is at the palace of the Khedive's mother, where the vice-regal family lives during the summer. The Khedive, when wishing to transact business, takes the train down to Sidi Gaber and proceeds from thence by carriage to Ras-el-Tin palace. There is an excellent carriage and motor road from Alexandria to Ramleh, and, towards five o'clock in the afternoon, when "society" drives out in elegant cars and broughams to San Stefano, a gay and animated scene is presented along this route.

A ride of thirty-five minutes from Sidi Gaber by train brings the traveller to the insignificant village of Aboukir on the bay of the same name. This small place is picturesquely situated on the sands, with the blue Mediterranean as a background. But if it is frequently visited, it is because in this bay, one hundred and eleven years ago, Horatio Nelson fought and won the Battle of the Nile, or of Aboukir. Here also Sir Ralph Abercrombie defeated Napoleon's army in 1801. In the vicinity stood in ancient times the luxurious and profligate city of Canopus, on the Canopic branch of the Nile. Both river branch and city have vanished, however, engulfed in the encroaching sands.

Thirty miles beyond Aboukir, and likewise reached by train along the narrow neck of land between the sea and Lake Edku, lies the village of Rashid, or Rosetta, on the western branch of the Nile. In former times the city of Bolbitine stood here. But Rosetta is best known for the discovery by the French in 1799 of the famous inscribed stone, named after the place where it was found. This stone, now in the British Museum, is a granite slab, dating from the 2nd century, B.C., and inscribed with a proclamation in hieroglyphics, demotic and Greek. Thanks to this discovery, it became possible to decipher the hieroglyphs of the ancient Egyptians

Mex, the western suburb of Alexandria, is reached by tram from the Mehemet Ali square. On the way, Gabbary, with its palace, now turned into a lazaretto, and its Ptolemaic tombs, called the Baths of Cleopatra, is passed. Then comes Nardian, a native village, and next Mariout, the terminus station of the Khedive's Mariout railway. After passing the new abattoirs, the car runs into Mex, a fishing village with a good beach and large Casino, frequented in summer by holiday-seekers of the lower class. Across the narrow neck of land between the sea and Lake Mariout are several forts, some of them no longer in use; and beyond these are the quarries which have been exploited within recent years for the harbour and other works. Further west, all is drear wilderness, seldom visited, and inhabited by roving bands of Bedouins, who, from time to time amuse themselves by breaking the laws of the land and waylaying some European or attacking an isolated house.

The Khedive's Mariout railway, the first hundred miles of which have been successfully laid, cuts across the lake on a high embankment. Its object is to open up the fertile lands to the south. In time it will doubtless be prolonged to the Tripolitan frontier, and thus acquire some strategic importance, or else it may be run to the Natroun Valley, at present only to be reached by camel-ride across the desert. A few miles to the north of Behig, a station on the line, two German explorers, Dr. Kaufmann and Mr. Falls, discovered, in the summer of 1905, the ruins of the old city of St. Menas. According to church-lore, the saint was martyred in Phrygia in 296 A.D., his body brought to Alexandria and placed on two camels, which were then allowed to wander at their will. They stopped in the desert near some springs of fresh water. Here the saint—now the patron saint of the Libyan—was buried and a basilica erected. Around the latter houses, churches, and palaces arose until a city was formed in the sands and it became an important place of pilgrimage. Finally it was forsaken and then slowly buried by the ever-hungry desert. The abandonment happened when the Arab had already conquered the country. Since then, until four years ago, no trace of this ancient Lourdes was to be found. The very site had been obliterated. To discover it was the life-work of the two German savants, and, thanks to the generosity of the town council of Frankfort-on-Main, they have been able to begin a systematic series of excavations on the spot, which have already brought to light many interesting ruins and relics of the old religious city. The kilns have been discovered where the ampullae, of which there are a great number in existence, were burnt. These pitchers contained a few drops of the miraculous water of St. Menas, which were in great demand among the pilgrims of yore. Further searches have brought to light the apse of the famous basilica, also the crypt, many interesting capitals and friezes, and the Koinobion, or Monastery of St. Menas, the finest in northern Africa. The discovery of St. Menas' city ranks as one of the most interesting ever made in Egypt, and it will doubtless attract many people to Alexandria. These impressive old ruins tell of a glory long departed, and offer a striking contrast to the reborn city of Alexandria which, less than one hundred miles away, grows with a healthy vitality unequalled by that of any other Egyptian town.

VESTIGES OF ANCIENT ALEXANDRIA.

BY DR. E. BRECCIA
(Director of the Alexandria Museum).

SOME meagre ruins, scattered here and there over the plateau crowned by the so-called Pompey's Pillar, are all that remain to remind us of the celebrated temple, the beauty and magnificence of which were so far-famed in the Greek and Roman epochs.

The column, which nowadays rises above the upland, does not appear to be of an origin anterior to the Emperor Diocletian's reign. On the western side of the base is engraved an inscription of the Roman Prefect Posidius (A.D. 292) in honour of that emperor. The substructure is composed of blocks taken from various monuments of an earlier date, one of which bears the figure and name of Seti I. in high relief, while another shows an inscription in honour of Queen Arsinoé-Philadelphe. The column alone is 20·75 metres high, with a diameter of 2·70 metres at the foot, and 2·30 metres at the top. Inclusive of the base and capital it measures a total height of 26·85 metres.

The surrounding ground is strewn with vestiges of ancient foundations, stumps of columns in rose and greenish granite, and fragments of a colossal building of the Roman epoch.

Not far away are two stately sphinxes of rose Assouan granite. They have a length of 3·90 and 4·10 metres respectively, and were unearthed in 1896 at the southern angle of the ground near Abou Mandour Lane. A short distance to the west is the entrance to the underground passages which most probably formed part of the Serapeum. They consist of long galleries excavated through a sandy rock and are still partly covered with limestone plates and recesses of a strange type, the object of which is not yet clearly ascertained.

A few minutes' walking towards the west is the Kom el Chougafa Hypogeum, a funereal structure of three storeys. Its size and picturesqueness, combined with the peculiar style of its sculptures and reliefs, combine to leave a deep and lasting impression upon the mind of the spectator.

A spiral staircase leads direct from the entrance to the stairhead of the chambers of the first floor. On the right and left sides are two half-circular niches provided with banks and decorated in the upper part with a large shell in relief. Then one enters a circular chamber containing in its centre a well, above which is built a sort of kiosk with cupola, consisting of a parapet and eight pillars connected with the vault of the chamber. Around this are other rooms with sarcophagi and loculi. In the larger room, on the left side of the entrance, is the funereal triclinium, *i.e.* the hall in which the relatives of the deceased assembled to partake of the funeral meal on the days devoted to the worship of the dead. Issuing from the triclinium the visitor reaches the staircase that leads down to the second floor.

From that position a most picturesque and suggestive view of the central and most important part of the tomb greets the eye. A big shell in relief adorns the vault of the monumental staircase. Further down, the staircase divides itself into two flights traversing both sides of a large niche which is in the shape of a shell and resembles a prompter box. This hides another staircase (submerged by water) leading down to the lowest floor. At the foot stands the vestibule of that which is, properly speaking, the funereal chapel.

The front of this vestibule is supported by two Egyptian columns with flowered capitals. Two pillars with capitals of the same style have found a place in the wall on both sides. Columns and capital support a cornice decorated with a winged solar disc showing the Uraeus between two hawks and a sort of denticulated frieze. Above the cornice there is a fronton, the vault of which is deeply depressed and adorned with a solar disc. In the side walls of the vestibule two niches in the shape of Egyptian doors contain two statues of white limestone, a woman on the left and a man on the right. Although these two pieces of sculpture are executed according to the principles and from the models of Egyptian art, the types of the heads are, apparently, not Egyptian.

In the bottom of the vestibule is pierced a door with a cornice similar to that of the front adorned with the winged solar disc and the Uraeus frieze. On both sides of the door, and supported by plinths, are chiselled two huge snakes or dragons, wearing the double crown (pschent) and having at their side the caduceus, attribute of Hermes (Mercury), and the thyrsus, attribute of Dionysos (Bacchus). Above these two dragons there are shields with a Medusa's head standing out of a sort of *ægis*.



OUTSKIRTS, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

The room contains three niches upon a socle which occupies the three sides of the chamber. In each of them is a sarcophagus with cover that was cut out of the sandy rock. The shape of each is nearly the same, differing only in some details of ornamentation. That which lies in the bottom shows a garland of flowers on its face, and above the garland, in the centre, is the recumbent

figure of a woman, which represents, perhaps, the deceased for whom the sarcophagus was made.

On the sidewalls of each niche, above the sarcophagi, a large central relief and two others of smaller size are chiselled in alto relievo. They are of a free but rather tame style. Some details still retain the colours with which they were covered.

The scenes depicted are of a religious and funereal character, but very likely neither the proprietor of the tomb nor the artist who worked upon it was in a position to appreciate the value of the symbols they endeavoured to reproduce from monuments of Pharaonic times. These reliefs represent the embalming of Osiris and sacrifices to the god Apis.

The central chapel is surrounded with walls of the staircases, of the atrium, of the vestibule, and of the funereal room are vividly painted and depict the technique and the subjects that are reproduced on several monuments at Pompeii.

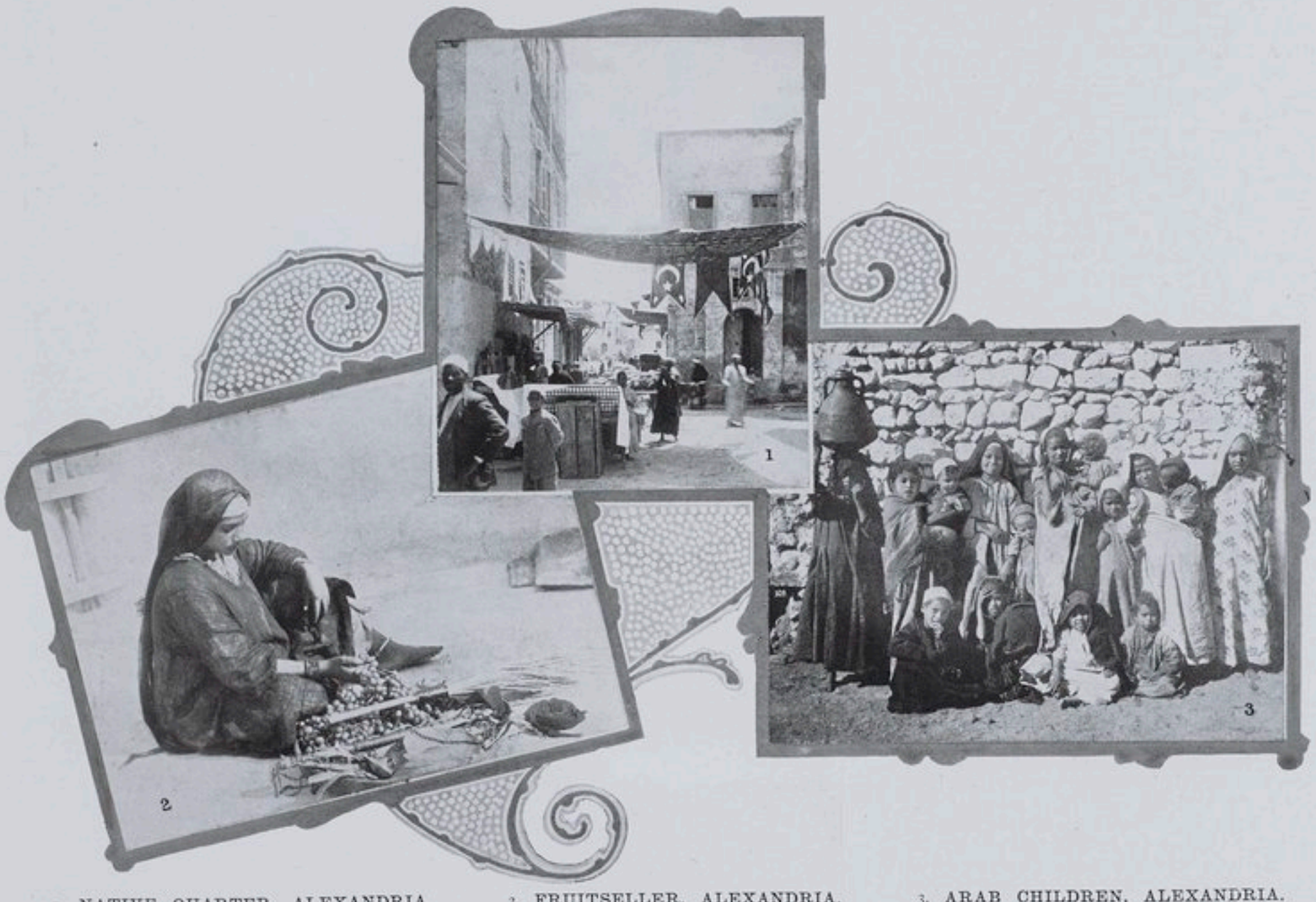
THE MUNICIPALITY.

ITS GENESIS.

In some respects the Municipality of Alexandria is exceptional, for it is one of the most cosmopolitan bodies in the world, and its powers exceed in certain directions even those of the Government. By special treaty with the nations having interests in Egypt, it is endowed with authority to make rules and regulations for safeguarding the public health, constructing and maintaining roads, &c., which, after receiving the formal sanction of the Egyptian Government, immediately become operative, whereas if the Government itself should desire to introduce similar legislation the consent of either the Diplomatic Agents or the Mixed Court of Appeal would be necessary. Several other towns in Egypt—Mansourah, Tantah, Zagazig, Fayoum, Tala, Belbeis, and Beba—have local Commissions approximating closely to Municipal Councils, but their functions are so limited that, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, the Municipality of Alexandria may be said to be the only one in the country.

The Council owes its origin to the initiative of the mercantile community, who voluntarily levied upon themselves certain taxes—the most important of which were those of 20 paras per kantar on cotton and 10 paras per ardeb on cereals—for the purpose of paving and draining the streets of the Minat el Basal and Minat el Charaqua (Kafr-el-Acherig) quarters, where the cotton market was held. Their object was to avoid the loss and inconvenience occasioned by the impassable state of these roads in winter, when carts often remained for days at a time stuck in the mud, their contents in the meantime being exposed to the rains before reaching the shipping quay.

M. Ludwig Müller, a well-known local merchant, was deputed, in the name of the exporters, to come to an arrangement with the Government on this matter, and, as a result, a commission was appointed on March 14, 1869, under the *ægis* of the Government, who contributed to its exchequer a subsidy of £E6,000 per annum. This commission, known as the "Commission du Commerce d'Exportation," consisted of nine members and was charged exclusively with the improvement of the streets of Minat el Basal and Minat el Charaqua. During the same year the Government instituted a Preparatory and Provisional Municipality of Alexandria, under the presidency of H.E. Colucci Pasha, and, in concert with the Sanitary Council and the Commission of Public Highways, drew up a code of bye-laws specifying the dimensions of private drains discharging into the public sewer, and compelling the owners of houses to undertake the periodical emptying



1. NATIVE QUARTER, ALEXANDRIA. 2. FRUITSELLER, ALEXANDRIA. 3. ARAB CHILDREN, ALEXANDRIA.

(Photos by Reiser.)

numerous galleries, the walls of which enclose many loculi; some of these are still closed. Their flags preserve the ancient inscriptions painted in black or red, which record the name and the age of the deceased. As a rule the loculi received from two to four corpses. Some urns are still in place in certain niches and contain the ashes of those who preferred cremation to burial.

Whilst the catacombs at Kom el Chougafa offer a splendid specimen of a vast tomb of the Roman epoch, worked out in a mixed (Græco-Egyptian) style, the Anfouchy hypogea give us an opportunity to become acquainted with a fine Hellenistic funereal monument, the characteristics of which lie specially in the pictures that adorn its walls. Indeed, the

of cesspools. The functions of the local authority related to the repair of the roads, the alignment of streets, the occupation of the public way, and the inspection of markets and of meat offered for sale. Among its achievements were the paving and draining of the Rue Cherif Pasha, the Place Mehemet Ali, and certain other streets of the town under an arrangement whereby the landlords of houses abutting upon those streets bore half the expense. As soon as the paving and drainage of the Minat el Basal and El Charaqua quarters were completed, the committee decided to connect these thoroughfares with the Place Mehemet Ali by proceeding with the paving of the Rue Ibrahim (Rue des Sœurs). The work was extended later to other streets in the town, the Committee of Exporters sharing the expense with the owners of houses in the localities affected.

The mandate of this committee, which had been granted for a period of ten years, expired on March 15, 1879, and was renewed by the Government. The name of the body was changed to that of "The Mixed Provisional Municipal and Commercial Committee," but its membership was still confined to nine representatives of the exporting community. H.E. the Governor of Alexandria was the president. This state of things continued until the Exporters in General Assembly on March 13, 1886, passed a resolution that, in view of the great sacrifices which they had already made for the town, the time had arrived for the Government to distribute equitably between the exporters, importers, and property-owners of Alexandria the burden of executing further necessary improvements. Pending such an arrangement it was decided to limit operations to the Minat el Basal and Minat el Charaqua, but on May 14 of the same year the committee agreed to resume the work of sanitation, in response to a petition signed by a majority of the ratepayers, who urged that the great heat rendered this course urgently necessary.

After protracted negotiations the Government eventually acceded to the demand of the exporters on November 14, 1886, and on December 20 a new commission was appointed, which included amongst its members three representatives each of the importers, and property-owners, and six natives nominated by the Government. It was specified that the exporters and importers should continue to pay, as before, a tax of ½ per mille on all goods exported and imported, on the understanding that the landlords voluntarily contributed a sum of £E4,000 per annum. It was further agreed that the exporters would contribute a sum equal to the combined shares of the importers and landlords, and that, in these circumstances, the Government would renew the subsidy of £E6,000 per annum. But within six months of this arrangement, that is to say on May 11, 1887, the delegates of the landlords announced their inability to make up the sum of £E4,000 for which they had originally accepted responsibility, alleging that the new taxes levied by the Government on buildings were a very heavy charge upon them. They declared that it was only with great difficulty that they had managed to collect a sum sufficient to guarantee that on May 15, 1887, they would be ready to pay their proportion for ten months on the basis of £E2,500 per annum. The Government came to the rescue of the commission in this predicament by consenting to add to the annual subvention of £E6,000 1 per cent. of the tax on building property—a concession worth upwards of £E5,000 a year.

Such is the history of the various Commissions which succeeded each other from 1869 to 1889. It is interesting to note that during this period the total receipts aggregated £E485,000. Among the works of public utility upon which this money was expended mention must be made of the metalling of the road leading to the Jardin Nousha.

The Council as at present constituted was the result of an agitation which commenced in the early eighties when plans were under consideration for rebuilding parts of the city which had suffered severely in the bombardment. This agitation, growing stronger year by year, was ultimately silenced on January 5, 1890, by the issue of a special Khedivial Decree authorising the formation of a Municipal Council and detailing the functions and powers of the new organisation.

The Council is constructed on the German or Austrian model and consists of twenty-eight members, one half of whom are popularly elected. There is an *ex-officio* element composed of the Governor of Alexandria, who is Chairman; the Procureur-General of the Mixed Court of Appeal; the Director-General of Customs; the Chief of the Native Tribunal; the Principal Medical Officer and the Chief Engineer. Eight members are nominated by the Government, and, of the remaining fourteen, six are elected by the General Electoral College, three by the College of Exporters, three by the College of Importers, and two by owners of land situated within the Municipal boundaries. The franchise is limited to males of not less than twenty-five years of age who occupy property of the rateable value of £E75 per annum. These form what is known as the General Electoral College, for, instead of the town being divided into Wards, or Districts, for electoral purposes, the burgesses resolve themselves into various Colleges or Guilds. Under this system one man may have four votes—one as an ordinary ratepayer, another as the owner of land, a third as an importer, and a fourth as an exporter. To whatever section a voter may belong, however, his qualification depends primarily upon the ownership or occupation of property. There is a growing feeling in favour of extending the franchise. No one is eligible for election who is not himself on the voters' list, and in no circumstances may a member of the Corps Diplomatique or any one connected with the Consulates occupy a seat in the Council. It is also stipulated that there shall not be more than three members of any one nationality elected to the Council. The preponderating influences in the Council may best be described as the native influence, the Israelite influence, and the Greek influence.

The elected members of the Council hold office for a term of four years, one half of them retiring every two years. Bye-elections are not held until the Council has been reduced to three-fourths its proper number. Fifteen members form a quorum. Although according to decree the meetings should be held in private, accredited representatives of the local newspapers are now permitted to report the discussions. The Council assembles usually once a month, but a special meeting may be held at any time if the President deems it necessary or eight members demand it in writing. All decisions must be submitted to the Minister of the Interior for approval before being carried into effect, but this is merely a matter of form, save in exceptional circumstances.



POMPEY'S PILLAR, ALEXANDRIA.
(Photo by Reiser.)

The administrative area of the Council comprises the long narrow belt of land, some 16 miles in extent, bounded by the sea on the north and Lake Mariout on the south. By a somewhat unsatisfactory census that was taken in 1907, the population was returned at 380,000, but it is estimated by the Sanitary Authorities and others at 420,000.

When the Council was first established the Governor of Alexandria was appointed by decree Chairman *ex-officio*. He nominated a Secretary, and, by virtue of their important

executive positions, these two officials, who were in no way directly responsible to the ratepayers, exercised practically a controlling influence. When the first Secretary died, the Governor appointed a Director-General, who, by a tacit agreement, acted as Chairman without in any way infringing the nominal rights of the Governor. This arrangement, however, gave rise to a general feeling of dissatisfaction, for the Director-General occupied an anomalous position as a Government official presiding over a Council from whom he received his salary. Owing to certain irregularities the Egyptian Government, at the request of the Commission, in 1904, sent Mr. Graham, the present Director-General of the Public Health Department at Cairo, to make inquiries. Upon the completion of his inquiries, Mr. Graham conferred with the members as to the best means of avoiding future friction, and, following upon his report, the Council was reconstituted in many important points. Reversion was made to the original arrangement under which the Governor or his deputy held the position of Chairman. In the absence of the Governor, the deliberations of the Assembly are presided over by the Vice-President, who is elected every two years by the Council from among its own members, or, if he be not present, by the *doyen* of the Councillors. The chief difficulty, however, was overcome by the creation of the office of the Administrator, who, whilst acting as the chief executive agent of the Municipality, is entirely the servant of the Council by whom he is nominated and paid. His position is without an exact parallel in any other municipal administrative body, for his duties are a combination of those usually performed in an English borough by the town clerk and chairman of committees, and in a German town by the Burgomeister. He is responsible for the whole of the routine work of the Municipality, prepares the budgets, and exercises a direct supervision over all departments, whether secretarial or technical, and, in addition, has a consultative voice in the Council, although he is not, strictly speaking, a member. Besides defining the position and executive power of the Administrator the scheme of reorganisation also specified the powers of the delegation, or executive committee of seven members elected annually by their colleagues. Nearly all subjects which come up for discussion, and especially those relating rather to detail work than to broad questions of policy, are thrashed out by the delegation, which sits weekly, before being submitted to the full Council. In addition, there are the usual small committees to which special matters may be referred as occasion may require. This reorganisation of the Council was followed, on the appointment of the Administrator in July, 1904, by a thorough overhauling of each department of the Municipal service and has led to increased efficiency and revenue.



CATACOMBS AT MEX, ALEXANDRIA.

(Photo by Reiser.)

Broadly speaking, the administrative functions of the Alexandria Council are similar to those possessed by municipal authorities in European countries. In the framing of new bye-laws and regulations, however,

special forms of procedure are rendered necessary by the existence of various treaties. The control of the Council over finance, too, is strictly limited. For, though solely responsible for the collection and expenditure of the Municipal revenue, the Council has no power to impose new imposts or to increase those already in existence. Formerly the Government undertook the care of the public health, but gradually all sanitation work, except the supervision of shipping and the quarantine of vessels, has been transferred to the Municipality, the Government contributing £2,000 annually towards the expense. The Council is responsible also for the efficiency of the Fire Brigade and the maintenance of the Museum and Library, but the Government still exercises direct supervision over the police force. The waterworks, tramways, and public lighting are in the hands of private companies, which received their concessions from the Municipality or, formerly, from the Government, under certain stipulated conditions. For instance, under an agreement entered into when the Municipality supplied nearly all the funds necessary for laying down a filter system, the Water Company divides equally with the Municipality any profits which may remain after 10 per cent. has been paid to the shareholders, and in 1908 the public exchequer benefited to the extent of £5,000 by this arrangement. The Tramways Company have been granted a lease till 1946 upon the payment of a small rental per kilometre of line, but the Municipality have reserved the right to purchase the system in 1916. The Gas Company's concession expires on December 31, 1991. The Council has recently completed the construction of a new quay, an important improvement which promises to prove, also, a very remunerative investment, as the sale of the reclaimed land is expected to realise more than the initial outlay. To meet the cost of this undertaking, a public loan of £500,000 was raised in 1907, repayable, by annual instalments, in fifty-five years, together with interest at the rate of 4 per cent. The Council is not forgetful either of its duties in regard to the preservation of open spaces. The Nouzha Gardens have been entirely renovated and are maintained by the Municipality, which, at the present time, is engaged in transforming the old fortifications into a large park.



MEMBERS OF THE ALEXANDRIA MUNICIPAL COUNCILS, PAST AND PRESENT.

1. Dr. E. Gotschlich. 2. Mansour Bey Youssouf. 3. W. P. Chataway Bey. 4. Ahmed Bey Ayoub.
5. D. Tambacopoulo. 6. N. J. Caralli. 7. A. A. Fargali. 8. Baron Alfred de Menasce. 9. E. W. P. Foster.
10. D. Rieti. 11. O. E. Rothacker. 12. Toussaint Suzzarini. 13. Hassabo Mohamed Bey. 14. Emanuel Antonio Benachi.
15. G. C. Zervudachi. 16. H.E. Ahmed Yehia Pasha. 17. Mohammed Bey Osman. 18. H.E. Schiess Pasha.
19. G. Norsa Bey. 20. D. E. Lloyd-Davies. 21. G. B. Alderson. 22. A. A. Ralli. 23. Emanuel Stross. 24. H. P. Kingham.

THE FINANCES.

As already stated, the Council has to follow a clearly defined path in the region of finance. It must not allow its expenditure to exceed its income, it must not increase its demands upon the public, and it must not pledge its credit beyond £500,000—a limit which has now been reached. Its revenue is derived chiefly from the following sources:—A voluntary tax of ½ per mille on exports and imports; voluntary tax of 1 per cent. on houses and land payable by the owners; house tax of $\frac{1}{12}$th the rental value; tax of 2 per cent. on the rateable value of property payable by the tenants; taxes on carriages and beasts of burden; receipts from the abattoirs; and quarry dues.

The octroi duties which were formerly in existence were abolished in 1902. An assessment of property within the Municipal boundaries is made every eight years. According to the last valuation in 1902, the assessed rental value of the town was £E640,344, as compared with £E460,380 in 1894. It is expected that in 1910 the valuation will amount to £E1,200,000.

The Council produces its budget in November for the following year. In the event of the approval of the Minister of the Interior not being received by December 31, the previous year's budget is taken as the basis for the expenditure during the following twelve months. As will be seen from the following tabular statement, the receipts and expenditure have each increased about sixfold since the Council has been in existence, and at the end of 1907 there was an accumulated balance in hand of £E135,587:—

RECEIPTS.

	Budget Ordinary. £E.	Budget Extraordinary. £E.	Total. £E.
1890	—	—	54,910
1891	—	—	51,879
1892	—	—	89,627

	Budget Ordinary. £E.	Budget Extraordinary. £E.	Total £E.
1893	—	—	98,607
1894	—	—	104,098
1895	—	—	105,020
1896	—	—	99,140
1897	—	—	103,760
1898	—	—	120,906
1899	—	—	147,674
1900	—	—	151,654
1901	—	—	150,596
1902	165,039	10,398	175,437
1903	178,153	13,797	191,950
1904	189,581	8,389	197,970
1905	232,651	6,341	238,992
1906	225,925	70,797	296,722
1907	252,919	62,830	315,749
	1,244,268	172,552	2,694,691

EXPENDITURE.

	Budget Ordinary. £E.	Budget Extraordinary. £E.	Total. £E.
1890	—	—	45,909
1891	—	—	50,678
1892	—	—	76,011
1893	—	—	92,708
1894	—	—	98,439
1895	—	—	115,809
1896	—	—	125,726
1897	—	—	95,640
1898	—	—	105,340
1899	—	—	128,467
1900	—	—	157,369
1901	—	—	167,301
1902	175,584	21,935	197,519
1903	165,428	5,268	170,696
1904	151,630	17,327	168,957
1905	180,496	25,407	205,903
1906	184,814	64,299	249,113
1907	211,081	96,438	307,519
	1,069,033	230,674	2,559,104
Balance in hand ...			135,587
			2,694,691

The appended comparative statement shows the principal items of revenue and expenditure during 1906 and 1907, viz. :—

RECEIPTS.

	1906. £E.	1907. £E.
Tax on imports and exports (voluntary)	23,530	26,125
Tax on vehicles and beasts of burden	14,450	14,762
House and land tax, paid by the proprietors	72,002	81,142
1 per cent. additional house tax, paid by the landlords (voluntary)	8,598	9,654
2 per cent. on the rateable value paid by the tenants	20,574	23,518
Receipts from the abattoirs	34,385	36,962
Quarry dues	17,973	16,704

EXPENDITURE.

	1906. £E.	1907. £E.
Personnel	42,605	49,987
Lighting	22,085	22,773
Paving	15,456	14,734
Cleaning (service central) ...	16,780	19,084
Watering the roads	4,023	4,522
Sweeping do.	10,382	12,425
Parks and Plantations ...	2,973	5,754
Sanitary Service	5,804	8,428
Museum and Library ...	1,381	1,357
Fire Brigade	4,989	5,724

TECHNICAL SERVICE.

The Technical Service of the Municipality was formed in the year 1890 by the amalgamation of the Tanzim Government Service and the Technical Service, maintained by voluntary taxation under the local Commission. The Tanzim Government Service was responsible for the arrangement and application of building lines for streets, and for the lighting, watering, and cleansing of the streets within the city proper.

When the Municipality was established, the works that came within the purview of the Municipal Engineer were apportioned between three separate departments. The Cleansing Department was separate from the Technical Service and undertook the upkeep of unpaved and unmetalled roads, and the sweeping and watering of the streets. The Technical Service was divided into two departments—the Voirie and the Tanzim—under the direction of the chief engineer. The first of these was responsible for the erection of new public buildings; the paving, drainage, and maintenance of streets; public lighting; the supervision of the works of the Tramway, Water, Gas, and Telephone systems; and the inspection of machines installed in the city. The staff consisted of one civil engineer, one mechanical engineer, and various inspectors and clerks. Another engineer was added to the service in 1895. The Tanzim Department had charge of the inspection of alignments, street widenings, the regulation of new buildings in regard to alignments only, and the survey, valuation, purchase, and sale of all public lands. The staff consisted of one chief of the service, one chief inspector, and five district inspectors, together with draughtsmen and clerks.

Later a new branch was added to the Technical Service for the study of the scheme for draining the town and making the new quay already referred to. This new department was under the *ægis* of this office, directed by the chief engineer, Dietrich Bey, that the new quay was constructed and the first foundations for the drainage scheme was laid.

On the re-organisation of the various departments, after the appointment of the administrator, several modifications were introduced into the organisation of the Technical Service, but it was left to the new chief engineer, Mr. D. E. Lloyd Davies, M.Inst.C.E., who succeeded Dietrich Bey at the end of 1906, to carry out the re-organisation of the Technical Service, and the following departments were then formed :—Administrative Department, including secretaries, clerks, and accountants; Engineering and Surveys Department and Drawing Office; Building Department; Road Department; Mechanical, Electrical, Tramway, Water, Gas, and Weights and Measures Department; Street and Sewer Cleansing Department; and Parks and Plantations Department. As it was evident that the Technical Department had been considerably understaffed, it was augmented by the addition of four engineers, six draughtsmen, and several inspectors and clerks.

The city of Alexandria has been for some years, and is still, gradually undergoing a complete change, and an old and somewhat dilapidated Oriental city is being successfully converted into a modern European commercial centre. A large number of the streets have been, and are being, widened, properly paved, and sewered, and large squares have been created in the most crowded parts of the town. The result is not only an improved appearance and increased facility for traffic, but also a more sanitary condition, the advantages of which are obvious.

A number of new streets were made and existing streets were widened between 1890 and 1906. Amongst the more important of these were the Mex main road, connecting the centre with the western portions of the city; the Seouf main road, connecting the city with the outlying eastern district; Abdel Moneim Street; and the new 30-metre road through Chatby. During this period, also, various streets having a total area of 192,911 square metres were paved with stone; 349,594 square metres were macadamised; 42,823 lineal metres of sewers, with 1,800 house connections, were constructed; and 3,429 gas lamps were added to those already existing in the city.

Up to the end of 1907, 552,201 square metres of the street were paved with stone; 60,736 square metres with compressed asphalt, and 384,014 square metres with macadam. There were also about 2,000,000 square metres of roughly constructed secondary roads, which will be macadamised as finances allow.

The principal works carried out between 1890 and 1906 included the construction of the Public Abattoirs at Mex; houses for the working classes; the Museum; the disinfection establishment and laboratory, with annexes, for the Sanitary Department; and the demolition of the ancient fortifications and the creation of public gardens in the Rue d'Allemagne.

In 1893 the Municipal Commission decided to undertake the study of a complete drainage scheme for the city, and to this end a special service of engineers was appointed, under the direction of the chief engineer. After several eminent engineers had been consulted, a scheme was adopted which provided for the construction of a large main collector, 4,100 lineal metres in length, around the eastern bay of the city, with an outfall at Fort Kait Bey and Fort Silsileh, intercepting temporarily all the old sewers that emptied directly on to the then existing seashore and caused considerable nuisance.

In connection with this project, a promenade and reclamation scheme was undertaken which necessitated the construction of 3,900 lineal metres of seawall. An area of 526,000 square metres was reclaimed, and of this 216,000 square metres are destined for public roads and the main promenade. The remaining 310,000 square metres are available for building sites, and it is hoped that the proceeds from the sale of these will pay for the whole of the works, which cost £E367,694, and leave a considerable profit.

The special sewerage service also undertook the design and construction of the main western intercepting sewer for a length of 1,530 metres at a cost of £E8,162.

The first accurate plan of the town was taken from the surveys of this special service and printed. Unfortunately it covered only a small portion of the city, but the Survey Department of the Government are at the present time carrying out a complete survey of the whole city, which will be invaluable when completed in about two years' time.

In 1907 a provisional staff of five engineers, under the Chief Engineer, was deputed to report generally on the sewerage scheme as far as it was carried out, and suggest the best means of extending and completing it. This task has now been accomplished. It is intended to maintain the present sea outfall scheme and prolong the main outfall at Kait Bey. About eight pumping stations will be required to deal efficiently with the city, which is very flat. The power for

these will be supplied by electricity either from the new municipal destructor or from the generating stations of the tramway or gas companies. When this scheme, which is estimated at about £E400,000, has been carried out, the sewerage of the city will be as efficient as that of any modern European town.

The Municipal Council are also studying the scheme presented by the Chief Engineer for breakwaters between the Forts Silsileh and Kait Bey to protect the eastern bay and the new quay walls and promenade from damage during the heavy storms of the winter. When protected in this manner, the Eastern Bay will form a very fine harbour for pleasure sailing boats and small schooners in bad weather. The work will be put in hand during 1909, and will involve an expenditure of £E200,000. In conjunction with this scheme it is intended to increase the width of the promenade to 45 metres (147·5 feet).

The Engineering and Surveys Department in 1907 submitted a project for new roads, bridges, and other important works estimated to cost £E120,360. Amongst the chief schemes carried out during the twelve months were the prolongation of the promenade in a westerly direction around the Khedivial Palace of Ras-el-Tin, and the transfer of a large and insanitary district at Toubghieh to a new site at Kom Hacham, which necessitated the movement of between 550 and 600 houses—one of the largest schemes of this nature carried out at one time. Two new iron swing bridges over the Mahmoudieh Canal were designed and the contracts let, and an important irrigation scheme, including the installation of duplicate engines and pumps and the erection of a water tower for irrigating the principal public park, was completed.

The first bye-laws for the control of new buildings were introduced in 1907. In future no building may be erected or considerably altered until the plans have been approved by the municipality. Jerry building has thus received an effective check. In pursuance of these regulations, 1,990 applications were received up to the end of the year. The new Building Department was responsible in 1907 for the extension to the public abattoirs, extension of the eastern and western wings of the municipal buildings, construction of a veterinary hospital, extension of the Museum, and construction of the new Friedheim Art Gallery. Notices were served for the demolition of 145 dangerous houses and the repair of ninety-eight others.

Except for two or three small squares, with a total area of from 10,000 to 12,000 square metres, the town of Alexandria did not possess any public open spaces worthy of that name prior to 1905. In that year the Municipal Council decided to lay out large parks on the site of the old fortifications which surround the town to the north-east and south. The work was commenced in 1906, and the section to the north is now nearly completed. In this scheme full advantage has been taken of the depressions and hollows of the ground, and a park has been created of a kind hitherto unknown in Egypt. When the south section is similarly treated the town will be girt by a belt of parks and gardens which in point of beauty will not be inferior to those of the large European towns.

At the same time as they embarked upon this project the Council decided to transform into a public park the large Nouzha Garden—the old garden of the Khedive Ismael—which for many years had been abandoned to the vandalism of unscrupulous tenants who had no compunction in cutting down the rarest forest species to serve as fuel. To-day Alexandria possesses, 3 or 4 kilometres to the east of the town, the prettiest pleasaunce in Egypt, the floral ornamentation of which recalls some of the loveliest parks in Europe. It has an area of nearly 75 acres, and, with its carriage drives, ornamental water, flower beds, botanical gardens, and small menagerie, makes the visitor forget for the moment that he is in a desert land. To improve the appearance of this town still further, trees are being planted extensively in all the principal streets and promenades that lend themselves to this form of embellishment.

HEALTH DEPARTMENT.

The care of the public health was transferred from the Government to the Municipality, as already stated, upon the creation of the local authority, the Government retaining only the supervision of the Government Hospital, the medical police work, and the functions of the Quarantine Board. Under the old régime there was a public health officer who had under his direction four doctors, a few midwives, and a number of surveyors who attended to disinfection and kindred matters. To-day there is a chief public health officer, supported by an assistant health officer, a bacteriologist, eighteen doctors, three midwives, four veterinary surgeons, two chemists, and about one hundred and thirty clerks, surveyors, and workmen. The work of the Department is divided into four sections, namely, the hygienic service, the laboratory and disinfection service, the abattoir and veterinary service, and the office administration. The annual expenditure of the department is about £E22,300.

The Hygienic Department, which is presided over by the Assistant Public Health Officer, Dr. Boyd Carpenter, is responsible for the organisation and inspection of the Bureau des Mœurs; for the Municipal ambulance and dispensary service; for the medical night service, in connection with which two first-aid stations and a pharmacy are open throughout the night; for the inspection of markets, dairies, bread shops, stables, &c.; for the control of cemeteries; and for the prosecution of inquiries into the causes of death. No burial may take place in Alexandria until a medical certificate as to the cause of death has been obtained.

The Laboratory and Disinfection Department is entrusted to Dr. Delta, a qualified medical practitioner and chemist. Between 6,000 and 7,000 analyses are made every year. The results obtained, especially as regards the water supplied to the public, are eminently satisfactory. The regular disinfection staff for dealing with ordinary infectious diseases, consists of three surveyors and about twenty men, but during outbreaks of plague the staff is sometimes increased to more than two hundred. Not only are the houses in which plague has actually occurred disinfected, but the whole neighbourhood is subjected to the process of disinfection. In 1907 as many as 185,000 rooms were treated; but under normal conditions when there is no epidemic the number does not exceed 4,000 a year. The isolation of cases of plague is rigidly enforced, and special barracks are provided for the accommodation of persons suffering from other infectious diseases. Segegration camps, also, are established for persons who have been in contact with serious infectious cases.

The Veterinary Department—of which Mr. Piot, veterinary-surgeon-in-chief, has charge—exercises supervision over the public abattoirs, deals with cases of infectious diseases among animals, and is responsible for the conduct of the Municipal Veterinary Infirmary. Some idea of the extent of the work of the Department may be gathered from the fact that about 146,000 sheep and 53,000 cattle are slaughtered annually in Alexandria.

The Administration Department, under a chef de bureau, registers births and deaths, compiles statistics relating to the public health, and attends generally to the secretarial work. From the records in the possession of this Department it would appear that the population of Alexandria has increased by 100,000 during the last decade, and now numbers between 420,000 and 450,000 inhabitants. Of this total, about 75,000 are foreigners and the remainder "natives," Egyptian and Ottoman subjects only being regarded as "natives" for the purposes of these returns. In 1897 the town had 320,000 inhabitants, of whom 50,000 were foreigners. The increase of between 9,000 and 10,000 a year which these figures reveal is chiefly due to immigration, but in part it is attributable to an average excess of births over deaths amounting to something like 3,000 a year. The native birth-rate is about 41 per mille. It is difficult to compute with any degree of accuracy the birth-rate among foreigners, but it may be set down approximately at 24 per mille. The general death-rate per mille, including natives and foreigners, in 1906 was 29·2; in 1907, 32·2; and in 1908, 25—an average for the three years of 28·8. The death-rate has decreased considerably of recent years. Among natives it averaged about 34·8 per mille from 1891 to 1895; 33·3 per mille from 1896 to 1900; and 32·3 per mille from 1901 to 1905. Among foreigners it averaged 19 per mille from 1896 to 1900; and 16 per mille from 1901 to 1905. In this respect it will be seen Alexandria compares favourably with populous European towns. The rate of infantile mortality, however, is extremely high, and, unfortunately, it has shown no decrease during the last 15 years. Roughly speaking, out of every thousand native children born, 280 die before they reach one year of age. Among foreign children the average of those who died in their first year was 152 per mille from 1896 to 1900, and 127 from 1901 to 1905. The death-rate among native children between the ages of one and five is about 205 per mille, while among foreigners the rate was 108 per mille from 1896 to 1900, and 88 per mille from 1901 to 1905. The high mortality amongst native children is due in large measure to the ignorance and indolence of the mothers of the poorer classes. In the hope of remedying this state of things a powerful organisation, known as the Society for the Prevention of Infant Mortality, has recently been formed, and many of the leading native and foreign residents are interesting themselves in its work. A drug store known as Lady Cromer's Dispensary has been opened; an international *crèche* for receiving children while their mothers are at work has been established; and attempts are being made to educate the mothers in the proper methods of rearing the young.

Plague has existed in Alexandria since 1899, but thanks to the energetic measures already mentioned, which have been taken to stamp it out, it has not assumed serious proportions. During the last ten years the total number of deaths from plague was 1,595. In the previous period when plague existed in the town, namely, from 1834 to 1844, the number of deaths recorded was 12,500.

Taking into consideration the fact that the population was then certainly below half, perhaps only a quarter, as numerous as it is to-day, it will be seen that the ravages of plague then were from fifty to one hundred times as great as they are now.

Vaccination is compulsory in Alexandria, and is performed gratis with animal vaccine prepared in the Cairo Vaccine Institute. It is difficult, however, to enforce the regulations in regard to foreign children on account of the irregularity that occurs in the announcement of births. The immediate effect of this has been strikingly shown by the fact that Europeans have not enjoyed the same degree of immunity as natives from small-pox. In the epidemic of 1907, out of 710 cases resulting in 271 deaths, only 285 cases, with 128 deaths, occurred among natives. The outbreak of the epidemic led to increased vigilance on the part of the vaccination department, with the result that over 180,000 people were vaccinated during the year.

Of diphtheria, 163 cases, with 82 deaths, were reported in 1907, as compared with 186 cases with 94 deaths, in the previous year. In all cases where diphtheria occurs serum is distributed gratis to the whole family, and to all who may be in danger of infection. Cholera has twice made its appearance in Egypt within recent years. The number of deaths from this cause in 1896 was 1,000, and in 1902, 1,200. Scarlet fever is comparatively rare. Elaborate precautions are taken to guard against the introduction of infectious diseases by passengers and pilgrims from infected countries or from the Red Sea, and even when immigrants have been passed by the Quarantine Board they are subjected to further examination by the Municipal authorities.

THE FRIEDHEIM GALLERY.

Alexandria possesses the only public picture gallery in Egypt. It was presented to the Municipality in 1906, by Mr. Edouard Friedheim as an unqualified gift, together with a sum of £400 for general purposes. There are some 217 pictures, including land- and seascapes, portraits, studies, and pictures of still life. The majority are in oils, but there are a few watercolour sketches, and about twenty etchings. One of the most valuable pictures in the gallery is a portrait in oils of a Dutch lady, by Gerhard der Borch ; other notable ones being a collection of flowers and fruit by Jan Breughel, two landscapes by Ruysdael, a portrait of the Grand Duke of Saxony, by Largellières (early eighteenth century), a picture entitled "Adultery," by Matthias Grünewald (of the sixteenth century), and a portrait in oils of Mr. Friedheim. The directrice is Miss Mary Szolder, who was born in Alexandria, and was educated locally and on the Continent.

WILLIAM PERCEVAL CHATAWAY, administrator of the Municipality of Alexandria, entered the service of the Egyptian Government as Sub-Inspector of Customs in April, 1884. He became Director of Customs at Port Said in 1888, and he was transferred to Alexandria as Inspector under the Director-General of Customs in 1896. Four years later, he was appointed local Director of Customs, and in July, 1904, Government sanctioned his acceptance of his present post. The fifth son of the late Rev. James Chataway, rector of Rotherwick, Hants, Mr. Chataway was born at Wartling, in Sussex, on July 6, 1865. He was educated at Hartford House, Winchfield, and at Marlborough, and before coming to Egypt he spent nine months in Switzerland. He married, in 1888, Hester, only daughter of the Rev. H. B. Carpenter, and a niece of the Bishop of Ripon. He is extremely popular, and is a well-known figure in local social circles.

H.E. DR. JOHANNES SCHIESS PASHA, Vice-President of the Alexandria Municipal Council, was born at Herisau, Switzerland, in 1837. He came to Alexandria in 1869, and for thirty-five years was connected with the Government Hospital. He was appointed Director of the Hospital in 1885, and occupied that position for twenty years. He was appointed to a seat on the Municipal Commission in 1890, and on his retirement from the Hospital he was elected Vice-President. He has taken a prominent part in local archæological research, and was the first President of the Alexandria Museum. The town owes to him the Victoria Column, erected in 1897 to commemorate the late Queen's Jubilee, and the Khartoum Column, erected in the following year to mark the re-conquest of the Soudan. He has been decorated with numerous foreign orders, and is a Commander of the Orders of Mejidieh, Osmanieh, and the Saviour (Greece). In December, 1900, he was publicly honoured by the inhabitants of Alexandria, and was given a gold medal struck in recognition of his many services to the town. His first wife, whom he married in 1873, was Elaine, a daughter of Dr. Tricon, of Alexandria ; and after her death he married, in 1905, Elizabeth, a daughter of Mr. Schinderle, of Austria. He has one daughter.

BARON ALFRED DE MENASCE, a member of the Municipal Council, is a son of the late Baron Bahor de Menasce, a former well-known banker in Alexandria. He was born in Paris on July 27, 1867, and was educated first at Vienna and then at the Faculté de Droit, Paris. He took his licentiate's diploma in 1890, and soon afterwards came to Egypt, where he established himself as a banker. He soon became intimately associated with the business and social life of the town. He is on the board of several companies, including the Société Egyptienne d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales and the Splendid Hotels Company. He is President of the Cercle d'escrime d'Alexandrie. He is a commander of the Order of Mejidieh, and is decorated with the Order of Francis-Joseph. Married to Elen, a daughter of the late Félix Suares, he has one son.

Le Baron Alfred de Menasce, qui est un membre du Conseil Municipal d'Alexandrie, est un fils de feu le baron Bahor de Menasce, autrefois banquier bien connu à Alexandrie. Il est né à Paris le 27 Juin, 1867, et a été éduqué d'abord à Vienne et après à Paris à la Faculté de Droit. Il prit son diplôme de licencié en 1890 et vint bientôt en Egypte où il s'établit banquier. Il s'associa bientôt dans les affaires et dans la vie sociale de la ville. Il est membre de plusieurs compagnies, y compris de la Société Egyptienne d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales et de la Splendid Hotels Company. Il est Commandeur de l'Ordre du Méjidieh et il est décoré de l'Ordre de François-Joseph. Marié à Hélène, fille de feu Félix Suares, il a un fils.

AMBROISE ANTONIO RALLI is entitled, both by age and length of service, to be called the father of the Municipal Council, of which he was Vice-President from 1896 to 1906. Scarcely two years after the creation of the Municipality in 1890, he was elected as a representative of the College of Exporters, in whose interest he continued to hold his seat until 1907, when he was returned by the General College of Electors. Throughout his seventeen years' association with the Council, Mr. Ralli has been closely identified with all the forward movements for the improvement of the city. With him originated one of the most popular schemes of recent years—that for converting the old fortifications of the city into a modern, circular park. In recognition of his services he has been created a Grand Officer of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh by the Khedive, and a Chevalier of the Order of the Saviour by the King of Greece. Mr. Ralli, who is the third and only surviving son of the late Antonio Theodore Ralli, was born in London, in 1850, and was educated privately and at King's College, London, graduating as a Bachelor of Arts, with honours, in 1871, at the London University. Six years later, having married Mary Theodora, a daughter of the late Theodore M. Ralli, he came to Alexandria to join his father-in-law, who was trading as a cotton and produce exporter under the style of Ralli, Sons, & Co., and was eventually admitted to partnership. When the original firm was liquidated in 1901 he confined himself to financial business, and is now one of the Directors of the National Bank of Egypt. It would be impossible to enumerate all the various offices which Mr. Ralli has held or still holds, but it may be mentioned that he has been a member of the committee of the British Chamber of Commerce ever since its formation ; that he is on the general committees of the Victoria School and the "Orwa el Worska" Society ; and that he is president of the Archæological Society, the Conservatoire of Music, and the Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. In his younger days he was an enthusiastic sportsman, and he is still connected with all the leading sporting and social clubs. He has a charming residence known as Villa Adriana, at Bulkeley, Ramleh, where he lives with his younger daughter, for he became a widower in 1885, and his elder daughter married Mr. Andrew Alexandroff.

EMANUEL ANTONIO BENACHI, head of the well-known firm of Choremi, Benachi & Co., and leader of the Greek Community in Alexandria, has represented the General College of Exporters on the Municipal Council since 1890, and prior to that date he was for thirteen years a member of the Comité d'Elité, which, as the forerunner of the Commission, did so much to pave the way for the introduction of municipal government. He has always taken a prominent part in works of public utility. In 1880 he was treasurer of the fund for the building of the Greek Hospital ; and at the present time he is chairman of all the leading Greek institutions. As president of the Greek Community, to which position he was unanimously elected in 1902, he has endowed the Community with an Orphanage, and with the Economical Kitchens which have proved such a boon to the people of the poorer class. He is chairman of the Mohamed Ali Club, and member of the Khedivial Club, Cairo. He takes great interest in educational and agricultural questions, and is on the executive committee of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, Cairo. He is chairman of the board of directors of the Associated Cotton-Ginners of Egypt, Ltd., and is on the boards of the National Bank of Egypt, the National Insurance Co. of Egypt, and the Egyptian Salt and Soda Co. Mr. Benachi is the

eldest son of the late Antonio Benachi, a merchant of Syra, Greece; he was born in 1844, and after receiving a grounding in education in his native country, he spent a year and a half at a school at Wilmerslow, near Manchester. The beginning of the year 1865 witnessed his arrival in Alexandria, where he joined the firm of J. P. Schilizzi, and soon became manager of the business. In 1868, he began on his own account as a cotton trader, in partnership with his brother Luke, and spent a year travelling in the interior and learning the Arabic language. In 1870, having married the youngest sister of Mr. John C. Choremi, he threw in his lot with the firm of Choremi, Mellor & Co., and shortly afterwards proceeded to Liverpool in charge of the branch establishment in that city. The firm became known some few years later as Choremi, Benachi & Co., and eventually Mr. Benachi took his place as head of the firm. He has two sons, Antonio and Alexander, who have a share in the management of the Alexandria branch, and three daughters, Mrs. Constantine John Choremi, Mrs. Stephen Delta, and Mrs. Michel Salvago. He spends half the year in his country residence at Kefissia, Athens, and is a member of the Athens Club, the leading institution of its kind in the Greek capital. Mr. Benachi is a Commander of the Order of the Saviour of Greece, of the Order of the Patriarch of Jerusalem, of the Order of Mejidieh, and of the Order of Osmanieh.

Emmanuel Antonio Benachi, chef de la maison bien connue Choremi, Benachi et Cie, et Président de la Communauté Hellénique d'Alexandrie, a représenté le Collège Général des Exportateurs au sein de la Commission Municipale depuis 1890. Avant cette date, il a été pendant treize ans membre du Comité d'Elite, qui comme avant coureur de la Commission actuelle, prépara si bien la voie au régime municipal. Il prit également une grande part dans les travaux d'utilité publique. En 1880 il administra les fonds recueillis pour l'érection de l'Hôpital Grec; et actuellement il est à la tête de toutes les principales institutions helléniques. Comme président de la communauté grecque, charge qui lui fut conférée à l'unanimité en 1902, il a doté la communauté d'un orphelinat, et de cuisines économiques qui ont été un grand bienfait pour les classes pauvres. Il est président du Club Mohamed Ali et membre du Club Khédivial du Caire. Il s'intéresse vivement à toutes les questions qui touchent l'éducation et l'agriculture, et fait partie du Comité exécutif de la Société Khédiviale d'Agriculture du Caire. Il est président du Conseil des Directeurs de l'Associated Cotton Ginners, Ltd., et fait partie des Conseils de la National Bank of Egypt, de la National Insurance Co. of Egypt, et de l'Egyptian Salt and Soda Co. M. Benachi est le fils aîné de feu Antonio Benachi, négociant à Syra (Grèce). Il est né en 1884, et après avoir reçu une première instruction dans son pays natal, il passa un an et demi dans une école de Wilmerslow, près de Manchester. Le commencement de l'année 1865 marque son arrivée à Alexandrie, où il s'unit à la maison J. P. Schilizzi, et en devint bientôt le directeur. En 1868 il s'établit pour son propre compte comme négociant en coton, en société avec son frère Luc, et passa une année à voyager dans l'intérieur, où il apprit la langue arabe. En 1870, s'étant marié avec la plus jeune fille de M. John C. Choremi, il lia son avenir à celui de la maison Choremi, Mellor et Cie, et bientôt après il partit pour Liverpool chargé de monter une succursale en cette ville. La maison se transforma après quelques années en Choremi, Benachi et Cie, et M. Benachi en devint définitivement le chef. Il eut deux fils, Antonio et Alexandre, qui ont une part dans la direction de la maison d'Alexandrie, et trois filles: Madame Constantin John Choremi, Madame Stephen Delta et Madame Michel Salvago. Il passe la moitié de l'année dans sa maison de campagne à Kéfissia (Athènes), et il est membre du Club d'Athènes, la principale institution dans son genre de la capitale grecque. M. Benachi est Commandeur de l'Ordre du Sauveur de Grèce, de l'Ordre du Patriarche de Jérusalem, de l'Ordre du Méjidieh, et de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh.

H.E. AHMED YEHIA PASHA, as a member of the Municipal Council, has done much to further the well-being of the inhabitants of the town; whilst, as a member of the Legislative Council, he has been distinguished by his uprightness, his independence, and his loyalty in upholding the rights of his fellow-countrymen. Actuated by moderate Nationalist principles, he is ready upon all occasions to raise his voice against the abuse of power by those in authority. He belongs to one of the oldest and most highly respected families in Alexandria. He was born in 1840, and at the age of sixteen he joined his father, a former well-known merchant, in business. He founded various land and building enterprises, and in course of time, thanks to his initiative, his intelligence, and his tact in managing his affairs, he became one of the largest and most influential landed proprietors in Alexandria. He held his seat on the Municipal Council originally by election, but for many years since he has been one of the members nominated by the Government. On the Legislative Council he represents Alexandria and all the other Egyptian ports.

S.E. Ahmed Yehia Pacha, en sa qualité de membre de la Commission Municipale, a beaucoup contribué au bien-être des habitants de la ville: de plus, comme membre du Conseil Législatif, il s'est distingué par sa droiture, l'indépendance et la loyauté avec lesquelles il a soutenu les droits de ses compatriotes. Mû par des principes d'un nationalisme modéré, il est toujours prêt à lever sa voix contre tout abus de pouvoir. Il appartient à l'une des plus anciennes familles et des plus respectées d'Alexandrie. Il est né en 1840, et à l'âge de seize ans il se mit à travailler avec son père, qui était un négociant bien connu. Il a lancé diverses entreprises de terrains et de constructions, et avec le temps, grâce à son initiative, son intelligence et le tact déployé dans l'administration de ses affaires, il est devenu l'un des plus forts et des plus influents propriétaires fonciers d'Alexandrie. Il obtint à l'origine son siége à la Commission Municipale, par élection; mais depuis plusieurs années il est au nombre des membres nommés par le Gouvernement. Au Conseil Législatif il représente la ville d'Alexandrie et tous les ports égyptiens.

OSCAR EMIL ROTHACKER, senior partner in the firm of Schneider & Rothacker, general merchants, took a prominent part in local affairs, but in 1907 he was obliged to relinquish most of his various offices on account of illness. He has been, since March, 1898, one of the members nominated by the Government to sit on the Municipal Council, and he was specially interested in the question of making Alexandria a free port and in general of opening Egypt to the free trade by abolishing the export dues and the import dues except on luxuries. He was president of the Association du Commerce d'Importation for upwards of ten years, and he was formerly president of the Deutsche Schule, second president of the Franco-German Protestant Community, and a member of the Committee of the Anglo-German Diaconess Hospital. He is a member of the committee of the local Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, and it was due in no small measure to his efforts that the existing laws for the protection of wild birds in Egypt were passed. Born at Pforzheim, Baden, in 1859, Mr. Rothacker was educated at the Gymnasium of his town and at the Friedrichsdorfer Handelsschule, and then was for a few years engaged in commercial and banking business in his native country. Coming to Egypt as a tourist in 1877, however, he decided to remain in Egypt, and joined the firm of Schneider & Zahn, which eventually, on his being admitted to the partnership, became known under the present style of Schneider & Rothacker. He is a Commander of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and he has also two German decorations, the Ritterkreuz I. Klasse of the Zähringer Löwenorden and the Rother Adlerorden IV. Klasse. He was married in 1886 to Milly, a daughter of the late Christian Hess of Alexandria, and after her death he married her sister Emma. He has residences at Flemming, Ramleh, and at Stuttgart.

DEMOSTHENE TAMBACOPOULO has been a member of the Municipal Council of Alexandria since a year after its establishment. He was elected in 1891 as one of the representatives of the College of Importers, and he now holds his seat as one of the nominees of the General College of Electors. Born at Athens in 1860, he came to Alexandria when young and was educated there, and afterwards in Greece and Switzerland. On his return to Alexandria he embarked on a commercial career, and four years ago he joined the staff of the Orient Bank. He is now a joint director of the bank. He has given much of his time to furthering the general welfare of the public in his adopted town, and has held numerous public and semi-public offices. He is on the committees of the Greek Community, the Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches, and the Association du Commerce d'Importation; he is secretary of the Greek Chamber of Commerce; he is president of the Cigarette Rollers' Association and of the Society for the Employment of Boys; and he is a Past Master of the Greek Masonic Lodge at Alexandria. He was decorated with the Order of the Saviour of Greece, and has been created a Commander of the Order of the Cross of the Patriarch of Jerusalem, and of the Order of Mejidieh.

Démosthène Tambacopoulo a été membre de la municipalité de la ville d'Alexandrie, l'année qui a suivie son établissement. Il fut élu en 1891 comme un des membres du Collège des Importateurs, et il occupe maintenant un siége comme membre du collège des électeurs. Né à Athènes en 1860, il vint à Alexandrie quand il était encore tout jeune et y commença ses études qu'il termina ensuite en Grèce et en Suisse. A son retour à Alexandrie il s'engagea dans la carrière commerciale et quatre ans après il arriva peu à peu dans la Banque d'Orient. Il est maintenant adjoint-directeur de la banque. Il employa une grande partie de son temps à augmenter le bien-être général du public dans sa ville adoptive et obtint de nombreuses charges publiques et privées. Il fait partie du Comité

de la Société Hellénique, de la Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches, et de l'Association du Commerce d'Importation. Il est secrétaire de la Chambre de Commerce Grecque, président de l'Association "Cigarette" Rollers," et de la Société pour le Placement des Jeunes Gens. Il a été également nommé Maître de la Loge Maçonnique Grecque d'Alexandrie. Il fut décoré de l'Ordre du Sauveur de Grèce, et fut aussi nommé Commandeur de l'Ordre de la Crosse du Patriarche de Jérusalem, et de l'Ordre du Méjidieh.

MANSOUR BEY YOUSSOUF, a nominee of the Government on the Municipal Council, has held his seat since 1896. A son of the late Sheikh Yousseff, a former merchant, he was born in 1855, and after receiving an education in Arabic at various local schools, he joined his father in business. Twelve years later he started business on his own account in the Rue Minat el Basal as a coal and cotton merchant, and during the past twenty-eight years he has built up a large and prosperous concern. Twelve years ago the title of Bey was bestowed upon him, and he has since been decorated with the Grand Cordons of the Orders of Osmanieh and Mejidieh, and with the "Liakal" Order. He is an assessor judge of the Mixed Tribunal. Always interested in philanthropic movements, the Bey is vice-president of the Orwa el-Woska Society. He has one son, Hamed, who is now studying at the Victoria College, and five daughters.

Mansour Bey Youssouf, nommé par le Gouvernement à la commission municipale d'Alexandrie, est à son poste depuis 1896. C'est un fils de feu Sheikh Yousseff, autrefois marchand; il est né en 1855, et après avoir reçu une éducation en arabe dans différentes écoles, il entra dans les affaires de son père. Douze ans plus tard, il commença des affaires pour son compte à la rue Minat el Basal comme marchand de charbon et de coton. Ces vingt-huit dernières années tout ce qui le concerne est prospère. Il y a douze ans il reçut le titre de Bey, et depuis il fut décoré du Grand Cordon de l'Ordre d'Osmanieh et Méjidieh, et de l'Ordre du Liakal. Il est juge assesseur au Tribunal Mixte. Il est toujours intéressé dans le mouvement philanthropique. Le Bey est vice-président de la Société Orwa et el-Woska. Il a un fils, Hamed, qui fait dans ce moment ses études au Victoria College, et quatre filles.

HASSABO MOHAMED BEY, a member of the Municipal Council, is head of the firm of Hassabo Mohamed & Co., mechanical engineers and merchants. A reference to this firm will be found in another part of this volume.

AHMED ALI FARGALI, who was nominated by the Government during 1908 as a member of the Municipal Council, was born in Alexandria in 1875, and was educated at the Champs Batiste Essay, Paris. On his return to Egypt in 1896, he joined his father, a cotton merchant, in the Rue Monayar, Alexandria, and eventually succeeded to the business. He is a member of the Society of Importers, of the Association du Commerce d'Importation d'Alexandrie, and of the International Chamber of Commerce, and he is a generous supporter of the Orwa el-Woska Society. He lives in the Moharrem Bey quarter.

Ahmed Ali Fargali a été nommé par le Gouvernement en 1908 membre de la Commission Municipale, est né à Alexandrie en 1875 et a été éduqué aux Essais Champs Batiste, Paris. A son retour en Egypte en 1896, il rejoint son père, marchand de coton à la rue Monayar, Alexandrie, et éventuellement lui succéda dans les affaires. Il est membre de la Société d'Importation, de l'Association de Commerce d'Alexandrie et de la Chambre Internationale de Commerce. C'est un généreux soutien de la Société Orwa el-Woska. Il demeure dans le quartier de Moharrem Bey.

AHMED BEY AYOUB, an Egyptian subject and a native of Alexandria, was born in 1863, and was educated at l'École des Frères. Following his father in a commercial career, he eventually succeeded to the business, that of dealing in cotton and cereals, and is now trading in his own name in the Rue Stamboul. He is one of the members nominated by Government to a seat on the Municipal Council, and he has been for several years on the committee of the Orwa el-Woska. Fifteen years ago he received the title of Bey, and he has also been decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, fourth class, and Mejidieh, fourth class. A married man, with five daughters, he resides in the Moharrem Bey district.

GEORGES CONSTANTINE ZERVUDACHI, a member of the Municipal Council of Alexandria, and one of the best-known figures among the Greek Community of Alexandria, is a descendant of an ancient and noble family, who for some generations past have been concerned in the Government of the island of Chios, said to have been the birthplace of Homer. His father was the late Sir Constantine George Zervudachi, who was created Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George by the late Queen Victoria, for services rendered to the British Army during the troubles of 1882, and was decorated with the Orders of the Greek Cross, the Osmanieh, the Mejidieh, &c. Born in Alexandria in 1862, Mr. Zervudachi spent five years in a private English school under Dr. Wakes, at Bayswater, London, and then studied for a further three years at a French college at Marseilles. He returned to Egypt in 1882, and in the following year joined the office of his father, who carried on business under the style of C. G. Zervudachi et Fils, general merchants and bankers. He was sent to the firm's cotton-ginning factory at Abu Sir, on the Damietta branch of the Nile, where he spent ten years, and acquired a practical knowledge of agriculture in all its branches, and especially of cotton cultivation. On his father's death, he returned to Alexandria and assumed the general management of the business, and to his energies may be chiefly attributed the subsequent development of the concern. He is now the senior partner, three of his brothers being also in the firm. Banking and financial operations of all kinds are undertaken, and a large interest has been acquired in such important land and industrial enterprises as the Land Bank of Egypt, the Union Foncière d'Egypte (of which company Mr. Zervudachi is chairman), the Alexandria Water Company, the Société Anonyme du Béhéra, and the Société Générale de Pressage et de Dépôts. Mr. G. Zervudachi is also on the board of the Alexandria and Ramleh Railway Company, the Tramways of Alexandria, the Guizeh and Roda Island Land Company, &c., &c. The firm has valuable mining and other concessions in Abyssinia, and transact most of the financial business for the Government of that country; and they have also important concessions in Asia Minor and Syria, which, thanks to the friendly understanding between the British and Turkish Governments, are now being actively exploited. Mr. Zervudachi holds many offices. He is a committee member of the Hellenic Society, the Orwa el-Woska Society, the Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches, and several other local institutions and clubs. Since 1903, he has been a member of the Municipal Commission, as a nominee of the Government; he is also an assessor of the Mixed Tribunals and a judge of the Dutch Consular Court. His many services to his community, to his own and neighbouring countries have not gone without recognition. He has received the Grand Cross of the Order of Osmanieh from the Sultan, the Grand Cross of Abyssinia from the Emperor Menelik, the Grand Cross (in diamonds) of Persia from the Shah, and the Grand Cross of the Greek Order of Jerusalem from the Greek Patriarch, while he has been created a Commander of the Greek Cross by the King of Greece, a Grand Officer of the Order of Mejidieh by the Khedive, and an Officer of the Mérite Agricole by the French Government. Mr. Zervudachi has a charming house in the Rue Pharaon, and has a fine collection of ancient and modern oil-paintings. He is married to the eldest daughter of Mr. Pandia Rodocanachi, of Alexandria, and has one daughter and one son.

Georges Constantine Zervudachi, membre de la Commission Municipale d'Alexandrie, une des figures des plus connues de la Communauté Grecque d'Alexandrie, descend d'une ancienne et noble famille, qui autrefois a pris une part active au gouvernement de l'île de Chio, que l'on dit être le berceau d'Homère. Son père était feu Sir Constantin Georges Zervudachi, qui fut créé chevalier de l'Ordre de St. Michel et de St. Georges, par feue la Reine Victoria, pour services rendus à l'Armée britannique, pendant les troubles de 1882, et était décoré des Ordres de la Croix Grecque de l'Osmanieh, du Méjidieh, etc. Né à Alexandrie en 1862, M. Zervudachi resta pendant cinq ans à Bayswater, Londres, dans une école privée anglaise dirigée par le Dr. Wakes, et plus tard étudia encore pendant trois ans dans un collège français de Marseille. Il revint en Egypte en 1812, et dans le courant de l'année suivante entra dans les bureaux de son père, qui s'occupait d'affaires sous la raison sociale C. G. Zervudachi et Fils, négociants et banquiers. Il fut envoyé à l'usine d'égrenage de coton de la maison à Aboussir, sur la branche de Damiette du Nil, où il resta pendant dix ans, et acquit une connaissance pratique de l'agriculture dans toutes ses branches, et particulièrement de la culture du coton. A la mort de son père, il revint à Alexandrie, et assuma la direction générale des affaires; et c'est principalement à son énergie que l'on doit attribuer le développement ultérieur des affaires. Il est actuellement l'associé principal, trois de ses frères ayant également des intérêts dans la maison, qui entreprend tous genres d'opérations de banque ou de finance, et a acquis de gros intérêts dans un certain nombre d'entreprises foncières et industrielles, telles que la Land Bank of Egypt, l'Union Foncière d'Egypte (dont M. Zervudachi est président), l'Alexandria Water Company, la Société Anonyme du Béhéra, et la Société générale de Pressage et de Depôts, M. G. Zervudachi fait également partie des Conseils d'Administration de l'Alexandria and Ramleh Railways Company (Tramways d'Alexandrie), de la Guizeh and Roda Island Land Company, etc. La maison possède de bonnes mines ainsi que d'autres concessions en Abyssinie, et prend une part importante aux transactions financières



BLOCK OF OFFICES, CORNER OF RUE SESOSTRIS
(the property of G. Zervudachi).

de ce pays pour le compte du Gouvernement. Elle a aussi des concessions importantes dans l'Asie Mineure et en Syrie, qui, grâce a l'entente amicale qui existe entre les Gouvernements turcs et anglais, sont actuellement en pleine exploitation. M. Zervudachi occupe beaucoup de charges ; il est membre du Comité de la Société Hellénique, de la Société Orwa el-Woska, de la Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches, et de divers autres clubs et institutions locales. Depuis 1903, il est membre de la Commission Municipale, comme candidat nommé par le Gouvernement ; il est aussi assesseur auprès des Tribunaux Mixtes, et juge à la Cour Consulaire Hollandaise. Les nombreux services qu'il a rendus à sa communauté, à sa patrie et aux autres pays, lui ont valu beaucoup de reconnaissance. Il a reçu du Sultan la Grand Croix de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh, de l'Abyssinie, du Chah, la Grand Croix en diamants de Perse, et du Patriarche de Jérusalem, la Grand Croix de l'Ordre Grec de Jérusalem, tandis qu'il était créé par le roi de Grèce Commandeur de la Croix Grecque, par le Khédive, Grand Officier de l'Ordre du Méjidieh, et par le Gouvernement français, Officier du Mérite Agricole. M. Zervudachi a une charmante maison dans la rue Pharaon, et possède une collection intéressante de peintures anciennes et modernes. Il est marié à la fille aînée de M. Pandias Rodocanachi, d'Alexandrie, et a une fille et un fils.

EMANUEL STROSS has had a seat upon the Municipal Council for the past eleven years as one of the three representatives returned by the College of Importers. At various times he has served on all the committees of the Council, and for a number of years he has been a member of the delegation. An Austrian by birth, he has been associated with Egypt for the past forty-three years as one of the founders of the firm of Stross Bros. Since the creation of the Mixed Tribunal, Mr. Stross has been one of the judge-assessors ; and for some years before that he was a judge-assessor of the old Tribunal de Commerce. He was one of the founders of the College of Importers, and assisted also in the formation of the Austro-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce, the Asile François-Joseph, the Austro-Hungarian Benevolent Society, the German School, and the Club Khedivial. He is a Chevalier of the Order of Francis-Joseph, and of the Order of the Iron Crown, and a Commander of the Order of Mejidieh.

Emmanuel Stross a fait partie du Conseil Municipal durant les onze dernières années comme un des trois représentants du Collège des Importateurs. A différentes reprises, il a siégé dans toutes les Commissions du Conseil et pour un certain nombre d'années il a été membre de la Délégation. Autrichien de naissance, il est attaché à l'Egypte depuis quarante-trois ans, comme un des fondateurs de la maison Stross Bros. M. Stross est Juge Assesseur aux Tribunaux Mixtes depuis leur fondation, et pendant quelques années il avait la même attribution à l'ancien Tribunal de Commerce. C'est un des fondateurs du Collège des Importateurs, et il contribua également à la création de la Chambre de Commerce Austro-Hongroise, de l'Asile François-Joseph, de la Société de Bienfaisance Austro-Hongroise, de l'Ecole Allemande, et du Club Khédivial. Il est Chevalier de l'Ordre de François-Joseph, de l'Ordre de la Couronne de Fer, et Commandeur de l'Ordre du Méjidieh.

EDWARD WILLIAM PERCEVAL FOSTER, C.M.G., A.M.I.C.E., F.R.G.S., was nominated by the Government as a member of the Municipal Council in 1904, and again in 1908. The second son of the late E. H. H. Foster, of the Suffolk and Royal Irish Regiments, he was born in Mauritius in 1850, and, after receiving a private education, entered the Thomason Engineering College at Roorkee, India. In 1871 he joined the Bengal Irrigation Department, and in 1884 was selected for special work in Egypt. Eventually he became Inspector-General of Irrigation in Lower Egypt, and for his services was created a Companion of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, and was decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh, second class, and Mejidieh, second class. Since his retirement in 1895 he has been associated with several land reclamation and kindred enterprises in various parts of the country. He is managing director of the Société Anbnyme du Behera, and a director of the National Bank of Egypt, of the Agricultural Bank, of the Union Foncier d'Egypte, and of the Mortgage Company of Egypt.

HARRY PUGH KINGHAM, one of the members of the Municipal Council nominated by the College of Exporters, was for over eleven years manager of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank in Alexandria. He resigned in June, 1908, after having spent twenty-seven years in the service of the bank. He is chairman of the Kafr el Zayat Cotton Company, Ltd., and a director of several other companies, including the Associated Cotton Ginners of Egypt, Ltd. He is a fellow of the Institute of Bankers (London), a past president of the British Chamber of Commerce, and a judge assessor of the Mixed Tribunals of First Instance in Alexandria. A son of Richard Thomas Kingham, of 6, Finsbury Square, London, E.C., he was born on October 13, 1865, and was educated in London and Paris. He resides at 54, Rue d'Allemagne, Alexandria.

DANTE RIETI was elected by the College of Importers to a seat on the Municipal Council in February, 1906. A native of Italy, he came to Egypt in 1876, and was employed as an assistant by several mercantile firms until 1894, when he started business on his own account as a general merchant and commission agent, trading in piece goods of all descriptions, and representing the Union and Phœnix Espaniol Insurance Companies. He is secretary of the Italian Chamber of Commerce, treasurer of the Association du Commerce d'Importation, and a judge assessor of the Mixed Tribunal and of the Italian Consular Court. One of the public questions in which he is deeply interested is that of providing cheap dwellings for the poorer classes in Alexandria.

D. E. LLOYD-DAVIES, chief engineer to the Municipality of Alexandria, was elected to that post in 1906. Mr. Lloyd-Davies was nominated by Mr. Evan Spicer, chairman of the London County Council, on the advice of Mr. Maurice Fitzmaurice, C.M.G., M.Inst. C.E., the chief engineer. One of his first undertakings on his arrival in Alexandria was the complete re-organisation of the Technical Service ; and among other important works carried out by him or in progress may be mentioned the general improvement of the local roads, the inspection and control of buildings, various bridges over the Mahmoudieh Canal, and a complete scheme, involving an expenditure of £358,000, for the main drainage of the town. Mr. Lloyd-Davies has had a wide experience in all kinds of municipal engineering work. Born in 1875, and educated privately, he underwent a course of engineering study at the Birmingham University, and was then articled under the borough surveyor and engineer of Wolverhampton during a period of great municipal activity. He then joined the staff of Mr. R. E. W. Barrington, M.Inst.C.E., a civil and consulting engineer, practising as a specialist in municipal work at Westminster and Wolverhampton, and became chief engineer and managing assistant. He was subsequently appointed chief assistant engineer to the Birmingham Corporation, under Mr. John Price, M.Inst. C.E., city engineer and surveyor. During the five years he remained in Birmingham, the municipal works designed and undertaken involved altogether a cost of upwards of one million sterling. Mr. Lloyd-Davies is a member of the Institution of Civil Engineers, a member of the Royal Sanitary Institute, a member of the Incorporated Association of Municipal and County Engineers, holding the diplomas of each institution. He is also a fellow of the Surveyors' Institution, and he was a member of the first International Road Congress, held in Paris in 1908. He has been awarded the Manby Premium by the Institute of Civil Engineers for his research work into the estimation of rainfall discharge for sewerage systems, and a Miller Prize for his treatise on "Modern Methods of Sewage Disposal." He is also the author of a paper read before the students of that institution, entitled "Sources of Underground Water Supply."

MOHAMMED BEY OSMAN, General Secretary of the Municipality of Alexandria, entered the service of the Ministry of Public Works in 1885, and four years later was appointed Secretary of Tanzim. From 1891 to 1906 he held the position of Superintendent of Tanzim ; and when the re-organisation of the Technical Department was carried out by Mr. Lloyd-Davies, he was appointed Domanial Inspector. He was engaged in many works of public improvement ; and in the Chatby land dispute he was largely instrumental in winning the case for the authorities, the Municipal Council making him a grant of 3,000 pics of land in recognition of his services. Mohammed Bey is greatly interested in all matters appertaining to social and intellectual progress. He was one of the founders of the Orwa el-Woska Society, and his liberal co-operation in its work has earned him the decoration of the Order of Osmanieh. Mohammed Bey, who is forty-three years of age, is an old boy of the College des Frères, Cairo. He continued his studies in the Government Preparatory and Polytechnical Schools, and finally entered the Al Azhar University in order to go through a course of classical Arabic.

G. NORSA BEY is the doyen of the personnel of the Municipality of Alexandria, having been engaged under the Council ever since its formation. His first appointment was that of Chef du Bureau, Central ; then, in 1896, he was appointed Financial Secretary ; and finally, in 1904, following upon the fusion of the various Municipal services, he was made Director of the Municipal Revenue Department, the position he now fills. Under his direction the development of the department has exceeded all anticipations. Since 1904 the annual receipts have been augmented by £64,000 sterling, and this not by reason of any increase in the imports, but solely on account of the more efficient organisation and control of revenue receipts which have been introduced by him. A native of Trieste, he nevertheless comes of a very ancient and

noble family long resident at Ferrare, and is a senior member of the local Italian Community. For many years he has held the position of Italian Consul at Tantah. He is honorary secretary of the committee of the Archæological Society of Alexandria, which is under the patronage of H.H. the Khedive, and the discoveries and publications of which have been greatly appreciated not only locally but in Europe. He is honorary treasurer of the Université Populaire Libre; and is a member of the Ligue Egyptienne contre la Tuberculose, which has rendered such excellent service to consumptive subjects among the poor people of the town; and he is vice-president of the Société de Secours Mutuel des Employés d'Alexandrie. He was created a Bey of the Sanieh degree, and is a Chevalier of the Order of the Crown of Italy.

NICOLAS JOHN CARALLI entered the service of the Alexandria Municipal Council on its creation in 1890, and at present holds the post of Director of Accounts. He was born in Liverpool of Greek parents, and is a British subject. His education, begun at Corfu, was continued at the Greek schools in Alexandria. Later on he completed his studies in French and Italian at the schools of the Frères Chrétiens. Mr. Caralli is an officer of the Order of Mejidieh.

Nicolas Jean Caralli, sujet anglais, est né à Liverpool de parents hellènes. Il est entré au service de la Commission Municipale d'Alexandrie dès sa création en 1890, et aujourd'hui occupe le poste de Directeur de la Comptabilité Générale. Ses études primaires ont été faites à Corfou et celles de gymnase à l'école de la Communauté Hellénique d'Alexandrie. Il a ensuite approfondi ses connaissances des langues française et italienne aux écoles des Frères Chrétiens. M. Caralli est Officier de l'Ordre du Méjidieh.

THE KHEDIVIAL CLUB.

This international club, situated in the centre of the European quarter of Alexandria, occupies the first and second floors of the Alexandria Exchange Building, with the splendid verandah facing the Mehemet Ali Square. With its spacious saloons it is one of the most comfortable and up-to-date clubs in Egypt, and it forms a popular resort for officers of the army and navy visiting the port. It has a membership of 416, comprising permanent, country, affiliated, and temporary members. The permanent or full members are persons residing within the municipal boundaries, and are elected by ballot in the usual way. They pay an entrance fee of £E20, just now reduced to £E12, and an annual subscription of £E9, and have full power to vote. Princes of the Khedivial family, Ministers of the Egyptian Government, diplomatic agents, consuls-general, consuls, and vice-consuls of all the Powers, the Governor of Alexandria, and officers of the Army of Occupation and of His Britannic Majesty's Navy are admitted as permanent members without ballot and without entrance fee; while advisers to the Ministers of the Egyptian Government, Under Secretaries of State, and Judges of the Mixed and Native Courts of Appeal and First Instance are similarly exempt from ballot, but not from payment of entrance fee. Country members—those who reside in Egypt but outside the municipal boundaries of Alexandria—pay the same entrance fee, but their annual subscription is only £E4. Affiliated members are admitted after ballot, but without payment of entrance fee, at an annual subscription of £E2, this privilege being granted only to members of approved clubs in Egypt and elsewhere which extend similar privileges in return. The category of temporary members includes agents and consuls-general, consuls, vice-consuls, and consular attachés of all Powers, and officers on the active list of the army and navy of any Power, or of the Egyptian army, police force, or coast-guards, who pay an advance subscription of P.T. 75, without ballot or entrance fee. If a battalion of the Army of Occupation subscribe £E4 a month, all its officers enjoy the privilege of being placed on the list of temporary members; and the same subscription entitles the captain and ward-room officers of ships of war of any Power to join the Club as temporary members during the time that the vessels stay in harbour. There is a fifth class of membership to which visitors to Alexandria may be admitted for eight consecutive days without payment, but this privilege is only granted twice in any one year. The visiting members must be introduced by a member of the Club, and must obtain a card of admission signed by the secretary or by a member of the committee.

The Khedivial Club was founded in December, 1886, with a capital of £5,000, divided into 1,000 nominal shares, duly subscribed by the promoting members. This capital has since been refunded to the shareholders, and debenture shares have been issued in lieu of the original shares. These debentures, which are strictly nominal, and must be held by actual members of the Club, represent the assets of the Club, and in the last balance-sheet were estimated to be worth over £20,000. Of the executive committee, at least five members must be holders of proprietary shares. The present committee includes Mr. Robert J. Moss (president), Mr. Adr. R. Giró and H.E. Hassan Mohsen Pasha (vice-presidents), Dr. Alfred Osborne, Messrs. A. Bimsenstein, Jacques R. Aghion, Joseph Jac. Aghion, Clément Castro, A. Cesana, T. A. F. Critchley, Frank C. Haselden, H. J. Lancashire, P. A. Malone, William B. Rees, John R. Reeves, Emanuel Stross, Alfred Tilche, and C. Viterbo. Mr. Moss, who was elected in 1900, is the fourth occupant of the president's chair. His predecessors were the late Com. Giovanni Stagni, who took a leading part in the formation of the Club, Baron Jacques de Menasce, who held office from 1892 to 1895, and Sir George Morice Pasha, K.C.M.G. The president, vice-presidents, auditor, and a house committee of not less than three or more than five members, are elected by the executive committee from amongst their number. The house committee is now composed of Mr. Adr. R. Giró, H.E. Hassan Mohsen Pasha, and Messrs. Joseph Aghion, A. Cesana, and P. A. Malone, with Dr. Osborne as a supplementary member.

The Secretary, **MR. ALBERTO CUMBO,** is a son of the late Francesco Cumbo, and a nephew of the late Monseigneur Can. Salvatore Cumbo, D.D., Vicar-General to the Archbishop, and Professor of Theology in the University of Malta. He was born at Valetta, and was educated at the Lyceum attached to the University. He came to Egypt in 1887, and joined the Khedivial Club as assistant secretary ten years later, receiving his present appointment early in 1902. He has been a member of all the committees elected by the Maltese Community during the past sixteen years, and he is now vice-president of the Maltese Benevolent Society. He acted as honorary secretary to Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee Commemoration Committee, which undertook, on behalf of the community, the work of founding the Victoria School, and he is now honorary rector and a member of the board of that institution. He is interested in all forms of sport, and has been elected vice-president of the newly-formed Melita Sporting Club.

UNION CLUB.

Though the desirability of having a British club in Alexandria had been recognised for many years, it was not till June 3, 1904, that any definite action was taken to bring the Club into existence. On that date a meeting of British residents was held, under the chairmanship of Mr. E. W. P. Foster, a committee was formed, and the Club rooms were opened on January 1, 1905. Lord Cromer, His Britannic Majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary, Agent and Consul-General, was the first president, and the vice-presidents were Mr. E. B. Gould, I.S.O., and Mr. E. W. P. Foster, C.M.G. Mr. Foster was chairman of the first committee, which included the following gentlemen:—Major Hopkinson (vice-chairman), Mr. R. C. Abdy, Mr. P. C. Barnard, Captain N. T. Borton, Mr. H. P. Carver, Mr. J. E. Cornish, jun., Mr. James Hewat, Mr. A. F. Hirsch, Mr. H. P. Kingham, and Mr. W. F. Peel, with Mr. H. M. Dodwell as secretary.

When the Club started it had 212 members; the membership to-day is 350. Town members pay a subscription of P.T. 900 per annum, and country members P.T. 200, and there is an entrance fee of P.T. 500. Officers of the British Army of Occupation quartered in Alexandria and officers of British warships are admitted to membership on a subscription of P.T. 400, but are admitted to honorary membership for the first month of their stay.

The Club has all the usual facilities. There is a large dining-room, lounge, billiard and reading and smoking rooms, and the staff includes a European chef. The Club premises are situated in a block belonging to the Central Building Company, in the rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, and the Club is open from 10 a.m. to 1 a.m.

H.E. Sir Eldon Gorst, K.C.B., is the president, and the present committee consists of Mr. E. W. P. Foster (chairman), Captain N. T. Borton (vice-chairman), Major H. Hopkinson, and Messrs. H. E. Barker, H. R. C. Blagden, J. E. Cornish, jun., A. G. M. Dickson, R. T. Gundry, A. F. Hirsch, H. P. Kingham, A. S. Preston, and J. A. Scott.

THE GREEK COMMUNITY.

By Paléologue Georgiou, Director of the Schools of the Greek Community.

What is known as the Greek Community in Alexandria is a philanthropic institution representing the whole of the Greeks residing in the town. Its object is to provide young Greeks of both sexes with a national education in its school establishments, as complete as possible, to keep alive by means of its churches the orthodox religious Greek sentiment, and to tend the sick in its hospital. Since its foundation the Community has been under the jurisdiction of the Consulate-General of Greece, and the Consul-General for the time being is honorary president. Every Greek by birth domiciled in Alexandria is entitled to become a member of this Community in consideration of a minimum yearly subscription of 200 Egyptian piastres. All members are at the same time electors,

but in order to be eligible a subscription of at least 500 piastres must be paid.

The Community is governed by a committee consisting of twelve members at least and twenty-four at most. The members of the committee are elected from among qualified members of the Community for a period of three years, at a full general meeting. The committee thus constituted at its very first sitting proceeds to elect its own executive, *i.e.*, its president (who is at the same time the president of the Community), two vice-presidents, and a controller. The committee is divided into four sections or ephoria :—

1. The ephorion of School Establishments.
2. The Hospital ephorion.
3. The Real Properties ephorion.
4. The Churches and Cemetery ephorion.

Each ephorion separately directs the institutions under its care, but the whole of the committee is required to decide all financial questions, draw up the budget of the Community, and pronounce finally on serious questions or matters of general interest.

A conservative spirit based on reciprocal kindness and gratitude prevails in the Community. It is owing to this spirit that from the foundation of the Community in 1843 until the present day it has been governed by only nine presidents :—

(1) Michael Tossitsa, from May 7, 1843, to March 17, 1854.
(2) Count Etienne Zizinia, from April 17, 1854, to April 30, 1857.
(3) Demetrius Rizos, from May 31, 1857, to February 25, 1862.
(4) Constantine S. Charalambis, from March 16, 1862, to June 1, 1863.
(5) Sophocles Constantinides, from June 1, 1863, to May 17, 1871.
(6) Theodore M. Ralli, from May 18, 1871, to November 12, 1885.
(7) George Averoff, from November 15, 1885, died July 27, 1899.
(8) Constantine M. Salvago, from March 14, 1900, died August 12, 1901.
(9) Emmanuel A. Benachi, present president, elected on November 16, 1901.

The Greek Community was founded on May 7, 1843. On that date thirty-eight Greeks residing in Alexandria seeing that the Greek Hospital and School founded by Theodore Tossitsa, who died in 1821, were in a parlous condition, held a meeting in the Synod Hall of the Monastery of St. Sabbas. It was decided at this meeting that two subscriptions would be opened, one on behalf of the school, the other for the hospital, and that among the whole of the subscribers a committee of twelve representatives would be elected, to whom would be entrusted the organisation of the school and the hospital, as likewise the direction of these two establishments during 1843. M. Michael Tossitsa, then Consul-General for Greece, was unanimously elected president of the committee.

Michael Anastasius Tossitsa, born in 1767 at Metsoro, a small market town in Epirus, whose father was a furrier, settled in 1820 in Egypt, where he gained the friendship of the Viceroy Mehemet Ali. Owing to his activity in commerce and agriculture, he succeeded in amassing a considerable fortune, which at his death amounted to seven and a half million francs. This money he disposed of liberally for the benefit of his fellow countrymen. It was owing to his initiative above all that a general meeting of the Greeks of Alexandria, held at his house on June 13, 1844, resolved, with the consent of the Patriarch Hierotheos, to found a church in the city (the Monastery of St. Sabbas being then outside the city), the said church to belong to the Community.

Thus on September 12, 1847, the Community laid the first stone of its church "Evanghelismos" on a site of 12,550½ square pikes, then valued at 5 megidies (4 francs) per pike, belonging to Mr. Tossitsa, and left by him to the Community by way of gift. This was neither the first nor the last of the benefactions which the late Michael Tossitsa showered on the Community. In 1853 he made a gift to the latter of almost the whole of the land on which the Greek Hospital now stands, with an area of about 30,000 square pikes. At that time, he had erected at his own expense three buildings for the schools of the Community on a plot of land 6,000 square pikes in area belonging to him which he likewise assigned to the same Community. It should be remarked, however, that if Michael Tossitsa gave the Community such signal proofs of his benevolence, it is none the less true that the latter in its turn proved very grateful. Clause 15 of its Articles of 1854 says : "Whereas the patriots Messrs. Tossitsa have endowed the Community with splendid establishments by founding schools at their own expense, for the maintenance of which they have likewise provided by special legacy ; therefore the said schools shall be known as the 'Tossitsa Schools,' in memory of their founders. Every year, on the Holy Day commemorating the Three Princes of the Eastern Church, a solemn mass shall be celebrated in their memory, as likewise in that of the other benefactors of the schools."

As at the beginning of the year 1854 reasons of health compelled Mr. Tossitsa to leave Alexandria, and take up his residence in Athens, the committee at its meeting of November 29, 1854, decided to send him a letter, which acquainted him with the condition of the Community and which was worded as follows :—"The committee have deemed it their duty to render account to you of the present conditions of our establishments, knowing your great interest therein." The committee at the same time acquainted him that a stall in the church had been exclusively reserved for Madame Hélène Tossitsa, his wife.

The presidency of Michael Tossitsa constitutes, as it were, the first period of the Greek Community, *i.e.*, the period of its foundation and formation.

The period during which the presidents were Count Zizinia, Demetrius Rizos, Constantine S. Charalambis, and Sophocles Constantinides might well be called the period of preservation and transition. It is distinguished by the remarkable fact that it was the time of completion of the construction of the "Evanghelismos" Church, the solemn inauguration of which took place on April 7, 1856. Once more in token of gratitude towards the founder of the Community, Michael Tossitsa, the committee thought it their duty to acquaint him with this. He was then living in Athens.

It was under the presidency of Theodore M. Ralli, May 18, 1871, that the prosperity and splendour of the Greek Community began.

At a meeting held by the committee on February 24, 1864, Mr. Th. M. Ralli, who was then only a plain member, proposed in view of the insufficiency of the then existing hospital to have a second erected. The proposal was adopted, and the committee decided to appeal to the generosity of the Greek colony for the accomplishment of so humane a work. In this matter the committee was right, as was proved by the signal services which the small Greek hospital rendered during the great cholera ravages in 1865. These services are attested by letter of H.E. Cherif Pasha, Minister of Foreign Affairs to H.H. Ismael Pasha, dated July 16, 1865, and addressed to Mr. Zygomalas, then Consul-General of Greece at Alexandria. From this letter we quote the following lines :—

"I am happy to do homage, under the painful circumstances which we are now experiencing, to the praiseworthy efforts of the directors of the Greek Hospital, and I thank the latter for the care which it has unceasingly given to our sufferers during the epidemic. I therefore ask you, my dear Consul-General, to be good enough to express to the directors the whole of my gratitude, and to accept from the generosity of the Viceroy of Egypt the sum of 5,000 francs, which His Highness offers to the establishment to enable it to continue the good work it has so well done hitherto."

If the 1865 cholera resulted in the suspending until better times of the execution of the scheme regarding the new hospital building, it is none the less true that this scheme, far from being abandoned, was continually kept in view. At its meeting of March 14, 1875, the committee resolved that the new hospital should be built in the same garden where the old hospital stood, that a competition should be opened for the plans of the new hospital, which was to contain 120 to 130 beds, which number might admit of increase to 150–160. The inauguration of this new pious foundation took place on April 16, 1882. On that occasion the Community, in gratitude for the assistance, both moral and financial, which His Beatitude the Greek Orthodox Patriarch Sophronios had afforded in the realisation of this work, thought it right to give the hospital the name of the "Hospital of St. Sophronios," which is a fresh proof of the reciprocity of the two fundamental virtues of the Greek Community, beneficence on the one hand and gratitude on the other. Let us cite a fresh proof in support of what we have said above. When at the meeting of November 15, 1885, held by the committee, the president of the Community, Mr. Ralli, for reasons of health, resigned office, the committee, whilst accepting his resignation with regret, did not fail to testify its heartfelt gratitude for the multifarious services he had rendered the Community by conferring on him the title of Honorary President of the Greek Community.

It was during this memorable meeting that George Averoff, well known as having restored the Panathenaic Stadium, was unanimously elected president of the Community. It was under the presidency of George Averoff and his successors, Constantine M. Salvago and Emmanuel Benachi, that the Greek Community gave more than one striking proof of its great financial resources and its splendid patriotism. In spite of the inauguration of the hospital in 1882, the latter was not yet completed, and the schools founded at the expense of Mr. Tossitsa were no longer sufficient to contain the children of the Greek colony which grew day by day. In 1887, the hospital building was entirely completed, as likewise was the construction of the new spacious and airy school establishments. These school buildings were capable of receiving more than 1,025 pupils, boys and girls.

In order, however, to meet all these expenses, the Community was then under the necessity of contracting a loan amounting to 500,000 francs. On November 28, 1887, a committee, with His Beatitude the Patriarch Sophronios as president, His Excellency the Consul-General of Greece, Anastasius

Bysantios, as vice-president, and eighteen other members, was formed with a view to voluntary subscription among the members of the Greek colony, the amount of which subscription was intended for paying off the above debt. The debt was, as a matter of fact, fully paid off at the end of January, 1888, owing to the emulation displayed by all Greeks without distinction in Alexandria. By way of curiosity we would mention some of the sums given :—

His Beatitude the Patriarch Sophronios	Frs.	25,000
George Averoff		250,000
Jean Antoniades		40,000
Constantine G. Zervoudakis		40,000

After this great act of patriotism, which relieved the Community of its crushing debts, the committee thought it their duty to direct their whole attention to the application of the second clause of the articles of the Community which reads :—

"The Committee shall use every endeavour to complete and enlarge the Tossitsa School, so that the latter may suffice for the perfect education and intellectual development of Greek youth in Egypt, and in short of all those, whether Greek or foreign, who should attend that school."

It was during the school year 1889–90 that the fourth class, *i.e.*, the higher class in the gymnasium, was created. Pupils leaving this school had the right to pass their examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Thus after half a century was the dream of the founders of the Tossitsa School realised.

At its meeting of March 1, 1890, the committee of the Greek Community being desirous of testifying its gratitude to its president, George Averoff, decided, on the motion of Mr. Constantine Salvago, which was favourably received, to call the said gymnasium the "Averoff Gymnasium," forming a part of the Tossitsa School, which gymnasium this great benefactor always filled with a charitable spirit, endowed with an annual revenue of £T400.

In 1890 the Greek Government, by royal decree, acknowledged the Averoff Gymnasium, and classed it on the same footing as the other public gymnasiums in Greece, by granting it the privilege of conferring the degree of Bachelor on the students, who, on the conclusion of their period of study, had successfully passed their examinations. Averoff, however, this national benefactor, was inexhaustible in his generosity, as it was he again who, on June 4, 1894, laid the first stone of a school for young girls, constructed at his own expense on a piece of land of nearly 4,000 square pikes, which another benefactor, Idomenei Vittori, had presented to the Greek Community on July 3, 1880. In 1895 he endowed the school for young girls with an annual revenue of £T500, and on his death, which took place on July 27, 1899, he bequeathed to the Greek Community in the province of Beheireh, a property having an area of 1,160 feddans, thus endowing the Community with an annual net revenue of £E4,000. In this way George Averoff, at the close of his presidency, crowned the truly noble and humanitarian work which he had always pursued during his lifetime. It is highly regrettable that his successor in the presidency of the Community, Mr. Constantine Salvago, a man of a broad mind, a generous heart, and possessed of a considerable fortune, was carried away by sudden death after barely a year of office (March 14, 1900–August 12, 1901). The act by which the lamented Mr. Salvago fixed his annual subscription at £T500 suffices in itself to convince us of the great schemes he cherished for the good of the Community, schemes which he would have certainly carried into effect if death had spared him. His widow, Madame Julia C. Salvago, and his two children, Michael and Stephi Salvago, as generous as Constantine Salvago, were the first, at the commencement of the presidency of Mr. A. Benachi (November 16, 1901) to realise the schemes he had conceived in connection with the foundation of fresh works of charity, among which is included the construction, at their expense, of the professional school called by the name of Salvago, the first stone of which was solemnly laid in 1906.

This fresh benefaction to the Greek Community was very quickly followed by others no less striking. Thus the Greek Community, on April 17, 1907, witnessed the laying of the foundation stone of the Benachi Orphanage, built at the expense of Mr. and Mrs. Emanuel Benachi ; on April 25, 1907, that of the Benachi Cheap Kitchen, constructed at the expense of Miss Virginia E. Benachi, and on April 28, 1907, the laying of the foundation stone of the primary schools for boys and girls, built at the cost of Mr. George Zervandachi.

A church in the cemetery of the Community is in process of construction at the expense of the family, N. Casouli.

The present committee of the Greek Community is made up as follows :—Em. Benachi, president ; Mich. Sinadino and Bas. Sivitanides, vice-presidents ; S. Garofallo, D. Theodoraki, Th. Tozzica, Ger. Macri, Const. N. Pappas, El. Protopappas, Mich. E. Salvago, John Palaeologos, George Karam, George Zervadachi, Sot. Violara, Const. Cosomili, Const. Strumtri, John Joannides, Dem. Tambacopoulos, M. Sanelivanis, members.

ESTABLISHMENTS OF THE GREEK COMMUNITY.

THE CHURCHES.

THE churches belonging to the Community number three : "The Evanghelismos," "St. Elias," and "The Assumption."

The Evanghelismos, or Annunciation of the Virgin, is, so to speak, the orthodox Greek Cathedral of Alexandria. It is situate in the centre of the new town, in the streets of the Mosque of Attarin, the Greek Church and the Archbishopric. It was built on a piece of land given to the Community by Michael Tossitsa, and its construction, which lasted from September, 1847, to April, 1856, cost at least a million francs. The sum was made up by the voluntary contributions of all Greeks in Alexandria.

The church, divided into three naves by columns of Trieste stone, has a length of 41 metres and a width of 23 metres. It is served by an archimandrite, four priests, and a deacon, who receive their stipends from the Community. For vocal music a choir of twenty-two persons is likewise appointed. In 1907 the Community spent 182,748 Turkish piastres for the maintenance of the "Evanghelismos" Church.

The church of St. Elias, situate at Ramleh, was built in 1880 by the Greek Community of Ramleh. This Community, on the proposal of its president, Mr. Michael Sinadino, having been amalgamated in 1889 with the Community of Alexandria, its church, as likewise its school, passed into new control. The church is served by a priest and a deacon. A subcommittee, elected by the committee of the Community of Alexandria, manages the Ramleh church as well as the school. The expenses of the church and the school at Ramleh in 1907 were 59,552 piastres.

The chapel of the Assumption, situate in the cemetery of the Community, begun in 1885 by the widow, Madame Marie Naoum Theodoron, and completed at the expense of Mr. Nicolas Casoulli, is at present under reconstruction at the cost of the family of the latter. Divine service is not regularly conducted in the chapel.

THE SCHOOLS.

The schools of the Greek Community are managed by the school ephorion, consisting of Mr. Michael Sinadino (president of the ephorion), Constantine Coromilis, Theochares Cotzica, Constantine Pappas, Michael Salvago, Demosthenes Tambacopoulos, Demetrius Theodorachi, and George Zervoudachi.

All the schools of the Community are under a general director, but each, nevertheless, has its own director. The present general director is Mr. Paleologue Georgiou. Born at Maroneus, in Thrace, on November 5, 1857, his primary education was received in the Abet School in Cairo, and his secondary and university education at Athens, completed by a study of three years in the German Universities of Gottingen, Berlin, and Marburg. His secondary and university studies were at the cost of Mr. George Averoff. After teaching the Greek language and history for two years at the Evangelical School of Smyrna and the Homerian School for young girls in the same city, in 1889 he was appointed director of the schools of the Greek Community in Alexandria.

The schools of the Community, all day schools, are accessible to all children over the age of six, without distinction of nationality or religion. All the lessons given there are obligatory, except that of religion, in which the children not orthodox Greeks can take part only upon a formal application by their father or guardian.

The schools are free, the pupils paying only a yearly registration fee. This registration fee is 100 piastres for the four primary classes, 250 piastres for the three intermediate classes, and 400 piastres for the four upper classes. The poor are dispensed. Thus, in 1908–9, among the 2,920 pupils entered in all the schools of the Community, 2,029 did not pay the registration fee. Furthermore, to the poorest among the children the Benachi Cheap Kitchen supplies breakfast free, and to others at half-price. Since 1907 the schools have had their doctor paid by the Community. He is required to inspect the schools alternately every day from eleven to twelve. For poor children he even prescribes medicine, which is supplied gratis by the hospital of the Community.

The number of pupils is increasing every year. Thus in the school year 1900–1, 1,684 pupils were entered, and in 1908–9 there are 2,920. The professors and male and female teaching staff in 1900–1 numbered 36, in 1908–9, 54. The expenses, excluding those of the Ramleh School, amounted in 1900–1 to 419,047·90 piastres, and in 1907–8 to 696,276·25 piastres (exclusive of the expenses of the Ramleh School and the Salvago professional school).

The schools of the Greek Community are :—

1. **The Tossitsa School and the Averoff Gymnasium.**—The Tossitsa School at its foundation was a group comprising the schools intended for the teaching of boys and schools intended for the education of girls. Since the foundation of the Averoff School for young girls in 1895, the Tossitsa School

comprises only boys' schools. It is divided into two parts: I. A primary school; II. A secondary school, or the Averoff Gymnasium.

I. PRIMARY SCHOOL.

The Primary School contains six classes, the first, fifth and sixth of which are divided into two parallel sections, the second, third and fourth into three sections. The instruction is given in the Greek language. It comprises Greek, French (in the three higher classes, the fourth, the fifth and the sixth), mathematics (arithmetic and geometry), religion, history, geography, physics, chemistry, natural history, drawing, singing and gymnastics. The pupils in the sixth class who have successfully passed the written and oral examination at the end of the school year have the right of entering the gymnasium or the professional school. The staff of teachers in the primary school consists of sixteen, including one for French, and a professor of drawing, French by origin and nationality. The teachers possess the diploma of a Greek normal school.

II. THE GYMNASIUM.

The Gymnasium is divided into two sections: the classical section, and the commercial section. The classical section comprises four classes of the gymnasium proper and one preparatory. The subjects are ancient and modern Greek, Latin, French, English, mathematics, religion, general history, geography, natural history, physics, chemistry and gymnastics. The pupils of the highest class, the fourth, who have successfully passed the written and oral examination at the end of the year, receive their bachelor's diploma, and have the right of admission to the University of Athens. The professorial staff consists of five teachers of Greek and Latin, two teachers of French, two of English, one for religion, one for mathematics, one for natural history, physics and chemistry, and a professor of gymnastics, all qualified. The time devoted to French and English is nearly an hour per day per class, the instruction being given in the language itself by French and English professors. Furthermore, in the two highest classes (the third and fourth) history is taught two-thirds in French, and one-third in Greek. After the greater consideration given of late years to the teaching of English, it is hoped that in two or three years' time some secondary subject will admit of being taught in that language.

For gymnastics the Swedish system is used.

The commercial section, instituted in the year 1902–3, at present contains three classes equivalent to the three upper classes of classical education. To enable a pupil to enter the commercial section he must have successfully passed the written and oral examination in the first class of the classical section. The subjects taught are religion, Greek (ancient and modern), French, English, Arabic, accounts, commerce, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, goods and merchandise, commercial law, political economy, algebra and geometry, chemistry, physics, botany, general history, caligraphy and typewriting, and gymnastics.

The commercial subjects proper are taught in French by a French professor holding the diploma of the higher school of commerce at Nancy, Arabic by a Greek professor, who is a native of Jerusalem. The other subjects are taught by the professors of the classical section. The results obtained are highly satisfactory, as almost all the bachelors of the commercial section are employed in banks and business offices in our city.

The Tossitsa School furthermore possesses a library, a physical and natural history cabinet, a chemical cabinet, a small archæological museum, the gift of Mr. Glymenopoulos, a gymnastics hall, a shower-bath room, and a refectory.

Poor children in the primary school, whose mothers work away from home until nightfall to earn their living, are kept each day from four to six in the afternoon in the school, where, in two electrically lighted rooms, under the supervision of two teachers, they prepare their lessons for the next day. Another room provided with electric light and a small library containing dictionaries, atlases, and other books, serves for the preparation of their lessons by the students of the gymnasium who do not possess the necessary money to procure dictionaries and other books at some cost.

2. The Averoff School for Young Girls.

The school for young girls has been in existence since the foundation of the Tossitsa School in 1844. In view, however, of the insufficient accommodation in this as also in the boys' school, by reason of the continuously growing number of pupils of both sexes, the generosity of George Averoff has remedied this deficiency by the construction of the Averoff School for Young Girls on the land given in 1880 to the Community by Idomeneos Vittori. This school, on which George Averoff spent up to £14,000, and which comprises a ground floor and a first floor, built upon the plan of the architect, Mr. Nicholas Paraskevas (possessing the diploma of the Ponts et Chaussées School, Paris), is at the corner of the Sidi-Mitwali and Sesostris streets.

The Averoff School for Young Girls is a primary school of six classes, with two classes for secondary teaching. The subjects are: religion, Greek (ancient and modern), French, mathematics, history, geography, natural history, physics, chemistry, singing, needlework, cutting out, sewing, and gymnastics. The teaching staff consists of the directress, Madame Hypatia Stampa, six professors, and 14 lady teachers, all holding diplomas of one of the normal girls' schools in Greece, a mistress for needlework, and another for cutting out work.

3. The Mixed Primary School at Ramleh.

This little school in Ramleh, one of the suburbs of Alexandria, was already at work in 1873, and was subsidised by the Greek Community in Alexandria. Since the amalgamation of the Greek Community of Ramleh with that of Alexandria in 1889, the school has belonged to the latter. It is a mixed primary school for girls and boys, with four classes, and a staff consisting of a male and a female teacher, both qualified. The building, situate in the court of the Church of St. Elias, is a ground floor with two school rooms and an office for the teachers. The school was built to the plan of the architect, Mr. Nicholas Nicolaon, a graduate of the Polytechnic School in Athens.

4. The "Salvago" Professional School.

This school has been built according to the plan of the architect, Mr. George Lesina, who holds his qualifications from the Polytechnic School in Athens.

The school was founded in 1906 by the gift which Mrs. Julia Salvago, widow of Mr. Constantine Salvago, made, jointly with her two sons Michael and Stephen, to the Greek Community. The Salvago family gave 1,608,750 Turkish piastres for the construction of the school during the years 1906 and 1907. It now forms part of the properties of the Community, which administers and looks after it. Its object is to give a theoretical and practical education for the purpose of making the scholars who attend skilled artisans capable of gaining their livelihood by the exercise of their profession. The school is situate at Chatby, three miles distance to the north-west of the city, with which it is connected by electric tramway. It covers an area of 7,436 square metres, of which 2,300 are occupied by the building proper and 5,136 by the grounds and garden.

The building is made up of the following workshops:—

		Square metres.
1.	Machinery workshop	360
2.	Carpentry ,, ...	506
3.	Steam engine ,, ...	45
4.	Plumbers' and tinkers' workshop	1,106
5.	Two class rooms	146 82
6.	One draughtsmanship room ...	140
7.	One library	56
8.	Various stores, &c.	

The sections already working in the school are:—

1. The section of mechanical arts.
2. The carpenters' and joiners' section.
3. The plumbers' and tinkers' section, &c.

The period of attendance at the school is three years. Pupils having a certificate of primary education are admissible. The school is free, the pupils only paying an annual entry fee of two hundred Turkish piastres. Poor pupils are entered free of charge. Thus, out of 109 pupils in the scholastic year 1908–9, 83 were entered free of charge. The school supplies pupils with tools.

Education is theoretical and practical. The subjects taught are the following:—Drawing, mechanics, technology, geometry, Greek, English, Arabic, gymnastics, physics, chemistry, electricity, algebra, arithmetic, and accounts.

The hours of instruction are as follows:—For the first year, 51; for the second, 54; and for the third, 57; of which 28, 30, and 37 are devoted to the workshops, and the others to the lessons.

The staff of the school consists of a director, professors giving theoretical instruction, teachers giving practical instruction, an accountant, a storekeeper, and the servants. Foremen or workmen are engaged in the workshops as required.

The professors imparting theoretical instruction must be provided with a diploma granted by the University of Athens, or some other foreign recognised faculty. With regard to the practical instructors, they must also be qualified in a foreign school of arts and trades.

The workshops continue at work throughout the year without interruption. The lessons are suspended during the summer months. The school is lit up by electricity, which is produced in the school itself. The pupils every morning take a cold bath in the bath room, which has an area of 110 square metres.

The pupils entered during the school year 1908–9 numbered 109, distributed as follows:—Machinery workshop, 62; carpentry, 34; plumbing and tinkering, 13.

N. Tsolekides, Doctor of Physical and Natural Sciences, 1895, who was engaged in Greece for three and a half years, is head

master. He was attached for five years to the National Observatory in Athens as chief of the meteorological and magnetic section. He was Professor of Physical and Natural Sciences for two consecutive years in the Averoff College. Director of the school for two years past, he made a two years' stay in Europe, where he was enabled to apply himself particularly to the study of questions regarding professional teaching in general.

5.—Zervudachi Primary School for Boys and Primary School for Girls.

These two schools, built to the plans of the architect, Mr. George Lezinas, and still under construction, will be in operation in the month of September, 1909. Each will have six classes. The teaching of subjects therein will be absolutely identical with that in the other primary schools of the community. The two schools at Chatby were founded in 1907 at the expense of Mr. George Zervudachi, and cost £16,000 (Turkish). The building comprises a ground floor and a first floor.

THE HOSPITAL.

The Hospital of the Greek Community in Alexandria comprises the following departments :—

1. Surgical Department for Men.
2. ,, ,, for Women.
3. Operating room.
4. Pathological Department for Men.
5. ,, ,, for Women.
6. Ophthalmology Department.
7. Contagious Diseases Department.
8. Town Clinic.
9. Town Clinic for Eye Diseases.
10. Microbiological Department.
11. Laboratory.
12. X Rays Department.
13. Dispensary.
14. Steam Kitchen and Lavatory.

The physician-in-chief to the hospital is Mr. A. Valassopoulo ; and the director, Mr. B. Metaxas. The director of the surgical department is the surgeon, Mr. A. Petrides ; and his coadjutor is Mr. Tsatsanis, with Mr. P. Papadakis as assistant surgeon.

Each of the above departments consists of five first and second-class wards, and a large ward containing about twenty beds for paying patients and for third-class patients admitted free of charge. The surgical department for women is also used as a lying-in clinic, to which a great number of necessitous Greek women have recourse. The wives of British soldiers and non-commissioned officers are also admitted.

The director of the pathological and contagious diseases departments is Mr. A. Valassopoulo, whose deputy is Mr. L. Sofianopoulo, and assistant, Mr. E. Parodi.

The division of the pathological section is exactly the same as that of the two others already mentioned. With regard to the contagious diseases department, this is a new building in accordance with hygienic rules, entirely detached from the other departments and containing nearly forty beds. This department renders considerable service to the international population of the city, as in the other hospitals, except those of the Government, persons suffering with contagious diseases are not admitted. The illnesses treated are for the most part tuberculosis, small-pox, plague, measles, diphtheria, scarlatina, erysipelas, &c.

The director of the female pathological department is Mr. Trehakis, whose coadjutor is Mr. G. Afentoulis, and assistant, Mr. D. Kampozig. This department likewise comprises five rooms and a common ward.

The ophthalmological department has at its head Mr. D. Demetriades. In addition to the five rooms and common ward (the latter only containing ten beds), it includes a surgical cabinet, a dark room, and a room for eye bathing.

The ophthalmological clinic was founded by Mrs. C. Salvago and her sons. It is under the direction of Mr. G. Sanovides, oculist.

It consists of a waiting room, an examination and treatment room, an office and an operation room, where every Thursday and every Sunday more than one small operation takes place. The patients, whose daily number is about fifty, pay 6 piastres for admission. Persons needing medicine can obtain it at a moderate price. There are further more than fifty patients who attend gratis and to whom medicine is supplied free of charge.

The director of the town clinic is Mr. Tsamis, whose assistants are Mr. Giannacopoulo (specialist in diseases of the ears and the larynx), Madame A. Panaghiotaton, Mr. A. Ralli, and Mr. N. Akestosides.

The latter clinic comprises an operation cabinet and two examining rooms. The number of patients each day is nearly one hundred, one half of whom are attended gratis and supplied with the necessary medicines.

The X rays department, established at the expense of Mr. Michael Aogoustino, is under the direction of the assistant surgeon, Mr. P. Papadaki. The X ray apparatus on the latest French system, under the supervision of the said doctor, gives the best results, above all as regards lesions of every kind in the human body, or pebbles in the bladder. This department, apart from the in-patients in the hospital, is of great utility to the out-patients of all nationalities. A small charge is made to those able to pay, but treatment is free for the poor.

STATISTICS FOR 1908.

Total number of patients treated...	2,603	
1,350 for payment. Days of treatment...		28,085
1,253 gratis. Days of treatment...		30,348
2,603		58,444

Patients discharged	2,206
,, dead	259
,, under treatment ...	138
	2,603

Men, 1,503 ; women, 813 ; children, 287.

Greeks, 1,983 ; British, 100 ; Natives, 348 ; other nationalities, 172.

CHEAP KITCHEN.

The "Benachi" Cheap Kitchen, created at the expense of Madame Virginia Em. Benachi, and built according to the plans of Mr. George Lesinas, architect, is situate at Chatby, on the lands of the Greek Community, and occupies the north-eastern side of the latter.

The kitchen has for its object the supply, at a low rate or free of charge, healthy and abundant food to the various educational establishments belonging to the Greek Community, and, on the other hand, to assist the working classes by providing them at a low price with wholesome and plentiful food. Food is supplied once a day, at noon, except on Sundays and holidays.

The following table exhibits the working of the kitchen from January 3 to December 31, 1908.

The total of portions supplied was 161,421, made up as follows :—To the Greek Charity Society, 63,240 portions ; to the "Petit Asile" or Home, 11,992 ; to the Averoff College, 6,834 ; to the Averoff Girls' School, 21,393 ; to the Mohamed Ali School, 5,300 ; to the "Salvago" Professional School, 28,277 ; portions out of school, 19,385.

Of the portions supplied to the Charity Society and the "Petit Asile," 80,232 were paid for at the rate of from $\frac{33}{40}$ Turkish piastres each ; of the 28,227 portions supplied to the Averoff College and the Girls' School, 12,779 were distributed free of charge ; the 5,300 portions were supplied to the Mohamed Ali Arabic Professional School, at the price of $\frac{25}{40}$ piastres per portion. With respect to the "Salvago" Professional School, 3,150 portions were distributed at the rate of half a piastre and 11,700 portions gratis.

Portions supplied free		29,906
,, ,,	at ½ piastre...	3,150
,, ,,	at $\frac{25}{40}$ piastres	5,300
,, ,,	at $\frac{33}{40}$,,	80,232
,, ,,	at 1 piastre...	42,833
		161,421

GIRLS' ORPHANAGE.

The Girls' Orphanage owes its inception to the generosity of Mr. and Mrs. Em. Benachi, president of the Greek Community of Alexandria. Like the other buildings of its kind, it is situate at Chatby, and was built according to the plans of Mr. Lesinas, architect. It is a vast edifice, with three storeys, occupying the northern part of the site. The total cost was £17,000 Turkish.

The Benachi Orphanage also serves as a professional school for young girls. In addition to elementary education, which they receive in the establishment, they have the advantage of learning cutting-out, sewing, everything in relation to linen-work generally, machine knitting, weaving, cooking, dress-making, &c. All the pupils are resident and are orphans, bereft of either father or mother, or both. Pupils are likewise admissible as day pupils. They take their midday meal at the school.

The small "asile" or home, created four years ago, with a view of assisting young Greek orphans, was merged in the Benachi Orphanage, and the orphans admitted therein are now in the latter orphanage. The total number of inmates amounts for the present to sixty, of whom eighteen are very young children.

GREEK COMMUNITY OF IBRAHIMIEH.

BY MR. PALÉOLOGUE GEORGIOU.

THIS small community, which may be regarded as a branch of the Community of Alexandria, was established on March 15, 1903. It is under the jurisdiction of the General Consulate of Greece in Alexandria, and its members must be Greeks by birth. The annual subscription of its members is at least 100 Turkish piastres. It is directed by a committee of seven members elected at a general meeting of the members of the community. The present committee consists of Aristotle Prazzica (president), Xenophon Joannides (vice-president), Paul Verdelin (treasurer), Paléologue Georgiou (secretary), and Anthony Antonellos, Thomas Anninos, and Evanghelos Papadopoulos (members). Owing to the generosity of its president, Mr. Arist. Prazzica, a native of Epirus, and

its vice-president, Mr. Xen. Joannides, a native of Cyprus, it possesses a mixed primary school and a church.

The school, founded in 1907, at the expense of Mr. A. Prazzica, on the plan of the architect, Mr. G. Lesinas, is called the Prazzikios School. It comprises a ground floor with two school rooms and a teacher's room. There are two qualified teachers, one male and one female. The school is free, the pupils paying only an annual entry fee of 100 Turkish piastres, from which the poor are exempt. Thus out of sixty-four pupils entered in 1908–9 fourteen did not pay the entry fee. The Prazzikios School is under the management of the Director of Schools of the Greek Community of Alexandria.

The Church, under the patronage of the Archangels St. Michael and St. Gabriel, was founded in 1908, at the expense of Mr. Xen. Joannides, and was designed by Mr. John Syrichas, a graduate of the Polytechnic School of Athens. It is served by one priest.
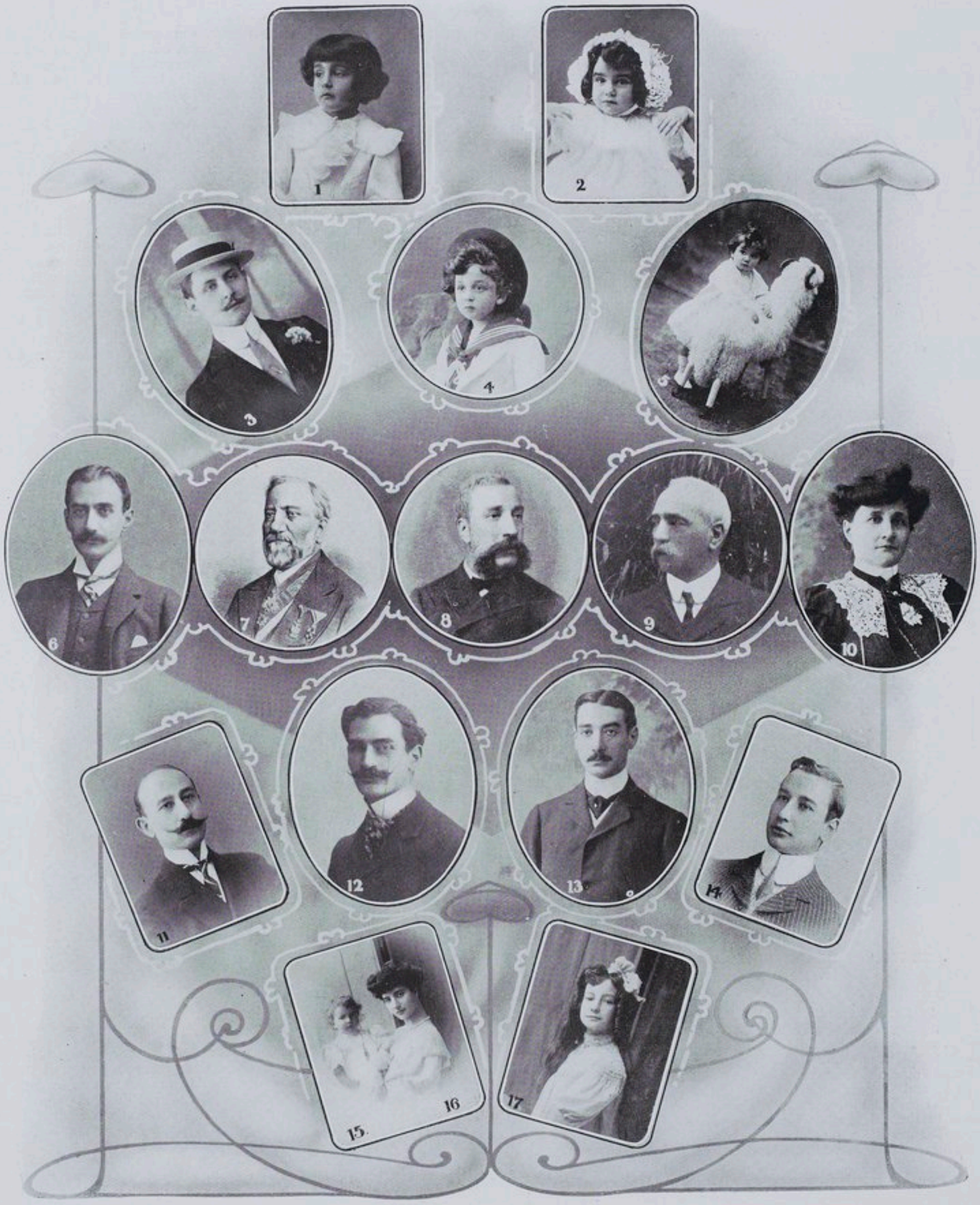
The expenses of the community were 37,535.50 Turkish piastres in 1907.

PROFESSIONAL AND MERCANTILE.

BARON FÉLIX DE MENASCE, a retired banker, is a son of the late Baron Bohor de Menasce, the well-known financier. He was born in Alexandria in 1865, and was educated in Egypt and at the University of Vienna. In 1885 he proceeded to England in charge of the branch of J. L. de Menasce, Son, & Co.'s bank, and three years later he was admitted to partnership. He has long since retired from business, but he is still associated with numerous companies. He is a director of the Société des Immeubles d'Egypte, the Société Foncière d'Egypte, the Société des Presses Libres Egyptiennes, the Société d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales, the Société des Eaux de Tantah, the Splendid Hotels Company, and the Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches. He is president of the committee of the Israelite Hospital, and he is on the committees of the Jewish Community, the Jewish School, the Popular University, and the Asile François-Joseph. Baron de Menasce has been twice married. By his first wife, Céline, a daughter of the late Baron Joseph de Menasce, he has one son, and by his second, Rosette, a daughter of P. de Bustros, of Paris, he has one son and two daughters. The Baron was decorated in 1899 with the Order of Francis-Joseph.

BARON JACQUES LÉVI DE MEN SCE is the present head of the well-known Menasce family, who have resided in Egypt for many generations—for so long, indeed, that no record is left to show when the first person of the name came to the country. Jacoub, first Baron, and grandfather of the present Baron, was born in Egypt in 1810. In 1848 he found it necessary to leave Egypt, having incurred the displeasure of the then Khedive by his action in defending the interests of a son of a wealthy pasha for whom he was trustee. Arriving in Austria, he sought to establish his claim to be a Hungarian subject, and eventually the necessary proofs were found amongst the records kept in a cemetery and synagogue at Gyormo, a suburb of Buda-Pesth. The Austro-Hungarian Government thereupon furnished him with the necessary papers, and he was able to return to Egypt, not, however, before he had spent a considerable time in travel and study on the Continent. His subsequent career was devoted to the establishment and development of commercial relationships between Egypt and the ports of the Mediterranean and the Adriatic; and such valuable services did he render in this direction that in 1874 he was created a Baronet by the Austro-Hungarian Government. He founded the firm of J. L. Menasce, Son & Co., bankers and general merchants, and established branches in Manchester and Liverpool (afterwards transferred to London), Marseille, Paris, and Constantinople. He died in 1883, leaving four sons and three daughters. One daughter, the widow of Francis Bey, still survives. Baron Bohor de Menasce, who succeeded to the proprietorship, was born in 1830, and early in life became associated with his father in business. He was president of the Jewish Community in Alexandria, and held many other important offices. He married, in 1849, a daughter of Jacob Cattaui, and by her had four sons, Jacques, Elie, Félix, and Alfred, and one daughter, Esther, who married August Robino. Baron Bohor de Menasce survived his father by only two or three years, and Baron Jacques Lévi de Menasce succeeded him as head alike of the business and of the family. Born in January, 1850, at Cairo, and educated in Egypt, France and England, Jacques entered the family business, and before returning to Egypt in 1871 he was for a time in the Liverpool, London, and Constantinople offices. He was admitted to partnership in 1874, and is now the only surviving member of the firm as it was constituted in his generation. In the same year he married Adrianne, a daughter of the late Ariel Nahman, a banker of Alexandria, and by her had six sons, Henri, Edmond, Emile, Gaston, René, and Eugène, and one daughter, Marguerite, who became the wife of Jacques I. Aghion. In later life he has taken greater interest in cotton and sugar cultivation than in banking, and he has many properties under these and various other crops in the Delta region and Upper Egypt. Many local enterprises receive his support. He is chairman of the Egyptian Bonded Warehouses Company, Ltd., the Société des Immeubles d Egypte, the Société des Presses Libres Egyptiennes, and of the Delta Land Investment Company, Ltd.; and he is on the boards of the National Bank, the Khedivial Bourse, the Alexandria Water Company, the Delta Light Railways, the Bank of Abyssinia, the National Insurance Company, the Alexandria and Ramleh Railway and Tramway Company, Ltd., and the Salt and Soda Company, Ltd. He has done much to promote the well-being of the general community. With his brothers, Félix and Alfred de Menasce, he built the Menasce Hospital in memory of Baron Bohor de Menasce, his grandfather and father having built the Menasce Schools and Synagogue, and established a special benevolent fund for their upkeep. He contributed to the fund for building the new Victoria College, and when the foundation stone was laid he read the address to Lord Cromer. He has been chairman of the Jewish Community for the past twenty-five years; he is chairman of the executive committee of the Society for the Repression of the White Slave Traffic, and of the Austro-Hungarian Benevolent Society; and he was at one time president of the Austro-Hungarian Chamber of Commerce. His decorations include those of Grand Officer of the Order of Francis-Joseph, Grand Officer of the Order of Mejidieh, Commander of the Order of Osmanieh, and Chevalier of the Legion of Honour, together with the Iron Crown of Austria. All his sons have received a thorough education, and some completed their studies in England and on the Continent. They have all an interest in the firm of J. L. Menasce, Son & Co., and they have all been prominently associated with local philanthropic movements. The Baron has six grandchildren.

Le Baron Jacques Lévi de Menasce est à présent le chef de la bien connue famille Menasce, qui depuis plusieurs générations habite l'Egypte. Pendant longtemps on ne se souvenait de la première personne de ce nom, venue dans le pays. Jacoub, premier Baron et grand-père du ci-dessus, est né en Egypte en 1810. En 1848 il se vit obligé de quitter le pays, ayant déplu au Khédive d'alors en défendant les intérêts du fils d'un riche pacha, pour lequel il était commettant. Arrivé en Autriche, il se proclama sujet hongrois, et éventuellement les preuves nécessaires furent trouvées parmi les registres tenus au cimetière et à la synagogue de Gyormo, un faubourg de Buda-Pesth. Le Gouvernement austro-hongrois lui fournit les papiers nécessaires pour regagner l'Egypte, pas cependant avant d'avoir passé un temps considérable à voyager et à étudier sur le Continent. Sa carrière fut surtout de se vouer aux relations maritimes commerciales entre l'Egypte et les ports de la Méditerranée et de l'Adriatique. Ses grands services lui valurent le titre de Baron en 1874—titre offert par le Gouvernement austro-hongrois. Il fonda la maison J. L. Menasce, fils et Cie, banquiers et marchands, et établit des succursales à Manchester, à Liverpool (après transférée à Londres), Marseille, Paris et Constantinople. Il mourut en 1883, laissant quatre fils et trois filles; une fille, la veuve de Francis Bey, survit. Le baron Bohor de Menasce qui succéda dans les affaires, est né en 1830 et de bonne heure s'associa à son père dans les affaires. Il était président de la communauté israélite à Alexandrie, et s'occupait d'autres affaires importantes. Il se maria en 1849, épousa une fille de Jacob Cattaui et en eut quatre fils: Jacques, Elie, Félix et Alfred; et une fille qui épousa Auguste Robino. Le Baron Bohor de Menasce survit à son père seulement trois ou quatre ans, et le Baron Jacques Lévi de Menasce succéda dans les affaires de la famille. Né en janvier, 1850, au Caire, élevé en Egypte, en France et en Angleterre, Jacques entra dans les affaires, et avant de rentrer en Egypte en 1871 resta à Liverpool, à Londres et à Constantinople dans leurs maisons. C'est maintenant le seul membre survivant de la raison sociale. Dans la même année il épousa Adrienne, une fille de feu Ariel Nahman, banquier à Alexandrie, et en eut six fils, Henri, Edmond, Emile, Gaston, René et Eugène; et une fille, Marguerite, qui épousa Jacques I. Aghion. Plus tard il s'intéressa à la culture du coton et du sucre plus qu'à la banque; il a plusieurs propriétés dans le Delta et dans la Haute Egypte. Il aide plusieurs entreprises locales. Il est le président des Maisons de Commerce Egyptiennes, de la Société des Immeubles d'Egypte, de la Société des Presses Libres Egyptiennes et des Terrains du Delta. Il est membre du comité de la Banque Nationale, de la Bourse Khédiviale, de la Compagnie des Eaux d'Alexandrie, du Chemin de fer du Delta, de la Banque d'Abyssinie, de la Compagnie Nationale d'Assurance, du Chemin de Fer et Tramway de Ramleh, de la Compagnie du Sel et de la Soude, etc. Son grand-père a construit l'Ecole Menasce et la synagogue, et a fondé une société de bienfaisance. Il a construit, avec ses frères Félix et Alfred, l'hôpital en souvenir du Baron Bohor de Menasce. Il a contribué par ses dons à la construction du nouveau Collège Victoria; il lut, lors de la pose de la pierre de fondation, un discours à Lord Cromer. Il fut président de la communauté israélite pendant les vingt-cinq années passées; il est président du comité



THE DE MENASCE FAMILY.

1. Jacques Paul, son of Baron Henri. 2. Jacqueline, daughter of Baron Emile. 3. Baron Eugene de Menasce.
4. Robert, son of Baron Emile. 5. Raymond, son of Baron Emile. 6. Baron Henri de Menasce. 7. The late Baron Jacob Levi de Menasce.
8. The late Baron Bohor de Menasce. 9. Baron Jacques Levi de Menasce. 10. Baroness de Menasce.
11. Baron Edmund de Menasce. 12. Baron Emile de Menasce. 13. Baron Gaston de Menasce. 14. Baron René de Menasce.
15 and 16. Mrs. Aghion and daughter Simone. 17. Adrienne Aghion, daughter of Mrs. Jacques Aghion.

exécutif de la Société pour la Répression de la Traite des Blanches, de la Société de Bienfaisance Austro-Hongroise, et pendant quelque temps il fut président de la Chambre de Commerce Austro-Hongroise. Il a reçu les décorations, de Grand Officier de l'Ordre de François-Joseph, Grand Officier de l'Ordre du Médjidieh, Commandant de l'Ordre Osmanieh et Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur, avec la Croix de fer d'Autriche. Tous ses fils ont reçu une éducation complète terminée en Angleterre et sur le Continent. Ils s'intéressent tous à la raison sociale J. L. Menasce, fils et Cie et sont tous associés à des œuvres philanthropiques. Le Baron a six petits enfants.

BARON JACQUES ELIE DE MENASCE is a son of the late Baron Elie J. Levi de Menasce, who was born in Cairo in 1840, and was educated in Italy and England, afterwards returning to Alexandria, where he founded the firm of bankers which bore his name. grandfather, the first Baron de Menasce, where most of the family were born. The property was originally purchased from the mother of the Khedive Ismail Pasha. Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce is a director of the Société Anonyme des Immeubles d'Egypte, and of the Société Anonyme des Presses Libres Egyptiennes; and he is interested in numerous philanthropic societies. His principal hobby is the breeding of racehorses, and he is the owner of Radium, the winner of many races, and of Rainbow, who ran first in the Winter Jubilee Stakes, 1909. He is a member of the Khedivial, Mohamed Ali and Sporting Clubs. His wife, Gabrielle, whom he married in 1903, is a daughter of Maurice Aghion, banker, Alexandria. In March, 1909, he was created a Chevalier of the Order of Francis-Joseph by the Emperor of Austria.

Le Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce est fils de l'ancien Baron Elie J. Lévi de Menasce, construite par son grand-père, le premier Baron de Menasce, où la plupart des enfants naquirent. La propriété a été achetée par la mère du Khédive Ismail Pacha. Le Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce est directeur de la Société Anonyme des Immeubles d'Egypte et de la Société Anonyme des Presses Libres Egyptiennes; il s'intéresse à de nombreuses sociétés philanthropiques. Il aime énormément les courses de chevaux; il possède Radium, le gagnant de plusieurs courses, et Rainbow, qui a été premier prix dans les Winter Jubilee Stakes, pendant l'hiver, 1909. Il est membre du Club Khédivial Mohamed Ali, et du Sporting Club. Sa femme Gabrielle, qu'il épousa en 1903, est la fille de Maurice Aghion, banquier à Alexandrie. En Mars, 1909, il reçut le titre de Chevalier de l'Ordre de François-Joseph, Empereur d'Autriche.

B. TILCHE & SONS.—The founder of the important firm of B. Tilche & Sons, bankers,



1. THE LATE BARON ELIE JACQUES LEVI DE MENASCE.
2. BARONESS ELIE JACQUES LEVI DE MENASCE.
3. BARON JACQUES ELIE DE MENASCE.
4. ALEXANDRIA RESIDENCE.

Married to Luly Bogdadly in 1868, he had one son, Jacques Elie, and five daughters, Esterre, married to Alfred Ismalum; Louise, married to Albert Ismalum; Charlotte, married to Isaac Polacco; Jeanne, married to Felix Green; and Diana, married to Maurice Cattaui. He died in 1902, and his son succeeded to the title. His wife still survives. Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce, born in Alexandria on August 26, 1872, and educated in Vienna and Paris, joined his father in business on his return to Egypt, and is now at the head of the firm. He is chiefly interested, however, in agriculture, and owns some twelve hundred feddans of land under cotton cultivation, besides a cotton ginning factory. (Two views of the factory appear in the article on "cotton" included in this volume.) He is also the owner of the house, built by his qui est né au Caire en 1840, et a été éduqué en Italie et en Angleterre. Après son retour à Alexandrie, il fonda la maison de banque qui porte son nom. Marié a Luly Bagdadly en 1868, il eut un fils, Jacques Élie, et cinq filles: Esther, mariée à Alfred Ismalum; Louise, mariée à Albert Ismalum; Charlotte, à Isaac Palacco; Jeanne, à Félix Green; et Diane, mariée à Maurice Cattaui. Il mourut en 1902, et son fils lui succéda dans son titre. Sa femme lui survit. Le Baron Jacques Elie de Menasce, né à Alexandrie le 26 août de l'année 1872, a été éduqué à Vienne et à Paris, s'associa dans les affaires de son père à son retour d'Egypte et est maintenant le directeur de la maison. Il s'intéresse à l'agriculture et possède mille deux cent feddans dans lesquels on cultive du coton, puis il a une manufacture pour l'égrenage. Il possède aussi la maison was Mr. Benedetto Tilche, a descendant of the Tilche family who settled in Egypt some three centuries ago in order to organise the trade in wheat between Egypt and Italy. References to this family in certain letters, which were found in Egypt in 1720 and 1780, show that its members at that time occupied an influential position as bankers; while Count Carlo Rosetti, who played a brilliant part in Egypt as a former Consul for Italy, mentions the family as fulfilling an important *rôle* in the history of the country. The first Tilche of whom there is record in this country was Abrahamo Tilche. He had two sons, Giacomo, who died in his minority, and Giuseppe, who, marrying a Miss Bellettri, became the father of Benedetto, and died two years or so later. Benedetto, left to the guardianship of a



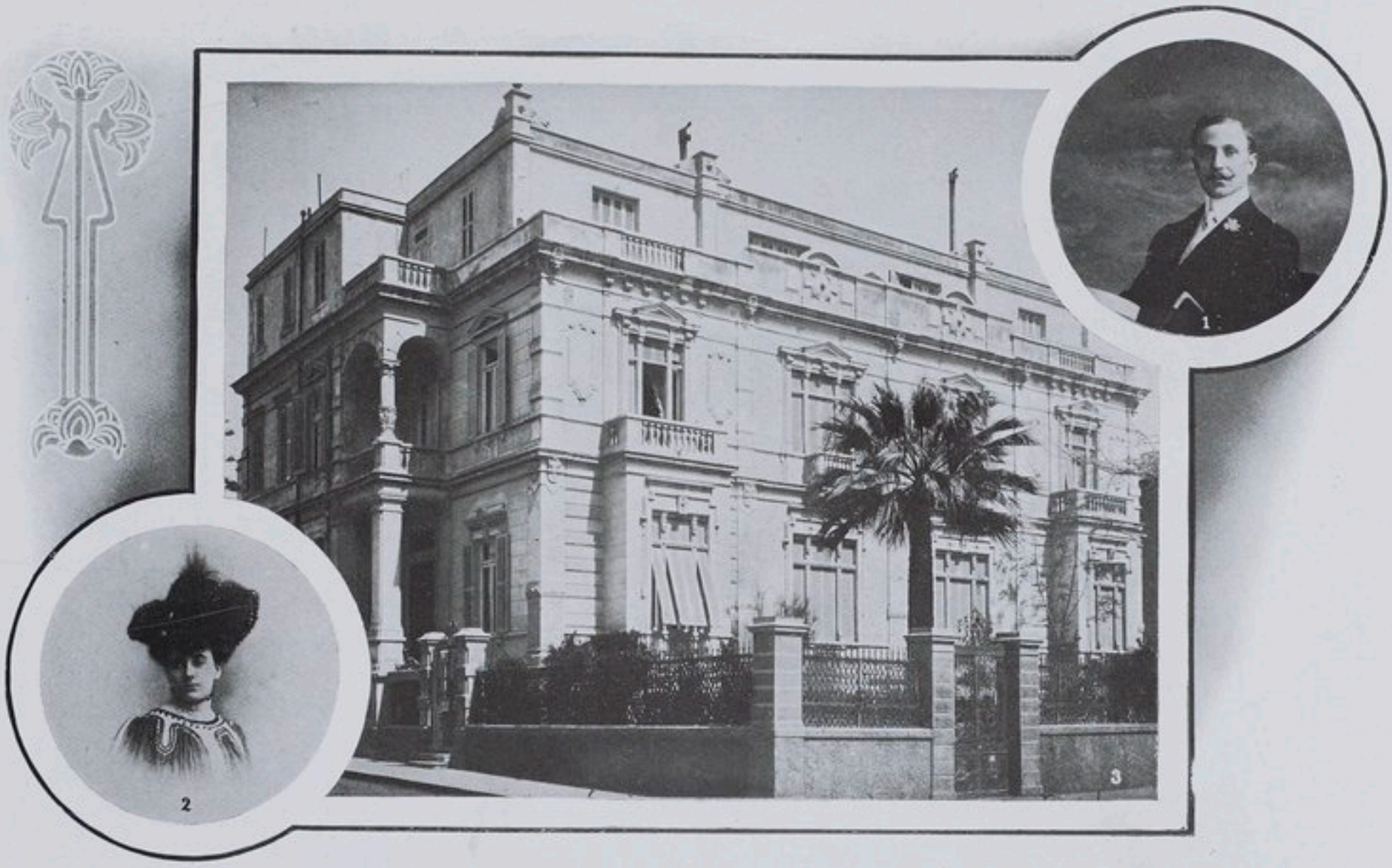
B. TILCHE & SONS.

1. Cotton Presses.
2. Ginning Room.
3. Motor Room.
4. In the Yard.
5. The Cotton Factory at Ziften.

Mr. Lagnardo, who was nominated by the then Sardinian Kingdom, entered upon a commercial career at an early age, and after some years in partnership with others, decided to set up in business on his own account. He was successful in all his undertakings, and eventually came under the patronage of Mehemet Ali, who had great confidence in him and asked him to develop the importation of gold and silver for the purpose of embroidering officers' uniforms. He also opened up a large trade in cereals, under the style of Banka Tilche. In 1829 he married a daughter of Giacomo Salama, and by her had four sons, Giuseppe, Giacomo, Moïse, and Abramino, and one daughter, Bida. On taking his sons into partnership in 1854 he changed the name of the firm to B. Tilche & Sons, by which it is known to this day. In 1869 the business, up till then confined to Cairo, was extended to Alexandria, and by degrees cotton cultivation, cotton broking, and cotton ginning were added to the other activities of the firm. A large factory was opened at Ziptah, in the Province of Gharbieh, which has since become a great cotton centre. As recently as 1905 the factory was re-equipped with a modern plant, capable of producing about 1,700 kantars (kantar = 99·05 lb.) a day. There are two sets of machinery, the first driven by a Deutz gas-motor of 300 i.h.p., and the second by a tandem steam engine of 50 h.p. In 1880 the firm bought another factory for the ginning of their own produce at Chekin el Kanater, in the Province of Kaliubieh; it has now an output of about 750 kantars a day. The power in this factory is also used to operate a large flour mill adjoining.

The senior partner of the firm at the present day is Mr. Abramino Tilche, who was born in Cairo in 1850. He occupies a leading position in local Italian society, and is a judge-assessor of the Italian Consular Court, and president of the Italian Chamber of Commerce. Until two years ago he was also a member of the Alexandria Municipal Council. He is still vice-president of the Italian Benevolent Society, and also vice-president of the Credit Franco-Egyptien, and a director of the Société des Immeubles d'Egypt.

The other partners are Victor and Adolph Tilche (the third and fourth sons of the late Giuseppe Tilche, and grandsons of Benedetto Tilche), and Benedetto and Marcello, the two eldest sons of the late Giacomo Tilche. Victor Tilche was born at Cairo in 1863; while Adolph was born in June, 1872, at Alexandria. Benedetto Tilche was born at Cairo on December 5, 1862, and was admitted to the partnership in 1878. He is on the committee of the Crédit Franco-Egyptien. Marcello Tilche was born in Cairo on October 24, 1869, and was admitted to the partnership in 1891. It should be added that Moïse Tilche, already mentioned as a son of the founders, left the firm in order to start business on his own account with his sons. He died in 1904, leaving the firm Moïse Tilche et Fils. Bida Tilche, who became the wife of Giacomo R. Aghion, still survives.



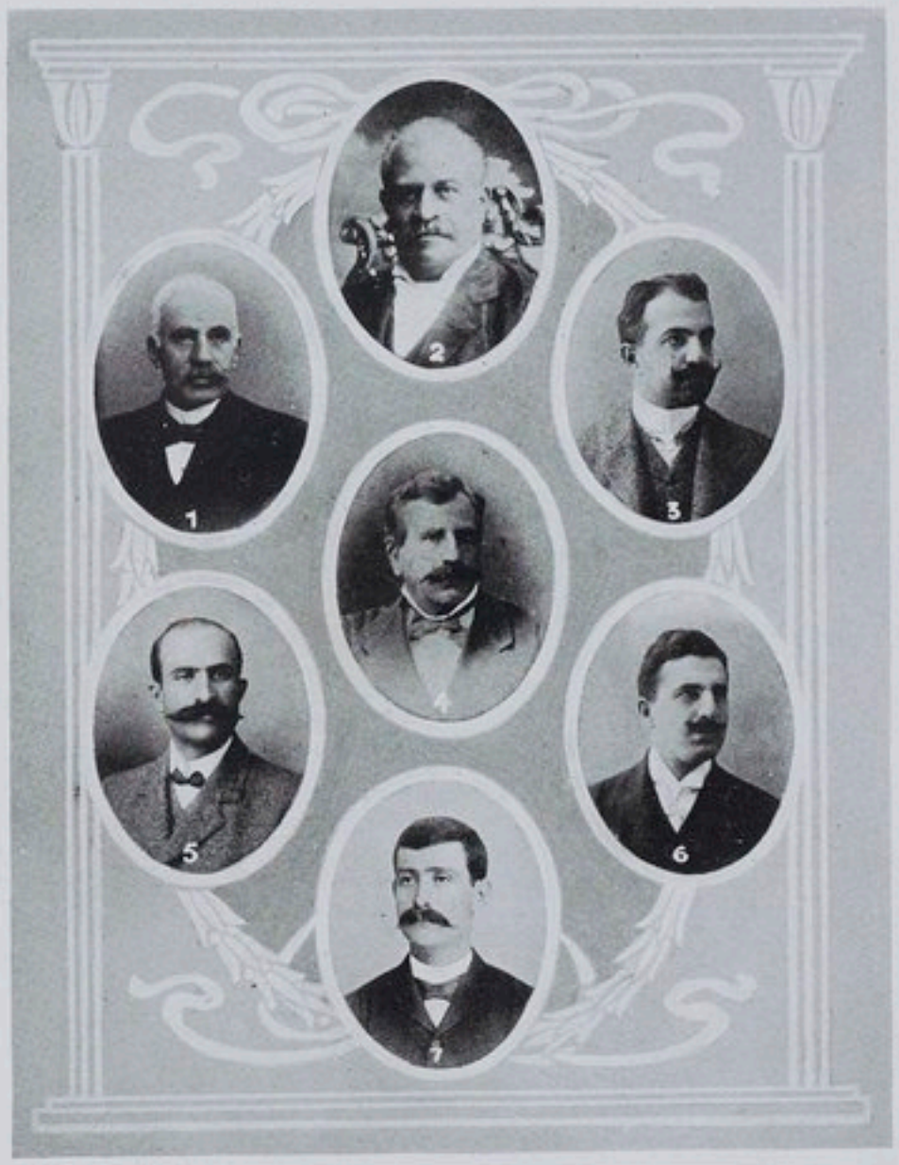
1. FELIX S. GREEN. 2. MRS. FELIX S. GREEN. 3. FELIX S. GREEN'S RESIDENCE.

Le fondateur de cette importante maison de B. Tilche et fils, banquiers, a été Monsieur Benedetto Tilche, un descendant de la famille Tilche qui se fixa en Egypte il y a trois siècles pour organiser le commerce des blés entre l'Egypte et l'Italie. Le rapportant à sa famille dans certaines lettres trouvées en Egypt en 1720 et 1780, on voit que ses membres occupaient pendant ce temps une influente position comme banquiers; pendant que le Comte Carlo Rosetti, autrefois Consul d'Italie, a joué un grand rôle en Egypte, la famille l'a continué dans l'histoire du pays. Le premier Tilche duquel on se souvienne était Abraham Tilche. Il avait deux fils: Giacomo, qui mourut dans sa minorité, et Giuseppe qui épousa une demoiselle Bellettri, devint le père de Benedetto et mourut à peu près deux ans après. Benedetto, qui fut élevé sous la direction de M. Lagnardo, nommé par le royaume Sarde, entra dans la carrière commerciale de bonne heure, et après quelques années d'association avec d'autres, décida de s'installer à son compte. Il eut du succès dans toutes ses entreprises et devint définitivement sous le patronage de Mehemet Ali, qui avait une grande confiance en lui et lui demanda de développer l'importation de l'or et de l'argent pour les uniformes brodés des officiers. Il ouvrit aussi un grand commerce de céréales sous le nom de Banka Tilche. En 1829 il épousa une fille de Giacomo Salama, et en eut quatre fils: Giuseppe, Giacomo, Moïse et Abramino, et une fille, Bida. En prenant ses fils comme associés en 1854, il changea le nom de sa maison en B. Tilche et fils, connue sous ce nom aujourd'hui. En 1869 sa maison, sise au Caire, eut une succursale à Alexandrie et par degrés on cultiva le coton, on le vendit avec courtage, on l'égrena; ceci ajouta à l'activité de la maison. Une grande manufacture fut ouverte à Ziptah, dans la province de Gharbieh, qui est devenu un grand centre de coton. Récemment, en 1905, la manufacture a été réorganisée sur des plantes nouvelles, capables de produire environ 1,700 kantars (kantars = 99,05 livres) par jour.

Il y a deux rangées de machines, la première conduite par un moteur à gaz Deutz de 300 ch., et la seconde par un tandem à vapeur Deutz, engin de 50 ch. En 1880 la maison acheta une autre manufacture pour l'égrenage de ses propres produits à Chekin el Kanater dans la province de Kaliubieh ; maintenant il y a un rendement de 750 kantars par jour. La force de cette manufacture est aussi employée pour faire marcher un moulin y attenant.

L'associé aîné de cette maison est, de nos jours, M. Abramino Tilche ; il est né au Caire en 1850. Il a occupé une position principale dans la société italienne de la localité. Il est juge assesseur à la cour du Consulat Italien ; président de la Chambre de Commerce Italienne. Il y a deux ans encore il était aussi membre du Conseil Municipal d'Alexandrie. Il est cependant vice-président de la Société de Bienfaisance Italienne, et vice-président du Crédit Franco-Egyptien, et directeur de la Société des Immeubles d'Egypte. Les autres associés sont Victor et Adolphe Tilche, les troisième et quatrième fils de feu Giuseppe Tilche, et fils de Benedetto Tilche, et Benedetto et Marcello, les deux fils aînés de feu Giacomo Tilche. Victor Tilche est né au Caire en 1863. Adolphe est né en Juin, 1872, à Alexandrie. Benedetto Tilche est né au Caire le 5 décembre, 1862, et a été admis associé en 1878. Il est du comité du Crédit Franco-Egyptien. Marcello Tilche est né au Caire le 24 octobre, 1869, et fut admis associé en 1891. Il faut ajouter que Moïse Tilche, déjà mentionné comme l'un des fondateurs, quitta la maison pour entreprendre ses propres affaires avec ses fils. Il mourut en 1904, laissant la maison Moïse Tilche et fils. Bida Tilche devint la femme de Giacomo R. Aghion.

FELIX S. GREEN, an Austro-Hungarian subject, is a son of Solomon Green, the well-known Cairo banker, but owes his success entirely to his own efforts. Born in 1874, he studied agricultural engineering locally and in France, taking his diploma in 1894. On returning to Egypt, he obtained employment with the Société Générale des Sucreries d'Egypt, and remained with them for seven years, rising to the position of manager of the agricultural department. He is now in charge of some 30,000 acres of agricultural land, this area embracing estates belonging to various large landowners, to his father and brothers, and to himself. He has offices at No. 12, Rue Cherif Pasha, Alexandria. He married in November, 1904, Janine, a daughter of the late Baron Elie J. L. de Menasce. He lives at his own villa, situated in the Rue Rosette. He is on the committee of the Asile Francis-Joseph, is an expert for agricultural matters before the Courts, and is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society and of the Mohamed Aly, Salling, and Sporting Clubs.



S. KARAM FRÈRES.

1. Georges Karam. 2. Théodore Karam.
3. Gabriel Tewfick Karam. 4. The late Siméon Karam. 5. Jacques Karam.
6. Edward Karam. 7. Abdallah Karam.

THE COMMERCIAL AND ESTATES COMPANY OF EGYPT.

One of the largest firms in the import timber trade in Egypt is the Commercial and Estates Company of Egypt, late S. Karam et Frères, which was founded at Alexandria in 1848 by Messrs Siméon, Georges, and Théodore Karam, who came to this country from the city of Tripoli, Syria.

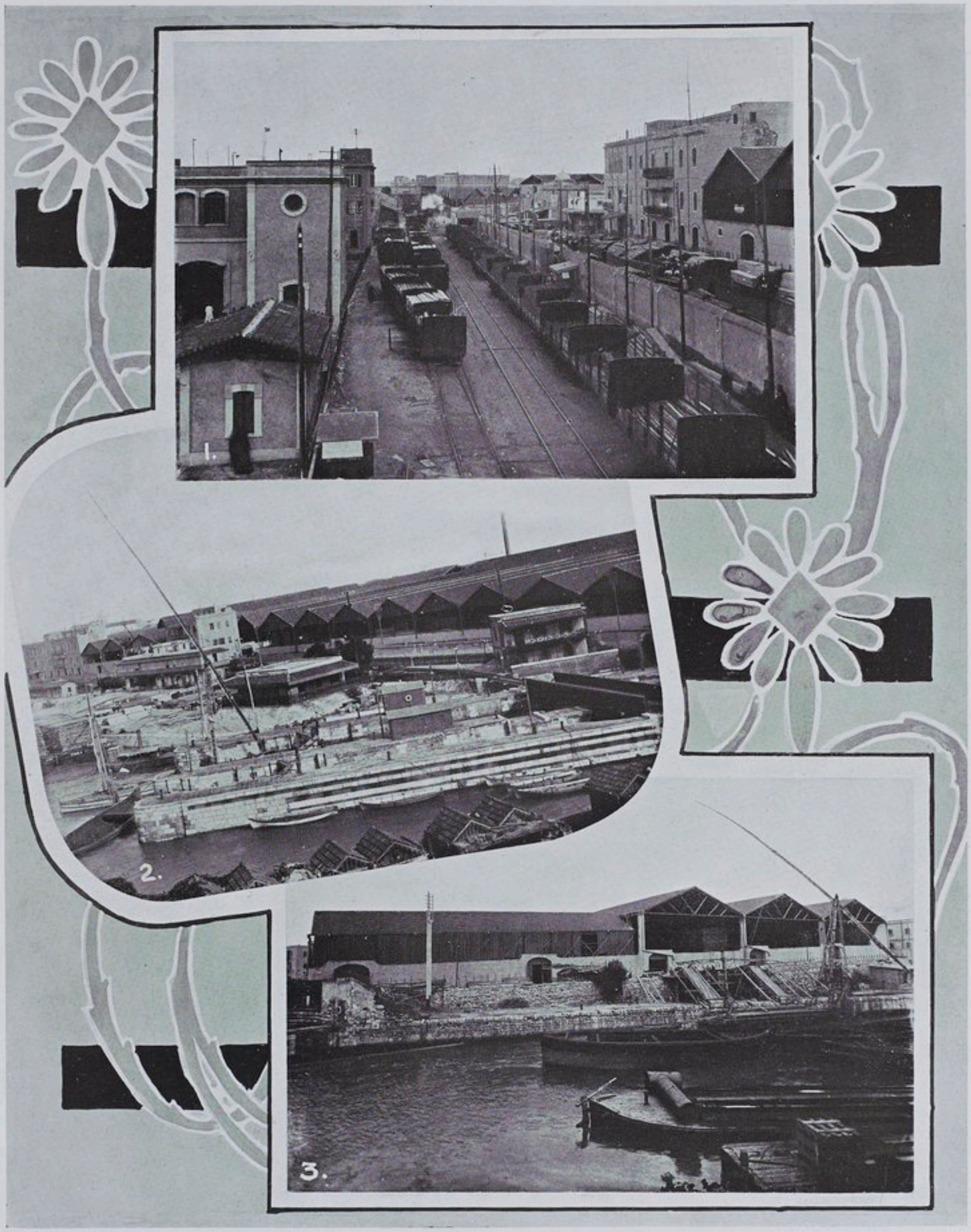
At first the business consisted chiefly in the importation of Turkish timber, but the changes due to the demand for better class dwellings were accompanied by an increased demand for timber of all kinds, and the brothers found it necessary to make corresponding extensions in their operations. The result was that some twenty years ago their present business site was acquired, and upon it there are now eight large tiled store sheds, with an aggregate area of 30,000 square metres. Even these are insufficient for the needs of the present day, and the firm contemplates the acquisition of larger premises to afford scope for the further development. The firm import annually from 40,000 to 45,000 standards (a standard equals 165 cubic feet), of which 40 per cent. consists of white fir planks and scantlings from Austria, Roumania, and Galicia ; 30 per cent. of hewn and planed balks from Sweden and Finland ; 16 per cent. of deals and battens from Sweden ; 10 per cent. of Turkish timber from Asia Minor ; and the remainder of pitch pine from Florida, U.S.A.

Large quantities of timber are supplied to the Egyptian and Soudan Governments for use principally by the railway departments, while still greater quantities are supplied to wholesale merchants in the interior for house construction and boat building for the Nile traffic. Only a relatively small percentage is made up into furniture. A large staff is employed all the year round, including some 29 clerks, 23 storekeepers, 15 overseers, and 250 workmen.

In 1904 the firm of S. Karam et Frères was formed into a company under the style of the Commercial and Estates Company of Egypt, late S. Karam et Frères, with a capital of £E360,000. The present directors are Messrs. Georges, Théodore, Abdallah, Jacques, Gabriel Tewfick, and Edward Karam, who own practically all the shares ; while the auditor is Abdallah Bey Gorra, formerly manager of the Alexandria branch of the Imperial Ottoman Bank.

The premises of the firm are situated in the Rue Echelles des Céréales and Rue Karam, near the harbour quays. This Company possesses also branches at Tantah, Kafr el Sheikh, Mehallah-Kébir, Tala, Benha, Cairo, and at Khartoum (Soudan).

The founders of the business, all natives of Tripoli, and Greek subjects, were sons of Jacob Karam, who died in 1871. Siméon Karam came to Alexandria in 1848 and died in 1888. His son Jacques, born at Tripoli in 1874, is now one of the directors of the Company. Georges Karam, who came to Alexandria in 1850 and worked with his brother Siméon in the timber business, is now president of the Company. He is also president of the Syrian Greek-Orthodox Community, an administrator of the Alexandria Water Company, administrator of La Société d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales, president of the Société Bourse Khédiviale d'Alexandrie, and a member of the Communauté Héllenique Of his marriage with a daughter of Michel Souaya, of Tripoli, he had two sons, Gabriel Tewfick and Edward, who are now directors of the Company ; and five daughters, Roda, Asma, Nazlé, Adèle, and Rose. Théodore Karam, who came to Alexandria in 1857, was until



STAGNI & FIGLI.

1. Loading Timber for Rail Transport to the Interior. 2. General View of Timber near the Harbour.
3. Shipping Timber on the Mahmoudieh Canal.

recently vice-president of the Company. He is still the president of the Société de Bienfaisance Grecque-Orthodoxe Syrienne. His only son, Emin, born in 1872 at Alexandria, was in 1904 elected administrator of the Company, but in 1908 he retired in order to devote his time entirely to his private affairs. Théodore Karam had also two daughters, Labibé and Nabiha.

L'UNE des plus grandes maisons de bois de charpente en Egypte est le Commercial and Estates Company, autrefois S. Karam et Frères, qui a été fondée à Alexandrie en 1848 par Messieurs Siméon, Georges et Théodore Karam, qui vinrent dans ce pays de la ville de Tripoli, Syrie. D'abord la maison s'occupait spécialement de l'importation des bois de Turquie, mais l'on demandait pour les maisons d'autres qualités de bois, et les frères Karam l'ont trouvé nécessaire de donner de l'extension à leurs opérations. Le résultat est qu'il y a vingt ans leur affaire présente était acquise et que maintenant il y a huit grands hangars réunissant une superficie de 30.000 mètres. Cependant c'est insuffisant pour les besoins de nos jours, et la maison médite l'acquisition de grands locaux en vue de donner plus de développement. La maison importe annuellement de 40.000 à 50.000 étalons (l'étalon égale 165 pieds cubiques) desquels 40 pour cent consistent en planches de sapin et échantillons de l'Autriche, de la Roumanie et de la Galicie, 30 pour cent, raboté et taillé, de Suède et de Finlande; 16 pour cent de bois blanc et de lattes de Suède, 10 pour cent de bois de charpente turc de l'Asie Mineure et le reste en pitch pin de la Floride, U.S.A.

Une grande quantité de ces bois de charpente sont employés par le Gouvernement égyptien et pour le Soudan, principalement par le département des chemins de fer, pendant que de plus grandes quantités sont demandées par les marchands de l'intérieur pour la construction des maisons et celle des bateaux pour le trafic sur le Nil. Seulement un faible pourcentage est fait dans les fournitures. Un nombreux personnel est employé toute l'année, savoir, 29 commis, 23 magasiniers, 15 surveillants et 250 ouvriers.

En 1904 la maison S. Karam et Frères était formée en compagnie sous la raison sociale de la Commercial and Estates Company of Egypt, dernièrement S. Karam et Frères, avec un capital de £E360.000. Les directeurs actuels sont Messieurs Georges, Théodore, Abdallah, Jacques, Gabriel, Tewfick et Edouard Karam, qui s'occupent de toutes les parties, pendant que le vérificateur est Abdallah Bey Gorra, autrefois directeur de la branche d'Alexandrie à la Banque Impériale Ottomane.

Les locaux de la maison sont situés à la rue Echelles des Céréales et rue Karam près des quais. La Compagnie possède aussi des branches à Tantah, Kafr el Cheikh, Méhallah, Kébir, Tala, Benha, Cairo, et à Khartoum, Soudan.

Les fondateurs de la maison sont tous natifs de Tripoli et sujets grecs; ils sont les fils de Jacob Karam, mort en 1871. Siméon Karam vint à Alexandrie en 1848 et mourut en 1888. Son fils, Jacques, naquit à Tripoli, est maintenant l'un des directeurs de la Compagnie. Georges Karam, qui vint à Alexandrie en 1850 et travailla avec son frère Siméon dans le commerce des bois, est maintenant le président de la Compagnie. Il est aussi président de la Communauté Syrienne Grecque-Orthodoxe, administrateur de l'Alexandria Water Co., administrateur de la Société d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales, président de la Société Bourse Khédiviale d'Alexandrie, et est membre de la communauté hellénique.

De son mariage avec une fille de Michel Sonaya, de Tripoli, il a deux fils, Gabriel Tewfick et Edouard, qui sont maintenant directeurs de la Compagnie, et cinq filles, Roda, Asma, Nazlé, Adèle et Rose. Théodore Karam, qui vint à Alexandrie en 1857, a été jusqu'à très récemment vice-président de la Compagnie; il est maintenant le président de la Société de Bienfaisance Grecque-Orthodoxe Syrienne. Son fils unique, Emin, né à Alexandrie en 1872, était en 1904 élu administrateur de la Compagnie, mais se retira afin de se vouer entièrement à ses affaires privées. Théodore Karam a aussi deux filles, Labibé et Nabiha.

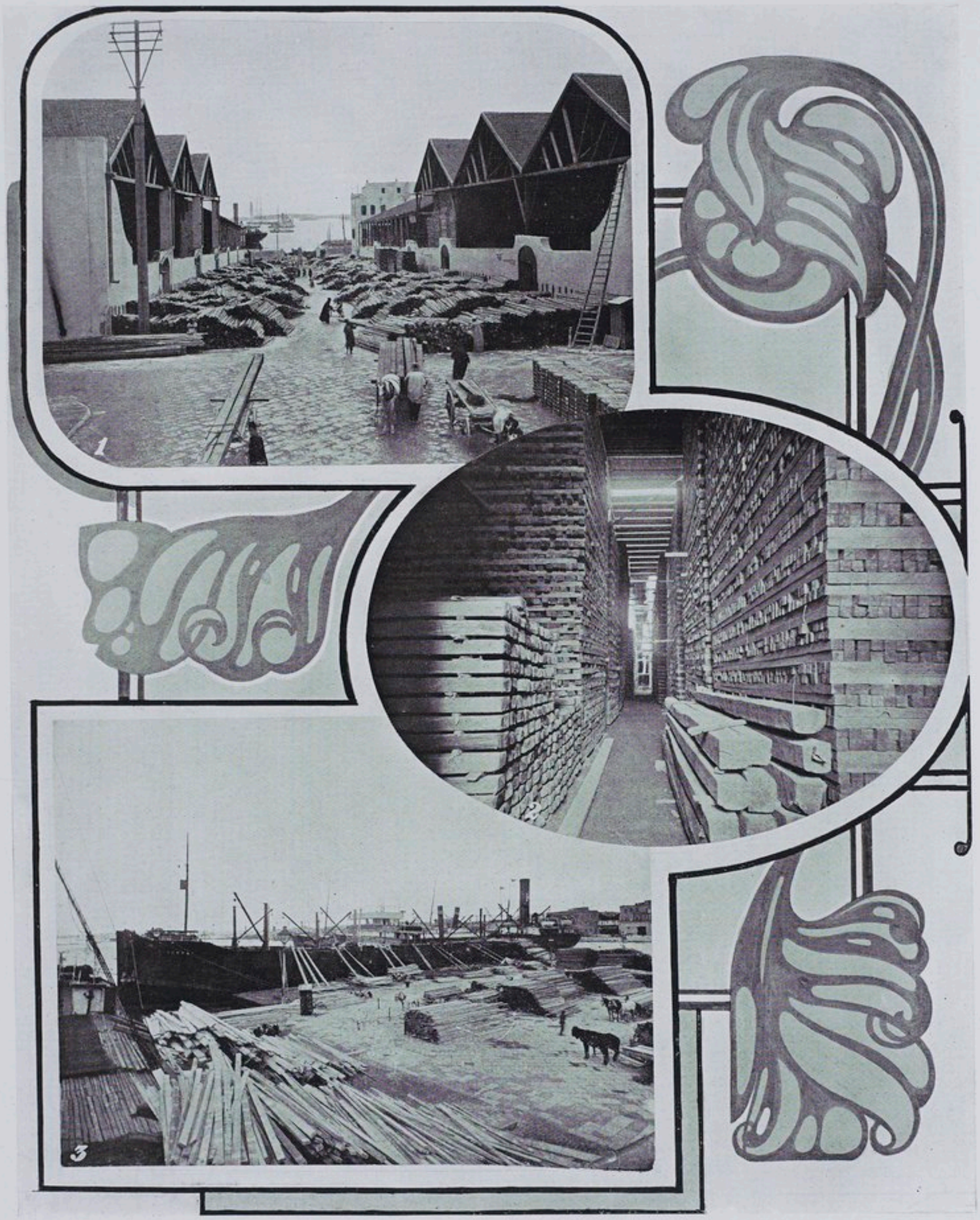


STAGNI & FIGLI.

MAIN OFFICES.

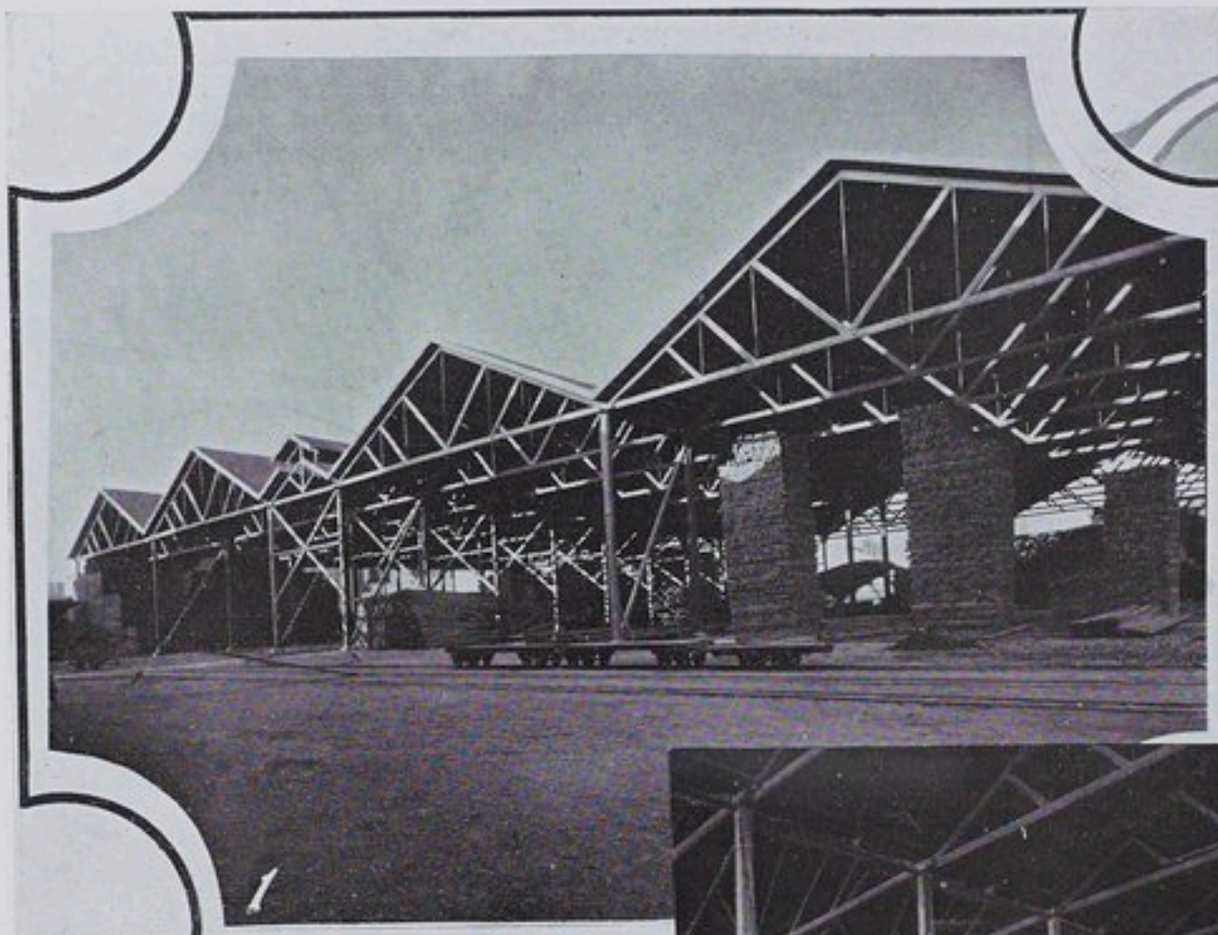
STAGNI & FIGLI.

ESTABLISHED at Rue Echelles des Céréales, Alexandria, Stagni and Figli is one of the largest and most important firms in the timber trade in Egypt. They import chiefly from Turkey and Syria, doing a large trade in all classes of wood suitable for building purposes. Their ramifications are extensive, with well-established branches throughout the country.



STAGNI & FIGLI.

1. View at the Sheds.
2. In the Timber Sheds.
3. Discharging a Timber Vessel.







STAGNI & FIGLI.

1. Timber Yard at Gabbary.
2. In the Timber Sheds.
3. Timber Sheds at Gabbary.

La maison Stagni et Figli, qui est établie dans la rue Echelles des Céréales à Alexandrie est une des plus grandes et des plus importantes maisons de bois en Egypte. Elle importe principalement de la Turquie et de la Syrie, et fait un gros commerce de toutes espèces de bois convenables pour la construction. Ses ramifications sont très étendues et elle possède des succursales bien établies dans tout le pays.

SOCIÉTÉ DU BÉHÉRA.

The Société du Béhéra was formed in 1880 with a capital of £120,000, in shares of £20 each, with the object of lifting water by artificial means into various canals in the provinces of Beheireh and Gharbieh. The repairing of the barrage, however, did away with the necessity for pumping, and in 1894 the Company obtained permission from Government to change their *raison d'être* into that of a land company. The capital was raised to £E200,000, in shares of £E20 each, the old shareholders receiving one and two-thirds new shares for each old share; and debentures to the amount of £300,000 were created, bearing 4 per cent. interest and redeemable in 30 years. These debentures were put out as required, and up to date £80,000 have been cancelled. In 1899 the capital was again increased by a sum of £E50,000 and the shares were reduced in value to £E5, their number being increased to 50,000. In 1905, 100,000 preferred shares of £5 each, bearing 5 per cent. interest, were created, and were distributed gratis to holders of ordinary shares, in the proportion of two preferred shares for every ordinary share. These shares represent a portion of the profits resulting from sales on a term of years and payable by annuities. The share capital of the Company at the present day, therefore, is £E737,500. In addition to the £500,000 worth of preferred shares, the Company have paid in cash to the shareholders on profits actually accrued and encashed a sum of £E8 per ordinary share; thus, each share has received an equivalent to £E17.750 mills. on account of profits on sale of land. The principal object of the Company is the reclamation of brackish and salt lands, the means employed being irrigation, drainage, and the cultivation of certain plants which remove the salt. Altogether about 150,000 feddans of waste land have been purchased, and about half of that area has been converted into good arable land, and re-sold at a considerable profit. Besides their activities in the direction of land reclamation, the Company, since 1885, have carried out numerous dredging contracts for the Suez Canal Company and on Government canals. They have some 15 dredgers continually at work. They also built a small pumping station on the Mahmoudieh Canal for the Municipal Commission of Alexandria. About a year ago they established at Halk el Gamal, near Atfe, workshops furnished with modern machinery. The foundry is under European supervision, and special attention is given to the building of steam dredgers. The head offices of the Company are at No. 6, Rue Adib, Alexandria.

La Société du Béhéra fut fondée en 1880 avec un capital de £120.000, divisé en actions de £20 chacune, pour s'occuper, par des moyens artificiels, de l'élévation de l'eau dans les divers canaux des provinces de Béhéra et de Gharbieh. Toutefois, les réparations et modifications des barrages du Nil supprimèrent l'usage des pompes, et en 1894 la Compagnie obtint du Gouvernement l'autorisation de changer sa raison d'être en celle d'une société foncière. Le capital fut élevé à £E200.000 et divisé en actions de £E20 chacune, les anciens actionnaires recevant une et deux-troisièmes d'actions nouvelles pour chaque ancienne action, et il fut émis £300.000 d'obligations portant 4 pour cent d'intérêt et amortissables en 30 ans. Ces obligations furent émises graduellement, suivant les besoins, et jusqu'aujourdhui, £80.000 ont déjà été amorties. En 1899 le capital était de nouveau augmenté d'une somme de £E50.000, et le prix nominal des actions fut réduit à £E5, le nombre de ces dernières étant porté à 50.000. En 1905 100.000 actions privilégiées de £E5 chacune, rapportant 5 pour cent d'intérêt, furent créées, et furent distribuées gratis aux porteurs d'actions ordinaires, dans la proportion de deux actions privilégiées pour une action ordinaire. Ces actions privilégiées représentaient les bénéfices acquis sur les reventes des terres de la Société. Le capital en actions de la Compagnie se monte donc actuellement à £E737.500. Outre les £E500.000, valeur des actions privilégiées, la Compagnie a payé comptant aux actionnaires sur les bénéfices actuellement faits et encaissés £E8 par action



GIOVANNI STAGNI
(Founder of the Firm).

ordinaire. C'est à dire que chaque action a reçu £E17.750 mills. pour bénéfices effectués sur ventes de terrains. L'objet principal de la Société est l'amendement des terres incultes et salées, par le moyen de l'irrigation et du drainage, ainsi que de la culture de certaines plantes qui éliminent le sel. Au total, environ 150.000 feddans de terres incultes ont été achetés, et près de la moitié de cette superficie a été convertie en une bonne terre arable et revendue avec un bénéfice considérable. En plus de l'activité qu'elle déploie dans l'amendement des terres, la compagnie a, depuis 1885, exécuté plusieurs contrats de draguage pour la Compagnie du Canal de Suez, ainsi que pour le compte du Gouvernement dans les canaux. Elle possède quelques 15 dragues continuellement en service. Elle a aussi construit une petite pompe sur le Canal Mahmoudieh pour la Commission Municipale d'Alexandrie. Il y a environ un an qu'elle a installé à Halk el Gamal, près de Atfeh, des ateliers munis des meilleures machines modernes. La fonderie est dirigée par des européens, et une attention toute spéciale est apportée à la construction des dragues à vapeur. Le siége principal de la Société se trouve au N° 6 de la rue Adib, Alexandrie.

ALLEN, ALDERSON & CO., LIMITED.

The business now known as Allen, Alderson & Co., Ltd., engineers, importers of machinery and contractors, is the largest of its class in the country, and having been established for nearly fifty years it is well known throughout the whole of Egypt. Its founder was Mr. Samuel Stafford Allen, who carried on the business under the name of S. S. Allen & Co. He was joined in 1865 by Mr. George Beaton Alderson, who came out originally to Egypt for the firm of Ransome and Sims, engineers. Mr. S. S. Allen died in 1870, and his father, Mr. Stafford Allen, then joined Mr. Alderson in carrying on the business. In 1873 Mr. Francis Allen came to Egypt, and when Mr. Stafford Allen, Senior, retired a year or two later, he continued with Mr. Alderson under the style of Allen, Alderson & Co. In 1900 the business was sold to the present proprietors, Allen, Alderson & Co., Ltd., of which the directors are Messrs. Geo. B. Alderson, F. Allen, H. F. Dickson, G. Alex. Alderson, Chas. A. H. Alderson, and Vita Castro. The present secretary is Mr. Donald R. Allen.

The chief business undertaken by the company is the installation of irrigation plants, of which the pumps range from 3 inches up to 36 inches in diameter. They are to be found all over the country. The largest plant of the kind is that installed at Baliana; it is driven by two Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., Corliss engines of 500 h.p. each. Smaller plants are driven by portable engines. The Company also make a feature of supplying cotton-ginning machinery and factories complete. The largest installation was laid down at Kafr el Zayat in 1907, the power being supplied by one of Ruston's latest drop valve engines of 1,200 i.h.p.

The Company represent the following firms: Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., of Lincoln, for fixed and portable engines, corn mills, pumps, agricultural machinery, threshing machines, oil engines, and suction gas plants; John Fowler & Co. (Leeds), Ltd., for steam ploughing machinery; S. Chatwood and Sons, Ltd., of Bolton, and Ratner's Safe Co., Ltd., of London, for safes; Cammell, Laird & Co., Ltd., of Sheffield, for steel rails, spring buffers, &c.; F. Reddaway & Co., of Pendleton, Manchester, for "Camel" brand belting and indiarubber goods; Green & Sons, of Wakefield, for patent fuel economisers; Stewarts & Lloyds, Ltd., of Birmingham and Glasgow, for gas and steam piping and fittings; McCormick & Co., U.S.A., for reapers and mowers; Merryweather & Sons, Ltd., of Greenwich, for steam and manual fire engines; Planet, Junior, of Philadelphia, U.S.A., for agricultural implements; Fawcett, Preston & Co., for hydraulic presses; Oliver & Co., South Bend, Indiana, U.S.A., for ploughs; and Allen Ransome & Co., Ltd., of Newark-on-Trent, for woodworking machinery.

The Company has extensive stores in Alexandria, where they keep a large stock of portable and fixed engines, steam pumps, corn mills, steam ploughing, and general machinery, with all their accessories, and are in a position to execute orders and contracts of practically any magnitude.

La maison connue maintenant sous le nom de Allen, Alderson & Co., Ltd., ingénieurs, importateurs de machines et entrepreneurs, est la plus grande maison de ce genre dans le pays, comme il y a une cinquantaine d'années que la maison est établie en Egypte. Le fondateur est Monsieur Samuel Stafford Allen qui s'occupa de l'affaire sous la raison sociale de S. S. Allen & Co. En 1865 il s'associa à M. George Beaton Alderson, qui à l'origine vint en Egypte pour la maison de

Ransome et Sims, ingénieurs. M. S. S. Allen mourut en 1870 et son père, M. Stafford Allen, rejoint M. Alderson dans l'affaire. En 1873, M. Francis Allen vint en Egypte, et quand M. Stafford Allen aîné se retira un ou deux ans après, il continua avec M. Alderson sous la raison sociale de Allen, Alderson & Co. En 1900 on vendit la maison aux propriétaires actuels, Allen, Alderson & Co., Ltd., desquels les directeurs sont MM. Geo. B. Alderson, T. Allen, H. F. Dickson, G. Alex. Alderson, Chas. A. H. Alderson et Vita Castro. Le secrétaire actuel est M. Donald R. Allen.

L'entreprise principale s'occupe de l'installation, des matériaux d'irrigation desquels les pompes sont de trois à trente centimètres de diamètre. On les trouve partout dans le pays. Les plus grands matériaux de ce genre sont installés à Baliana ; ils sont poussés par deux machines Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., Corliss, de la force de 500 chevaux chacune. De plus petits matériaux sont poussés par des engins portatifs. La Compagnie fournit aussi complètement les machines dans la manufacture de coton pour l'égrenage. Les plus grandes installations ont été posées à Kafr el Gayat en 1907. La force a été appliquée par une des dernières machines de Ruston, machine à bascule de 1.200 ch.

La Compagnie représente les maisons suivantes : Ruston, Proctor & Co., Ltd., de Lincoln, pour les machines fixes et portatives à blé, moulins, pompes, machines agricoles, machines à émonder, machines à huile et aspiration, matériaux pour le gaz ; John Fowler & Co., Leeds, Ltd., pour les machines à vapeur et de labours ; S. Chatwood & Sons, Ltd., de Bolton ; et Ratner's Safe Co., Ltd., de Londres (sûreté) ; Cammell, Laird, & Co., Ltd., de Sheffield, pour les rails d'acier, les tampons à ressorts, etc. ; F. Reddaway & Co., de Pendleton, Manchester, pour "Camel" marque de ceinture et marchandises en caoutchouc ; Green & Sons, de Wakefield, pour le combustible économique ; Stewarts & Lloyds, Ltd., de Birmingham et Glasgow, pour les tuyaux du gaz et des eaux ; McCormick & Co., U.S.A., pour des moissonneuses et des faucheuses ; Merryweather & Son, Ltd., de Greenwich, pour des pompes à incendie à vapeur et à main ; Planet, Junior, de Philadelphie, U.S.A., pour des instruments agricoles ; Fawcett, Preston & Co. pour des presses hydrauliques ; Oliver & Co., South Bend, Indiana, U.S.A., pour des charrues ; et Allen Ransome & Co., Ltd., de Newark-on-Trent, pour des machines à travailler le bois.

La Compagnie a des magasins immenses à Alexandrie où se trouve un grand stock de machines portatives et fixes, des pompes à vapeur, moulins pour le blé, machines à labourer et pour usage général avec tous leurs accessoires, et peut exécuter tous les ordres et les contrats de toute importance.

GEORGE BEETON ALDERSON, who was a representative of the General College of Electors on the Municipal Council for two years, is one of the oldest British residents in Alexandria. He came to Egypt in 1865, when he was only twenty years of age, to erect various pumping and milling machinery for Ransome & Sims, the well-known firm of engineers, to whom he had been apprenticed. His services were retained for a time by the Pasha, to whom the machinery had been supplied, and afterwards he joined the late Mr. Stafford Allen in founding the firm of Allen, Alderson & Co., machinery importers and engineers, to-day one of the largest concerns of its kind in the country. Acquiring a thorough knowledge of Arabic and of native ways, he became very popular amongst the people of his adopted country. He greatly endeared himself to them during a cholera epidemic by fearlessly going amongst those who were stricken and giving them his personal assistance. So much was he beloved, indeed, that when Alexandria was looted after the bombardment his was practically the only foreign residence left untouched. In 1903 he erected at Aboukir a fine mosque and minaret, which he presented to the natives of that village—this being, probably, the only instance on record of the acceptance of such a gift by Mahomedans from the hands of a Christian. Many of the leading Egyptian gentry resident in the neighbourhood were present at the opening ceremony, and an illuminated address in Arabic testified to the appreciation of the villagers, who regarded Mr. Alderson as their sheik, or chief. Many public and charitable institutions in Alexandria owe their existence wholly or in part to Mr. Alderson. In conjunction with Sir Charles Cookson, a former British Consul, he promoted the establishment of the British School, purchasing a site on the new quay for £E1,300. He served on the original committee, and has ever since been a cordial supporter of the institution. In 1906, when it was found necessary to extend the scope of the work, he bought back the old site for £E100,000, and this sum formed the nucleus of the fund for building the Victoria College at San Stefano. He contributed largely to the cost of the Seamen's Home ; with Baron de Menasce he started the Rudolf Asylum for Waifs and Poor People ; he was one of the original promoters, and is still on the committee, of the Victoria Nursing Home ; and he takes great interest in Lady Meath's School for the Blind. In 1869 Mr. Alderson married Ellen Owen, second daughter of the late Robert Wells, of Notting Hill, London ; and after her death he married Helen, a daughter of Dr. Phonzetta, of Alexandria. He has four sons and five daughters, and numerous grandchildren. Since 1905 he has lived in retirement at Morland House, Ramleh, a charming residence which has grown around the three rooms which originally formed his house in the early days of the settlement. It is a veritable museum, filled with valuable relics of antiquarian and historic interest, from the miniature granite sphinx, thousands of years old, to the various trophies brought from the field of Omdurman. Mr. Alderson has a second house at Aboukir, whilst moored in the bay is a houseboat which, as a gunboat in the days of its prime, took part in the siege of Sebastopol, and was afterwards converted into a seamen's home and chapel.

STROSS BROTHERS.

Stross Brothers, one of the oldest houses of importers and general merchants in Egypt, have taken no small part in the commercial development of the country. The business was founded at Cairo in 1865 by Leopold and Emanuel Stross ; a branch was opened in Alexandria three years later ; and in 1882 Mr. Leopold Stross proceeded to Vienna to establish a further branch in that city. More recently the business was extended to Buda-Pesth. Already at the time of Gordon's administration of the Soudan, Stross Brothers had established relationships with that country. Since the death of Mr. Leopold Stross in 1884, the head offices have been transferred from Cairo to Alexandria, and a third brother, Mr. Gustave Stross, has been admitted to the partnership. Some years after the death of Mr. Leopold Stross, the manager of the Vienna branch, Mr. Adolf Goldschmidt, became a partner in the firm, and later on Messrs. Rudolf, Karl, and Oscar Stross, sons of Mr. Emanuel Stross, were also admitted to partnership.

Stross Frères, une des plus anciennes maisons d'importateurs et négociants en Egypte, n'a pas pris une petite part dans le développement commercial du pays. La maison fut fondée au Caire en 1865 par Léopold et Emmanuel Stross ; une agence fut ouverte à Alexandrie trois ans après ; et en 1882 M. Léopold Stross partit pour Vienne afin d'établir une autre agence dans cette ville. Plus récemment les affaires furent étendues à la place de Buda-Pesth. Déjà du temps de l'administration Gordon, au Soudan, Messieurs Stross avaient noué des relations d'affaires avec ce pays. A la mort de Monsieur Léopold Stross, en 1884, le siège de la maison fut transféré du Caire à Alexandrie et un troisième frère des premiers associés, M. Gustave Stross, fut admis dans la Société. Quelques années après la mort de Monsieur Léopold Stross, le directeur de l'agence de Vienne, Monsieur Adolphe Goldschmidt, devint associé de la maison, et dans la suite, Messieurs Rudolphe, Karl et Oscar Stross, fils de Monsieur Emmanuel Stross, vinrent également faire partie de la Société.

F. C. HASELDEN.

Frank Charles Haselden, who has resided in Alexandria for upwards of forty years, has had a varied and interesting career, and there are few local British institutions with which he has not been prominently associated. He came to Egypt in 1868 on a visit to his uncle, the late Mr. Joseph Haselden, a cotton merchant, and decided to remain in the country. He learned the cotton business thoroughly, and also made himself conversant with the habits and modes of thought of the natives of the country. In 1874 he joined Mr. Moberley Bell, afterwards manager of *The Times*, in an enterprise which no Englishman had ever before attempted in Egypt, namely, the transport of cotton and other products by means of horsed railway trolleys. Messrs. Carver & Co., contractors to the British Government, entrusted all their transport work to the new firm, and, with this as a nucleus, the concern was an assured success. In 1882, thanks to his knowledge of the country for a radius of several miles round Alexandria and to his fluency in Arabic, Mr. Haselden was able to render valuable service to Admiral Seymour, who retained him on behalf of the British Government to act as guide and interpreter when Captain (now Lord) Charles Beresford took possession of Alexandria after the bombardment. Mr. Haselden was made a member of the Intelligence Department, which was at that time specially charged with the duty of watching the movements of Arabi Pasha. After the battle of Tel el Kebir he accompanied Sir Evelyn Wood in his advance up country as far as Kafr el Dowar, where the native forces surrendered ; and for his services he received the British war medal. When peace was restored he resumed the management of the business at Alexandria, but in 1883, on Mr. Bell's suggestion, he bought a piece of neglected land near Kafr el Dowar station, and applied himself to agriculture, growing cotton and cereals. When Mr. Bell left Egypt in 1891, Mr. Haselden carried on the business under the style of Haselden & Co., commission, insurance, and shipping agents and general merchants. He is agent for Sir John

Aird, and large quantities of machinery, cement, coal and miscellaneous materials passed through his hands for use in the construction of the dam at Assouan and the barrage at Assiout; and at the present time he is engaged on large contracts from that firm in connection with the raising of the Assiout dam and with the construction of the barrage at Esneh. Since 1895 he has acted as agent for the Peninsular and Oriental Steamship Navigation Company, and he also represents numerous important insurance companies, and he has been vice-president of the Alexandria Insurance Syndicate ever since its formation. He takes a great interest in local financial institutions, and until quite recently was treasurer of the Victoria Home. As one of the promoters of the Alexandria Sporting Club, he was instrumental, with Coles Pasha and Mr. Foster, in laying out the present racecourse, polo grounds, tennis courts, and golf links; and it is his boast that since the Club was formed he has never missed a sports meeting. He is on the committees of the Khedivial and Athletic Clubs, and is Vice-President of the Alexandria Harriers. He was married, in 1895, to Grace Elsie, a daughter of Charles Hawkins, of the London Stock Exchange. He resides at Beit Frank, Bulkeley. Mr. Haselden was decorated by the present Khedive with the Order of the Mejidieh, third class.

F. W. CUMING & CO., established in Alexandria in 1903, make a speciality of insurance of all kinds. They represent the General Accident, Fire and Life Assurance Corporation, Ltd., the London and Lancashire Life Assurance Company, the British Dominion Marine Insurance Company, and the National Provincial Plate Glass Insurance Company. Their offices are at the corner of the Rues Cleopatra and Averoff.

RICHON LE ZION
(Société "Carmel Oriental.")

The desert of Ein Hakore, or En Hakkore, so named by Samson (see Judges xv. 19) lies, south-east of Jaffa, in Palestine, and was for thousands of years a wild, desolate region, practically without inhabitants.

In 1882, however, the Colony of Richon le Zion was founded by a number of Russian Jews, who were unable to tolerate the conditions which prevailed in the country of the Czar. After several experiments, the colonists found that the soil was most suitable for the cultivation of the vine, and thus, in course of time, the wilderness has become a smiling land in which a visitor may easily imagine himself to be in a district of the Gironde.

The original plants, which comprised all the principal species, such as the Bordelais, Carignian, Alicante, Cambernet, Malbec, Muscat, Rosetta, Semillon and Sauvignon were imported from Mouton-Rothschild, Château-Lafitte, Bordeaux, and were grafted upon American stocks, in order to secure, their immunity from phylloxera.

The development of the industry was encouraged by Baron Edmond de Rothschild, who in 1882, constructed vast cellars to store the wines of Richon le Zion and the surrounding colonies.

The cellars have a capacity of 200,000 hectolitres, and are fitted with the most modern scientific machinery, pumps, refrigerators, press, filters, pasteurisateurs, and other devices as used in the chief wine-growing centres of France, Hungary, Spain and Italy. It is interesting to note, in passing, that even at the time electricity was prohibited in Turkey, an electric lighting plant was installed in the cellars of Richon le Zion.

The plantations and the whole of the installations are under the control of European specialists; and the excellent quality of the products of Richon le Zion has been fully established by analyses, by eminent European authorities, Pouchet (Paris), Enoch (Hamburg), Verigò (Odessa), Gayon (Bordeaux), Bichop (Berlin), Shnierer and Bardach (Vienna), and Dlusky (St. Petersburg), and by the fact that numerous medals have been awarded to Richon le Zion wines at various exhibitions, such as those of Hamburg, 1897, Paris, 1900, and Vienna, 1905; the Richon le Zion cellars have also been honoured with the appointment of suppliers to H.H. the Khedive.

Since 1896, several limited liability companies were formed with a view of extending the sale of these wines in Russia, Germany, England, Austria, France, the United States, South Africa, and the Orient. Of these companies, the one



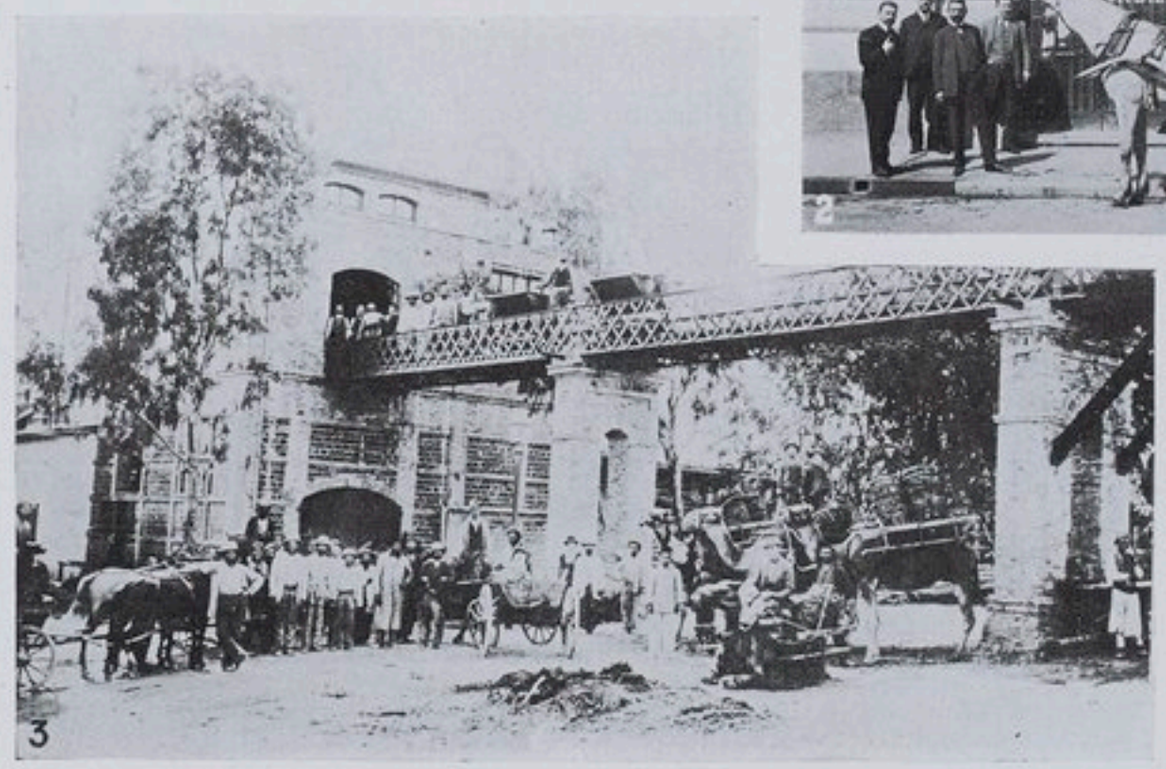
PROMINENT MEMBERS OF THE EUROPEAN BUSINESS COMMUNITY, ALEXANDRIA.

1. R. Stabile. 2. Benjamin Nathan. 3. Frances Allen. 4. S. Willhoff. 5. Capt. F. Baldovina.
6. M. Xippas. 7. Alexander Th. Kitroeff. 8. Frank C. Hasselden. 9. Raphael A. Huri. 10. Adolphe Bogdadly.
11. Fritz Hess. 12. Alberto Cumbo. 13. S. Pitxer. 14. Chas. A. H. Alderson. 15. A. R. Giro.











SOCIÉTÉ CARMEL ORIENTAL.

1. Interior of Office.
2. The Office and Stores, Alexandria.
3. Bringing the Grapes to the Factory.
4. Weighing Grapes.

known as "Société Carmel Oriental" is that which undertakes the Egyptian business and supplies the African and Asiatic Continents. This society was established by Mr. Gluskin, who founded the other companies, and its shareholders are mostly Russian and French Jews. The "Carmel Oriental," which has branches in Turkey and in Egypt, enjoys a distinct advantage in that the duties on wines and cognacs imported into Turkey and Egypt are low as compared with those of other countries, especially those which have their own wine-growing industries, such as France, Russia, and America, where prohibitive tariffs are imposed. For this reason, tourists who travel in the Orient need not wonder when they are supplied at extremely low prices with wine of exactly the same trade-mark as that for which they are called upon to pay high prices in their own countries. In Alexandria especially, thanks to the measures now taken by the Municipal Commission to check the practice of the adulteration of alimentary products, the Richon le Zion wines, being absolutely natural products, have every prospect of a successful future. Added to this, the vicinity of Palestine to Egypt, and the fact that grapes ripen earlier in Palestine than in other countries, owing to the hot and dry climate prevailing, ensure that the Richon le Zion wines can be placed on the Egyptian market at a much earlier date than all other vintages.

The most recent development of this huge industry was the formation in 1906 of a syndicate, by the cultivators of the Richon le Zion, Zicron Jacob, Petah Tikwah, Rehoboth and Gederah colonies, known as the Société Coopérative Vigneronne des Grandes Caves de Richon le Zion et Zicron Jacob. The object of the syndicate was to take over for a period of ten years the whole administration of the Richon le Zion and other cellars in Palestine, which had up to that time been managed by Baron Edmond de Rothschild's representatives in Paris. At the expiration of the ten years, the syndicate will begin to repay to Baron Rothschild or to the Jewish Colonisation Association in Paris the cost of the cellars and the installations, and thus will acquire gradually the whole industry. The industrial installations, the cellars, machinery, vats, &c., of Richon and Zicron, together with the equipment of all the various branches are valued at Frs. 10,000,000, while the vineyards themselves are estimated to be worth Frs. 50,000,000.

The branches of this industry are as follows:—In the Orient—Alexandria, Cairo, Port Said, Jaffa, Jerusalem, Caiffa, Beyrouth, Smyrna, Constantinople, and their surroundings, under the heading "Carmel Oriental"; in Hamburg and London, under the respective names of "Eliadah" and "The Palestine Wine Company"; in Vienna and Lemberg, under the style of the "Gesellschaft Carmel"; in America—New York, Chicago, Brooklyn and Baltimore, under the name of the "Carmel Wine Company"; in Paris, as the "Wine of Palestine"; in Berlin, by the name of the "Gesellschaft Palestina"; and in South Africa, under the name of the "Anglo-Palestine Company." Altogether, some 1,500 people are employed in connection with the industry.

The Alexandria office, which is managed by Mr. David Idelovitch, is in the Rue de l'Ancienne Bourse; that at Cairo, managed by Messrs. H. Isaacsohn and I. Cahanoff, is situated in the Chareh el Maghraby; and that at Port Said, managed by Mr. G. Papiermeister, is in the Rue du Commerce.

Le désert de Ein Hakore ou En Hakkore, ainsi nommé par Sanson (voir Juges chap. xv. 19) est situé au sud-est de Jaffa, en Palestine, et fut pendant des milliers d'années une région sauvage et désolée dépourvue d'habitants.

En 1882 cependant, la colonie de Richon le Zion fut fondée par un certain nombre d'israélites russes qui ne pouvaient pas tolérer le régime existant dans l'empire du Tsar. Après diverses expériences les colons constatèrent que le sol se prêtait beaucoup à la plantation de la vigne, de sorte qu'avec le temps le désert est devenu une riante contrée où le voyageur peut se croire dans un coin du département de la Gironde. Les plants originaux qui comprenaient les principales espèces de vigne, comme le Bordelais, le Carignian, l'Alicante, le Cabernet, le Malbec, le Muscat, le Rosetta, le Sémillon, et le Sauvignon, furent importés de Mouton-Rothschild, Château-Lafitte, Bordeaux, et furent greffés sur des tiges américaines afin d'assurer leur immunité contre le phylloxéra. Le développement de cette industrie fut encouragé par le Baron Edmond de Rothschild qui en 1889 construisit de vastes caves pour emmagasiner les vins de Richon le Zion et des pays environnants. Les caves, qui ont une capacité de 200.000 hectolitres possèdent une installation des plus modernes et des plus scientifiques avec machines, pompes, appareils, réfrigérants, presses, filtres pasteurisateurs, et autres inventions en usage dans les principaux centres vinicoles de la France, de la Hongrie, de l'Espagne et de l'Italie. Il est intéressant de noter, en passant, que même du temps où l'électricité était interdite en Turquie, une installation électrique fonctionnait dans les caves de Richon le Zion. Les plantations et l'ensemble des services sont placés sous le contrôle de spécialistes européens, et l'excellente qualité des produits de Richon le Zion a été pleinement établie par les analyses de plusieurs illustres autorités médicales comme Pouchet (Paris), Enoch (Hambourg), Verigò (Odessa), Gayon (Bordeaux), Bichop (Berlin), Shnierer et Bardach (Vienne) et Dlusky (St. Pétersbourg), et par de nombreuses médailles qui ont été décernées aux vins de Richon le Zion à différentes expositions telles que celle d'Hambourg, 1897, de Paris, 1900, et de Vienne, 1906; les caves de Richon le Zion ont également eu l'honneur d'être désignées comme fournisseur de S.A. le Khédive. Depuis 1896 diverses sociétés anonymes furent formées en vue de développer la vente de ces vins dans la Russie, l'Allemagne, l'Angleterre, l'Autriche, la France, les Etats-Unis, l'Afrique du Sud et l'Orient. Parmi elles la compagnie connue sous le nom de Société "Carmel Oriental" est celle qui a l'entreprise des affaires égyptiennes et la fourniture des continents africain et asiatique. Cette Société fut montée par M. W. Gluskin qui fonda les autres compagnies, et ses actionnaires sont pour la plupart des israélites russes et français. Le "Carmel Oriental" qui a des filiales en Turquie et en Egypte jouit d'un avantage appréciable, car les droits qui grèvent les vins et cognacs importés en Turquie et en Egypte, sont plus bas que ceux des autres pays, et surtout des pays qui ont une production vinicole propre comme la France, la Russie et l'Amérique, où des tarifs protectionnistes sont en vigueur. Pour cette raison les touristes qui voyagent dans l'Orient ne doivent pas être surpris lorsqu'ils achètent à des prix extrêmement avantageux des vins portant exactement la même marque que ceux pour lesquels ils sont obligés de payer des prix très élevés dans leur propre pays. A Alexandrie surtout, grâce aux mesures prises actuellement par la commission municipale pour empêcher la falsification des produits alimentaires, les vins de Richon le Zion étant des produits absolument naturels, ont la perspective assurée d'un avenir prospère. Ajoutons à cela la proximité de la Palestine et de l'Egypte, et le fait que le raisin mûrit plus vite en Palestine qu'en n'importe quelle autre contrée, à cause de la chaleur sèche du climat d'où il résulte que le vin de Richon le Zion peut être écoulé sur les marchés égyptiens bien avant tous les autres.

Le très récent développement pris par cette vaste industrie est dû à la constitution d'un syndicat parmi les cultivateurs des colonies de Richon le Zion, Zicron Jacob, Petah Tikwah, Rehoboth et Gédérah, syndicat qui s'est formé en 1906 et qui a pris le nom de Société Coopérative Vigneronne des Grandes Caves de Richon le Zion et Zicron Jacob. L'objet de ce syndicat était d'assumer pour une période de dix ans l'entière gestion des caves de Richon le Zion et autres endroits de Palestine qui avaient été jusqu'alors dirigés par les représentants du Baron Edmond de Rothschild de Paris. A l'expiration de ces dix années, le syndicat devra rembourser au Baron de Rothschild ou à l'Association coloniale israélite de Paris, le coût des caves et des installations, et acquérir graduellement l'industrie entière. Les installations industrielles, les caves, les machines, les cuves, etc., de Richon et de Zicron en même temps que les installations des diverses filiales sont évaluées à 1.000.000 de francs; tandis que les vignes représentent par elles-mêmes une valeur de 50 millions de francs.

Des filiales de cette Société existent dans les localités suivantes: en Orient, à Alexandrie, Le Caire, Port Said, Jaffa, Jérusalem, Caïffa, Beyrouth, Smyrne, Constantinople, et leurs environs, sous la raison sociale "Carmel Oriental"; à Hambourg et à Londres respectivement sous les nom de "Eliadah" et "The Palestine Co."; à Vienne et à Lemberg sous la raison sociale de "Gesellschaft Carmel"; en Amérique, à New York, Chicago, Brooklyn et Baltimore, sous le nom de "Carmel Wine Co."; à Paris, sous celui de "Vins de Palestine"; à Berlin, sous le nom de "Gesellschaft Palestine"; et dans l'Afrique du Sud, sous celui de "Anglo-Palestine Company." Plus de 1.500 personnes sont employés dans les diverses branches de cette industrie.

L'agence d'Alexandrie, qui est dirigée par M. David Idelovitch, est située rue de l'Ancienne Bourse; celle du Caire, dirigée par MM. H. Isaacsohn et I. Cahanoff, se trouve rue el Maghraby; et celle de Port Said, dirigée par M. G. Papiermeister, est située dans la rue du Commerce.

ALEXANDRIA NEW MARKET.

Alexandria, the rich commercial capital of Egypt, with its enlightened Municipality, its cosmopolitan merchant princes, and its numerous population, lacked, strangely enough, until quite recently, a central market for the supply of its daily provisions. It was left to the initiative and enterprise of Dégiardé Brothers to supply this want.

The New Alexandria Market, as the magnificent structure is named, is situated in the very heart of Alexandria, and the principal thoroughfares of the town converge at its gates. The building measures 170 metres in length and 36 metres in width, thus covering an area of over 6,000 square metres; but of this area only about one-half is occupied by stalls, the other half being given up to wide avenues and halls.

The building is lofty and well-ventilated, and the most modern accessories have been



NEW ALEXANDRIA MARKET.

1, 2, and 3. Views of the Interior of the Alexandria Market. 4. A. P. Degiarde. 5. Th. Degiarde.

introduced unsparingly. All the counters are of white Carrara marble; and the butchers' and other fittings are nickel-plated, while ornamental marble fountains decorate the four spacious halls, giving the place more the appearance of an exhibition pavilion than of a public market.

The walls of the fish-market are lined with white enamelled tiles, and those of all the stalls are plastered with Portland cement. A special feature of this market is the provision made for advertisements. An area of about 3,000 square metres of the slanting roof has been reserved for this modern requirement; the position is admirably chosen, and is bound to be much appreciated by advertisers. The cold storage installation, which is situated underneath the main hall, and has a cubic capacity of about 1,000 metres, is being carried out by the well-known firm of J. & E. Hall, of Dartford.

Care and attention have been given to every detail in order to enhance the general beauty of the building and to safeguard the public health.

Altogether, the market will be of immense value to the community, and Dégiardé Brothers are to be congratulated upon the thorough manner in which they have undertaken the work.

ALEXANDRIE, la riche capitale commerciale d'Egypte, avec sa municipalité éclairée, ses nombreux et riches marchands cosmopolites et sa grande population manquait réellement d'une façon bien sérieuse d'un marché central pour le débit de ses approvisionnements journaliers. Il a été laissé à l'iniative et à l'esprit d'entreprise de Messieurs Dégiardé Frères de suppléer à ce besoin.

Le nouveau marché d'Alexandrie (ainsi dénommée la magnifique construction) est situé en plein centre d'Alexandrie et les voies principales de la ville convergent vers ses portes. Le bâtiment mesure 170 mètres de long sur 36 de large, couvrant ainsi une superficie de plus de 6.000 mètres carrés, mais de cet espace la moitié seulement environ est occupée par des stalles, le reste étant utilisé par de grandes avenues et des "halls."

Ce bâtiment est élevé et bien aéré, et les perfectionnements les plus modernes n'y ont pas été épargnés. Tous les comptoirs sont en marbre blanc de Carrara et les accessoires de bouchers, de même que tous les autres, sont nickelés. Des fontaines en marbre d'ornement ornent les quatre grands "halls" donnant ainsi à l'endroit plutôt l'esprit d'un pavillon d'exposition que d'un marché public.

Les murs du marché aux poissons sont couverts de carreaux émaillés blancs et ceux de toutes les stalles sont recouverts de ciment de Portland.

Un des traits caractéristiques de ce marché consiste dans les dispositions qui ont été prises en vue de la réclame. Un espace d'environ 3.000 metres carrés de toit incliné à été réservé dans ce but; la position est admirablement choisie et ne peut manquer d'être fort appréciée des personnes ayant besoin de réclame pour le développement de leur commerce ou industrie.

L'installation des glacières qui sont situées dans le "hall" principal a un cubage de 1.000 mètres environ, et a été exécutée par la maison bien connue de Messieurs J. & E. Hall, de Dartford.

La plus grande attention et les soins les plus minutieux ont été apportés dans l'exécution de tous les détails, de façon à augmenter la beauté générale du bâtiment et pour sauvegarder la santé publique.

En somme le marché sera d'une importante valeur commerciale pour toute la communauté et Messieurs Dégiardé Frères doivent être complimentés sur la façon intelligente avec laquelle ils ont entrepris le travail.

BARKER & CO.

MORE than sixty years ago, when British commerce first began to make itself felt as a permanent factor in the development of the country, the firm of Barker & Co., general merchants and shipping agents, were established. The founder, Mr. Frederick Barker, arrived in Alexandria in 1845, and shortly afterwards was joined by his brother Henry. In those days, the only regular line of British steamers trading directly with Egypt was that of Messrs. Burns, McIver & Co., the forerunners of the now world-known Cunard line. The new firm were appointed agents for this line, and later they undertook the agency of the Wilson, the Papayanni, and other important lines. Besides their large shipping interests, Messrs. Barker & Co. have developed an extensive export business in cotton seed, which is purchased in the local markets and shipped to England, Hull being the principal port of entry. The sole partner in the business at the present day is Mr. H. E. Barker. The offices of the firm are situated in the Rue du Télégraphe Anglais.

R. STABILE & CO., Late T. CUMBO & CO.

FOR thirty-two years, T. Cumbo and R. Stabile carried on business as coal merchants in Alexandria under the style of T. Cumbo & Co. In 1903 the former died, and the present style was adopted, Mr. R. Stabile taking Mr. Antonio Fabri into partnership; while in 1908 Mr. Alberto Stabile was admitted as a partner in the firm. The importation of coal has gradually increased from 15,000 or 20,000 tons to 200,000 tons, two-thirds of which is Welsh coal. Much of the coal is used inland to provide energy for agricultural and irrigation purposes, and the firm have also large contracts with steamship owners for the supply of bunker coal. Their offices are situated in the Rue Adib, and they have large depôts, with a frontage of some 375 yards, on the coal quays. They employ a staff of some twenty overseers, and at times as many as four hundred coolies. The partners are British subjects, and have been in business in Alexandria practically all their lives. Mr. Robert Stabile is a member of the British Chamber of Commerce, and is also president of the Maltese Benevolent Society and an administrator of the Crown Brewery.

DURANT une période de trente-deux ans T. Cumbo et R. Stabile firent des affaires en charbons à Alexandrie sous la raison sociale T. Cumbo et Cie. En 1903, à la mort du premier, la firme actuelle fut adoptée, M. R. Stabile ayant appelé M. Antonio Fabri dans la Société; et en 1908 M. Alberto Stabile fut également admis a faire partie de la maison. L'importation du charbon alla continuellement en augmentant de 15.000 à 20.000 tonnes au début jusqu'à 200.000 tonnes, dont les deux-tiers sont de charbon du pays de Galles. Beaucoup de ce charbon est employé dans l'intérieur pour fournir l'énergie nécessaire aux travaux agricoles et d'irrigation; la maison possède en outre de gros contrats avec des armateurs pour la fourniture de charbon. Ses bureaux sont situés rue Adib, et elle possède de vastes dépôts sur les quais de charbon, ayant une façade de près de 375 yards. Elle emploie un personnel d'environ vingt surveillants et jusqu'à quatre cents portefaix. Les associés sont sujets anglais, et ont passé, pour ainsi dire, toute leur vie à Alexandrie dans les affaires. M. Robert Stabile est membre de la Chambre de Commerce Anglaise, président de la Société de Bienfaisance Maltaise, et administrateur de la Crown Brewery.

J. ROLO & CO.

THOUGH the firm of J. Rolo & Co. was established only as recently as April, 1907, the founders, Mr. Jacob Rolo and his three sons, Robert, Claude, and Ibram, have been associated with the commercial life of Alexandria for many years. Their business is that of bankers, coal merchants, and general importers and exporters. They import annually some 150,000 tons of Welsh and Newcastle coal, most of which is sent direct to the interior for use in pumping and cotton-ginning installations. Their depôts on the coaling quays have a total frontage of about 3,000 yards, and they have their own waggons, barges, and other facilities for carrying on the trade. Their other imports are chiefly rice, sugar, jute bags, and coffee. They export large quantities of cotton and cotton seed, derived partly from their own estates, and partly by purchase on the local markets. They are also interested in various agricultural development schemes, among which may be mentioned those on the Cheik Fadl estate of 7,000 feddans, now leased by the Société Générale des Sucreries et de la Raffinerie d'Egypte, and the Wadi Kom Ombo estate of 70,000 feddans, of which some 20,000 are under cotton, wheat, and barley. The offices of the firm are situated at No. 14, Rue Sesostris.

Mr. Jacob Rolo, the resident partner, was born in Cairo, and, after receiving a general education locally, he joined his father who was in business as an importer of indigo. In course of time he became a partner in the firm of Suares Frères, Cairo, and in connection with them, and with his sons and other partners, he started in Alexandria the firm of R. Rolo, Figli & Co., now in liquidation. Mr. Rolo is a director of the National Bank of the Wadi Kom Ombo estate, of the Alexandria Bonded Stores and Warehouses Company, and of the National Insurance Company of Egypt; he is chairman of the Société d'Entreprises Urbaines et Ruraies; and he is on the committee of the General Produce Association. He has a splendid residence in the Boulevard d'Allemagne. Mr. Robert Rolo and Mr. Ibram Rolo take an active part in the business, the former representing the firm on the Coal Association, of which he was vice-president. Mr. Claude Rolo has a French diploma as a civil engineer, and is at present engaged as an engineer and contractor under the Customs Department.

QUOIQUE la firme J. Rolo et Cie n'ait été fondée que récemment, soit en Avril, 1907, ses fondateurs, M. Jacob Rolo et ses trois fils, Robert, Claude et Ibram, ont participé à la vie commerciale d'Alexandrie pendant beaucoup d'années. Ils s'occupent d'affaires de banque, sont négociants en charbon, et font l'importation et l'exportation. Ils importent annuellement quelque 150.000 tonnes de charbon du pays de Galles et de Newcastle, dont une grande partie est dirigée sur l'intérieur pour l'usage des pompes et des usines d'égrenage. Leurs dépôts sur les quais de charbon ont une façade totale de 3.000 yards et la maison possède en propre des wagons, des chalands, et autres moyens de transport à l'usage de ses marchandises. Ils importent aussi principalement du riz, du sucre, des sacs en jute, et du café. Ils exportent en grande quantité du coton et des graines de coton,

provenant en partie de leurs propres domaines et en partie d'achats effectués sur le marché. Ils sont également intéressés dans diverses affaires agricoles parmi lesquelles mentionnons celle du domaine de Cheikh Fadl de 7.000 feddans, maintenant loué par la Société Générale des Sucreries et de la Raffinerie d'Egypte, et celle du domaine de Wadi Kom Ombo de 70.000 feddans, dont 20.000 sont semés en coton, blé et orge. Les bureaux de la Société sont situés au No. 14, rue Sésostris.

M. Jacob Rolo, l'associé résident en Egypte, est né au Caire, et après avoir reçu une éducation générale il s'unit à son père qui était dans les affaires comme importateur d'indigo. Dans la suite, il devint associé dans la maison Suarès Frères du Caire, et en union avec elle et ses propres fils, ainsi qu'avec d'autres associés il fonda la firme R. Rolo, Figli et Cie. actuellement en liquidation. M. Rolo est administrateur de la National Bank of Egypt, du domaine de Wadi Kom Ombo, de la Alexandria Bonded Stores and Warehouses Company, et de la National Insurance Company of Egypt; il est président de la Société d'Entreprises Urbaines et Rurales et fait partie du comité de l'Alexandria General Produce Association. Il possède une résidence splendide au boulevard d'Allemagne. M. Robert Rolo et M. Ibram Rolo prennent une part active dans les affaires; le premier représente la maison au sein de l'Association des importateurs de charbon, dont il a été le vice-président. M. Claude Rolo possède le diplôme français d'ingénieur civil, et est actuellement attaché au département de la douane, comme ingénieur et entrepreneur.

SALINAS BROTHERS.

Mr. Alfred Salinas, of the firm of Salinas Brothers, is a son of Mr. Jack Salinas, stockbroker, of Tuscany, Italy, who settled in Egypt many years ago and died in 1899. Born at Leghorn, Tuscany, on January 8, 1856, Mr. Alfred Salinas was educated in Alexandria. In 1871, he joined a stockbroker's office, and rose to the position of chief accountant. For a few years he was engaged by Benadi & Bonfanti, and afterwards with Mr. Laurens, stockbroker. With a partner he established himself as stockbroker and insurance representative, but retired to join the firm of Walmar, Borg & Co., as chief cashier, in 1879. After a period of service with the Alexandria Water Company, he set up in business as a stockbroker with his brother Charles, under the style of Fratelli Salinas, and the firm has been carried on with great success. He is a landed proprietor. Married to Hariot, a daughter of S. Ascarelli, of Rome, he has three sons—James, Walter, and Gino.

Mr. Charles Salinas was born in Alexandria on October 25, 1866, and was educated in Egypt. From 1882 to 1888 he was engaged in various stockbrokers' offices, and then inaugurated a business of his own, taking his brothers Alfred and Joseph in partnership in 1898. He has been a member of the committee of the Stockbrokers' Association for five years, and is a director of the Aronolite Society, and the Aly Pasha Civil Society.

M. Alfred Salinas, de la maison Salinas Frères, est un fils de M. Jack Salinas, agent de change, de Toscane (Italie), qui s'établit en Egypte il y a plusieurs années et mourut en 1899. Né à Leghorn, Toscane, le 8 janvier, 1856, M. Alfred Salinas a été éduqué à Alexandrie. En 1871 il entra dans un bureau d'agent de change et devint le chef comptable. Pendant plusieurs années il travailla chez Benadi et Bonfanti, et après chez M. Laurens, agent de change. Avec un associé il s'établit comme agent de change et représentant d'assurances, mais se retira pour entrer dans la maison de Walmar Borg et Cie, comme caissier, en 1879. Après une période de service à la Compagnie des Eaux d'Alexandrie il se fixa agent de change avec son frère Charles, sous la raison sociale de Frères Salinas et la maison eut beaucoup de succès. Il possède des terrains. Marié à Hariot, fille de feu S. Ascarelli, de Rome, il a trois fils: James, Walter et Guido.

M. Charles Salinas est né à Alexandrie, le 25 Octobre, 1866, et a fait son éducation en Egypte. De 1882 à 1888 il a été dans plusieurs bureaux d'agents de change, puis s'est installé, prenant ses frères Alfred et Joseph comme associés en 1898. Il a été membre du comité de l'Association des Agents de Change pendant cinq ans et est le directeur de la Société Aronolite et de la Société Civile Aly Pacha.

HASSABO MOHAMED & CO.

Founded in 1882 by Hassabo Mohamed, a son of the late Ahmad Mohamed, the business carried on by the above-named firm now occupies a prominent place in the commercial life of Alexandria. All branches of engineering are undertaken, and large quantities of machinery are stocked. Among other important agencies held by the Company is that for Davey, Paxman & Co., Ltd., a well-known English engineering firm. Hassabo Mohamed was born in 1861, and after his father's death in 1875, he applied himself to the study of mechanics, having already learned English and Arabic. He has been a regular exhibitor at various shows held in Egypt, and has been awarded seven gold medals, two silver medals, and many certificates. He is the inventor of two pumps for agricultural purposes, which compare very favourably with the best pumps of European manufacture for simplicity and efficiency. In 1905 Hassabo Bey Mohamed prepared the plans for the Mohamed Ali School of Arts at Alexandria, and he personally superintended the building of the school, the erection of the engines and machinery, and the arrangement of the various departments. When the school was inaugurated by H.H. the Khedive in February, 1908, the Bey was decorated for his services with the Order of Osmanieh. He had previously received the rank of Bey of the Montamaiz grade, and had been decorated with the Order of Mejidieh. The Bey is a member of the Alexandria Municipal Commission and is interested in several local charitable societies.

Fondée en 1882 par Hassabo Mohamed, un fils de feu Ahmad Mohamed, la maison porte seulement le nom ci-dessus qui occupe une place proéminente dans le monde commercial d'Alexandrie. Toutes les branches de l'art de l'ingénieur sont entreprises et de grandes quantités de machines sont en provision. Parmi les agences importantes tenues par la Compagnie il faut citer celle de Davey, Paxman & Co., Ltd. Une maison anglaise bien connue de l'art de l'ingénieur. Hassabo Mohamed est né, en 1861, et après la mort de son père en 1875 il s'appliqua à l'étude de la mécanique, ayant déjà appris l'anglais et l'arabe. Il a exposé dans plusieurs expositions en Egypte et a été récompensé de sept médailles d'or, deux d'argent et a reçu plusieurs certificats. Il a inventé deux pompes pour projets d'agriculture, comparées favorablement avec les meilleures pompes de manufacture européenne pour leur simplicité et leur efficacité. En 1905 Hassabo Bey Mohamed prépara les plans pour l'Ecole Mohamed Aly des Arts à Alexandrie et il surveilla lui-même la construction de l'école, l'érection des machines et l'arrangement de plusieurs départements. Lorsque l'école fut inaugurée par S. A. le Khédive, en fevrier, 1908, le Bey fut décoré pour ses services rendus, de l'Ordre de l'Osmanieh; auparavant il reçut le titre de "Hehad," Bey du grade de la Montamaiz, et il a été décoré de l'Ordre du Méjidieh. Le Bey est un membre de la Commission Municipa'e d'Alexandrie et il s'intéresse à diverses sociétés de charité.

NICOLAS E. TAMVACO.

Persevering hard work, extending over a period of nearly twenty-eight years, has been responsible for the present-day position of the firm of Nicolas E. Tamvaco, general merchants and shipping agents. The founder, a native of Alexandria, began life in the service of the Banque Transatlantique, with which institution he remained four years. In 1882 he started trading on his own account as an exporter of cotton seed, wheat, beans, and other produce. He acquired practically a monopoly of this trade in the south of France, and the business has since been so extended that the firm now have dealings with nearly all parts of the world, and especially with England. For the past twenty years the firm have devoted their attention also to shipping. They have secured various important agencies, including those for the Ellerman Line, the Leyland group of steamships (now known as the City Line), and the Westcott and Lawrence Line; and they handle the consignments of nearly all the Greek steamers entering the port of Alexandria. The firm own many valuable blocks of buildings in the town, including that in which their offices are situated at the corner of the Rue Sesostris and the Rue Stamboul, besides numerous plots of building land. They have large warehouses and depôts at Gabbary and at Minat el Basal.

Mr. Tamvaco was married in 1880 to Corinna de Syllas Zucco, and has three sons and two daughters. His eldest son, George, has recently been admitted to partnership, as has, also, Mr. Auguste Hasda, who for some time has fulfilled the duties of manager. Mr. Tamvaco's eldest daughter, Helen, is married to Mr. Alec. J. Choremi, of the well-known firm of Choremi, Benachi & Co.

La maison Nicolas E. Tamvaco, négociants et commissionnaires-expéditeurs, doit sa position actuelle à la persévérance et au travail acharné pendant une période de près de vingt-huit ans, de son fondateur, M. Nicolas E. Tamvaco, qui, né à Alexandrie, débuta au service de la Banque Transatlantique, auprès de laquelle il resta pendant quatre ans. En 1882 il s'établit pour son propre compte comme exportateur de grains, de coton, blé, fèves et autres produits. Il acquit, pour ainsi dire, le monopole de ces transactions dans le sud de la France, et ses affaires se sont jusqu'à présent tellement étendues que sa firme est actuellement en relation avec presque toutes les parties du monde, et surtout avec l'Angleterre. Durant ces vingt dernières années, sa maison a également porté son attention sur l'affrêtement. Elle s'est assuré de la représentation de diverses Compagnies importantes, telles que la "Ellerman Line," le "Leyland Group of Steamships" (actuellement la "City Line") et la "Westcott

& Lawrence Line," ainsi que de la consignation de presque tous les navires à vapeurs grecs qui touchent au port d'Alexandrie. La maison possède plusieurs immeubles de valeur, y compris celui où ses bureaux sont installés, au coin des rues Sésostris et Stamboul, ainsi que de nombreux lots de terrains à bâtir. Elle a de grands entrepôts et magasins au Gabbari et à Minet el Basal.

M. Tamvaco se maria en 1880 avec Mlle. Corinna de Syllas Zucco, et il eut trois fils et deux filles. Son fils aîné, Georges, a été récemment admis comme associé dans la maison, avec M. Aug. Hasda, qui pendant quelque temps a rempli les fonctions de directeur. La fille aînée de M. Tamvaco, Hélène, s'est mariée avec M. Alec J. Choremi, de la maison bien connue Choremi, Benachi et Cie.

THOS. HINSHELWOOD & CO., LTD.

THOS. HINSHELWOOD & CO., LTD., occupy a leading position in Egypt and the Soudan among the importers of oils, colours, varnishes, and paints, which they import direct from their well-known works in Glasgow.

In Egypt they have added to their interests an important and steadily growing branch business of general merchants and importers, and Government contractors. Their connection with this country was started by the appointment of a local agent some fifteen years ago, who was visited from time to time by the founder and head of the business, Mr. Thos. Hinshelwood. It was not long, however, before the desirability of establishing direct relations with the firm's customers became apparent, and in 1899 a branch was opened in Alexandria. Since then, under the able management of Mr. Peter Andrew Malone, the firm's business in Egypt and the Soudan has never retrogressed, and has arrived at its present important dimensions.

The firm, in addition to having extensive offices in Rue Sidi Abil Dardar, owns stores on their own freehold property. Further, a branch house at Cairo is about to be opened.

In 1906, the business was taken over by a private limited company with a capital of £100,000, Mr. Thos. Hinshelwood being the chairman and managing director, and Mr Malone the managing director in Egypt. The following gentlemen have seats on the board :—Messrs. Thos. Hinshelwood (chairman), Thos. Beattie, Peter A. Malone, and A. H. Pettigrew (of Pettigrew & Stephens, Ltd.), and Major John Shields (of Johnston, Shields & Co.).

The Company are agents for the Yost Typewriter Company, Ltd. ; the Library Bureau, Ltd. ; and the Belfast Ropework Company, Ltd.

THOS. HINSHELWOOD & CO., LTD., occupent une position prépondérante en Egypte et au Soudan parmi les importateurs d'huiles, de couleurs, vernis et peintures, qu'ils importent directement de leur fabrique bien connue à Glasgow.

En Egypte ils ont ajouté à leurs affaires ci-dessus énumérées une branche importante de plus en plus florissante pour toutes sortes de marchandises, marchands en général, importateurs et fournisseurs au Gouvernement. Leurs affaires dans ce pays commencèrent par l'installation d'un agent local il y a quelque quinze ans, lequel fut visité de temps a autre par le fondateur et chef de la maison, Monsieur Thos. Hinshelwood.

Il ne se passa pas longtemps, cependant, avant que l'avantage qu'établirent des relations directes avec les clients de la maison ne devint apparent, et en 1899 une succursale fut ouverte à Alexandrie. Depuis lors sous la direction capable de Monsieur Peter Andrew Malone, les affaires des maisons d'Egypte et du Soudan ont atteint leur importance actuelle.

La maison, en plus des bureaux importants dans la rue Sidi Abil Dardar, possède des magasins construits sur le terrain appartenant à la Compagnie elle-même ; de plus une succursale au Caire est sur le point d'être ouverte.

En 1906 le commerce fut repris par une société anonyme avec un capital de 100.000 livres, Monsieur Thos. Hinshelwood en étant le président et administrateur délégué, Monsieur Malone le directeur en Egypte.

Les personnes dont le nom suit font partie du conseil d'administration : Messieurs Thos. Hinshelwood (président), Thos. Beattie, Peter A. Malone, et A. H. Pettigrew (de Pettigrew & Stephens, Ltd.), et Major John Shields (de Johnstone, Shields & Co.).

Les agents de la Société sont : Yost Typewriter Co., Ltd. ; Library Bureau, Ltd. ; Belfast Ropework Co., Ltd.

CLAYTON GAS COMPANY OF EGYPT AND THE SOUDAN, LTD.

YEAR by year the researches of science are revealing the methods by which those periodical epidemics may be avoided that prove so terrible a scourge in Eastern cities, and governments and municipal authorities, fully realising the responsibility which rests upon them for taking every possible precaution to prevent the spread of disease, are always eager to avail themselves of the latest inventions for the practical application of those hygienic measures which science declares to be necessary for the preservation of the public health. This accounts for the success of the Clayton Gas Company of Egypt and the Soudan, Ltd., the latest of six similar companies in Europe, America, India, and the Far East which undertake the disinfection of all places where disease germs are likely to breed. The system which is employed to effect this end is very simple. Into an apartment which has previously been made as air-tight as possible the Clayton gas is pumped through flexible pipes by a small engine until the required percentage has been obtained. After a couple of hours, when the gas is withdrawn by means of the engine, the chamber is left completely sterilised and free from insects. This process has been so severely tested in other countries, that the International Quarantine Council has enforced its application to all ships coming to Egypt from infected ports. At the Tor quarantine station, during the return of the pilgrims from Mecca, every ship is disinfected before it is allowed to proceed, and arrangements have been made for erecting special chambers in which to disinfect shoes, leather belts, and other articles of clothing, which would be ruined by the old-fashioned high-pressure steam process. The Railway Administration, also, has erected a shed to enable its rolling stock to be disinfected from time to time, and in all probability another shed will be built in the Soudan for a similar purpose. Many tests have been made under the personal supervision of Mr. F. Mackinnon, the managing director of the Company in Egypt, for the Quarantine Board and the Railway authorities, and they have clearly demonstrated that the bacilli of plague, cholera, small-pox, typhus, typhoid, diphtheria, dysentery, tuberculosis, and all other contagious and infectious diseases are completely sterilised at a very low cost. The Alexandria Municipality has voted a sum for a further series of tests to be carried out under the surveillance of the medical officer. Thomas Cook & Son, Ltd., too, have given instructions for the whole of their flotilla to be disinfected at the beginning and end of each season in order to ensure the comfort and safety of their clients, and the Quarantine Board of Cyprus is negotiating at the present time for the installation of the system in the ports under its jurisdiction.

The Clayton Gas Company have working in Alexandria one steam launch fitted with two special fire pumps capable of delivering 1,500 gallons of water a minute through six branches, and three portable plants for house to house disinfection. At Port Said there is a steam launch similar to that stationed at Alexandria, and there are two portable plants. Suez is furnished with one launch, while Port Soudan has a floating plant specially adapted to its requirements. At Cairo there is a launch on the Nile and a powerful steam waggon, as well as the complete railway installation. The portable plants can easily be transferred by rail to any town or village in the interior where they may be required.

HESS & CO.

THIS German firm was established in Alexandria in 1865 by the late Mr. Christian Hess, and a house was opened in Cairo in 1869. In 1889, the founder died, and his eldest son, Fritz Hess, who was then manager, took over the business, assuming his brother Adolf, who was in charge of the Cairo house, as partner in 1903. The Cairo offices are in the Mousky quarter, and the Alexandria office in Rue de France (Im de Wakf). The firm are sole agents for Arthur Krupp, Berndorf (Austria) ; Gebr. Schoeller, Düren (Germany) ; Delmenhorster Linoleum-Fabrik, Delmenhorst (Germany) ; Natura Milch-Export-Gesellschaft, Waren (Germany); S. J. Arnheim, Berlin ; Actiengesellschaft für Anilinfabrikation, Berlin ; Nobles & Hoare, London ; and Walter R. Taylor & Co., Liverpool. The firm carries, amongst others, large stocks of the Rhine and Moselle wines of Adolph Huesgen, Traben & Trier, and the Bordeaux wines of Francis Weiss, Bordeaux.

Mr. Fritz Hess was born at Trieste on October 31, 1864, and was educated in Egypt and Germany. He received his commercial training in Trieste and London, and, returning to Egypt in 1886, joined his father, and is now head of the firm. He has two sons and one daughter by Clara, daughter of the late Rudolf Münch, Germany. Mr. Hess has been on the Committee of the Importers' Association for the past eight years, and is president of the German School at Alexandria, besides being on the committees of the Diaconess Hospital and the Evangelical Church.

B. NATHAN & CO.

THE firm of B. Nathan & Co., exporters and importers, are successors to A. Merton & Co., who were established in Manchester in 1878. In 1889 Mr. B. Nathan took his nephew, Mr. Edward Nathan, into partnership, and in the same year the latter came to Cairo to open a branch of the business. The Alexandria branch was opened in 1894, and two years later Mr. Edward Nathan went with the British Army to the Soudan, where he opened further branches at Khartoum, El-Dueim (on the White Nile), and Wad Medani (on the Blue Nile). These branches export quantities of gum and ivory. Whilst in the Soudan, Mr. Nathan was partly instrumental in establishing a branch of the National Bank, of which he was appointed manager with Mr. Wynch as co-manager. Mr. Nathan retired in 1904, and the sole proprietor of the firm is now Mr. B. Nathan, a son of the











THOS. HINSHELWOOD & CO., LTD.

1. Home Factory, North View.
2. South View.
3. View from Hall, General Offices.
4. Entrance Hall to General Offices.

late Mr. John Nathan, of Kent. Born at Manchester in 1851 and educated there, Mr. B. Nathan was for some years with A. Merton & Co., before taking over the business. He is a member of the British Chamber of Commerce, Alexandria.

DAVIES BRYAN & CO.

THE success which has attended the enterprise of Davies Bryan & Co., in Egypt, has been chiefly due to the fact that the principals have directed their efforts to upholding the strictly honourable business traditions of the old country. The founder, Mr. John Davies Bryan, formerly carried on a flourishing business, in partnership with his brother Edward, as Bryan Brothers, drapers, in Carnarvon, North Wales. In 1886 he was advised medically, on account of his weak state of health, to seek a more genial climate, and finding the climate of Egypt to be beneficial, and noting also that there existed a certain demand in Cairo for British-made goods, he determined to settle in this country. He had many difficulties to face, for British manufacturers had little confidence in the future of the country, especially as the policy of the British Government with regard to the duration of the Occupation was so unsettled; whilst at the same time his determination to organise the business on home lines, with fixed and fair prices, and a rigid observance of Sunday closing, brought him into conflict with the customs of this country, and led his friends to predict his early failure. He remained, however, true to his principles, and little by little his customers began to appreciate them.

In February, 1887, he invited his youngest brother, Joseph, who was then a student at the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, to join him, and with his help the venture prospered beyond all expectations. The single shop in front of the New (now the Continental) Hotel had to be enlarged, and in 1888 it was decided to sell the Carnarvon business and open in Alexandria. Mr. Edward Davies Bryan came out to Egypt, but in November of the same year, before the new branch had been properly organised, Mr. John Davies Bryan, the founder and soul of the business, was taken ill and died of typhoid. He lies buried in the Protestant Cemetery at the foot of the Mokattam Hills, near Cairo. He was greatly respected for his straightforward dealings, and much beloved by his intimate friends for his lofty character. He had considerable literary ability, and a series of impressions of Egypt contributed by him to the *Geneal* newspaper have since appeared in book form.

His untimely death—for he was but thirty-three years of age—involved a great loss to the firm, for of the surviving partners one brother had had but little experience in business, and the other was entirely new to the country. Disaster might easily have resulted, but trusting to the soundness of the principles laid down for the conduct of the business and to the efficacy of hard work, they braved and eventually surmounted the difficulties, and thenceforward the history of the firm became one of solid progress. Additions had to be made to the Cairo premises from time to time, and even now there is hardly sufficient scope for the volume of business. In Alexandria, they were fortunate enough to secure an old block of buildings in the Rue Cherif Pasha, in one of the best positions in the town. In the work of rebuilding they sought the help of Mr. Robert Williams, F.R.I.B.A., a London architect, who has since settled in Egypt. The façade of the present handsome building is of polished red Aberdeen granite and Doulting freestone from Somersetshire; and handsomely carved in relief are to be seen the national emblems—the rose, thistle, shamrock, and leek.

In Cairo they have just purchased one of the most eligible sites in the metropolis—the land known as the Beyerlé property, with façades on Sharia el-Manakh, Sharia el-Maghraby, and Sharia Emad ed-Din, and are about to erect thereon new premises embodying the most modern ideas in shop-building. Fuller details of this latest departure, together with an elevation of the proposed constructions, are given under the Cairo section.

After the reconquest of the Soudan, Davies Bryan & Co. secured an excellent plot of land in the centre of Khartoum, and there built a commodious shop, where they are now carrying on a most successful branch.

THE ORIENTAL CARPET MANUFACTURERS, LTD.

THE origin and renown of Oriental carpets can be traced back almost to the dawn of civilisation. Their antiquity is beyond question, and their general use has kept pace and grown with the advent of centuries, undisturbed by the vagaries of fashion. Their durability, the fineness of the wools employed, and their marvellous execution in design and colours, arranged and blended with the utmost skill, have imparted to Eastern carpets the incontestable charm they possess.

In more recent times the demand for Eastern carpets had increased to such an extent that to meet it the industry, confined till then to a limited number of districts, had to be started in many others until it gradually spread over Asia Minor. The increase of production which resulted from this new development unfortunately led to a deterioration of quality and inartistic effects in the colouring of the carpets, which, for a time, seriously impaired the reputation of Oriental carpets. In view of this threatened decadence of Turkish textile art, it became imperative that some step should be taken to raise the industry to its pristine standard of excellence. The manufacturers of Turkey carpets were not slow to perceive that singly their efforts would prove unavailing, and they therefore came to the conclusion that their only chance of success lay in common action.

With this object in view, five of the most important carpet firms in Smyrna, in conjunction with a sixth possessing an extensive plant for spinning and dyeing yarn, combined and formed an English company under the Limited Liability Act, with a capital of £400,000, under the title of "The Oriental Carpet Manufacturers, Ltd." The success which has attended their endeavours has clearly proved that the scheme was well worthy the time spent in carrying it out. The finest wools are now being procured by agents of the Company in the centres of production in Asia Minor and Persia. A spinning factory, thoroughly up-to-date in every respect, prepares the yarns needed for the different qualities, and the Company produce and distribute them to their agencies in the interior of Anatolia. The Company use only the fastest dyes.

In order to be in a position to satisfy the extensive demand which has set in for its fabrics, the Company have raised the number of their looms to 20,000, scattered throughout thirty districts of Asia Minor. This necessitates the constant employment of not less than 100,000 weavers, supervised and guided by experts.

A nucleus of skilled artists has gradually been formed around an enlightened administration, and the Company at this moment possesses an unequalled collection of 8,000 designs, harmonious in colour and of skilled workmanship, in which the adherence to classical and traditional treatment has been successfully maintained. In short, no sacrifice has been spared to bring about an artistic revival, and a careful reproduction of the beautiful effects of Indian and Persian fabrics so seductive in their characteristics and symbolisms.

Agencies have been established by the Company in the principal European capitals, especially in the Levant. Their stocks in Cairo and Constantinople form an attractive exhibition well worth a visit. At Smyrna, too, the Company's extensive stores and factories, as well as the permanent display of beautiful carpets, constitute one of the principal attractions of that town. Visitors are cordially invited to inspect the Company's stocks, when they will realise the immense strides towards excellence which have been made in Oriental carpet manufacture since the Company set itself the task of regenerating the industry.

LA renommée des tapis orientaux remonte à la plus haute antiquité et leur usage n'a fait que croître avec les siècles jusqu'à la demande énorme de ces derniers temps. Leur durabilité, la beauté de leurs laines, de leurs dessins et de leur coloris en font le charme incontestable. Mais les temps ne sont plus où l'ouvrier pouvait consacrer des années à la confection d'une pièce; l'industrie périclitait, l'art se perdait dans la lutte ardente pour l'existence.

Subordonnant leur indépendance personnelle au noble but du relèvement de cette belle industrie, les grands négociants de tapis de Smyrne unirent leurs efforts, leur ancienne expérience, et leurs moyens puissants dans la formation d'une société qui s'intitula "The Oriental Carpet Manufacturers, Ltd." Leur succès rapide démontra clairement combien l'œuvre était belle et digne d'être poursuivie. Les laines furent achetées par des agents de la Société dans les centres mêmes de production, en Asie Mineure et en Perse. Une filature modèle, leur propriété, les prépare avec des soins techniques minutieux pour en graduer l'emploi aux diverses qualités de tapis. Une teinturerie fut établie par eux où les procédés anciens sont employés sous un contrôle rigoureux qui leur permet de garantir sans réserve la solidité des couleurs de leurs produits.

Vingt mille métiers travaillent sans répit dans les divers districts de l'Asie Mineure et emploient 100.000 ouvrières, qui, sous une étroite surveillance, ont produit des merveilles d'art.

Un noyau d'artistes s'est vite formé autour d'une direction éclairée, une collection de 8.000 dessins fut créée, des pièces merveilleuses et rares furent achetées pour servir de modèles dans la renaissance de l'industrie; en un mot, aucun sacrifice n'a coûté, et c'est avec confiance que l'on envisage son avenir, parce que l'entreprise a donnée ses preuves et que celles-ci ont été couronnées de succès. La Société a établi des agences dans les principales capitales de l'Europe mais elle a particulièrement favorisé le Levant lui-même. Ses dépôts du Caire et de Constantinople possèdent de belles et riches collections dignes d'être vues. A Smyrne, ses immenses dépôts, ses ateliers, et son exposition permanente de chef-d'œuvres y font le plus grand attrait de la ville, et l'on peut, en une courte visite, toujours accueillie avec plaisir, s'y faire une idée de l'industrie orientale.



DAVIES BRYAN & CO.

1. Premises in Cairo.
2. The late John Davies Bryan.
3. Edward Davies Bryan.
4. Joseph Davies Bryan.
5. Premises in Rue Cherif Pasha, Alexandria.

S. STEIN.

THE story of the well-known establishments of S. Stein is one relating the realisation of practical ideals. Founded in Cairo, in 1863, by the late Mr. S. Stein, the business has developed from modest beginnings as a ready-made clothing store to its present-day activities as a wholesale and retail house, with branches in Alexandria, Constantinople, Galata, Stamboul, Salonika, and Tantah, and a huge manufacturing base in Vienna.

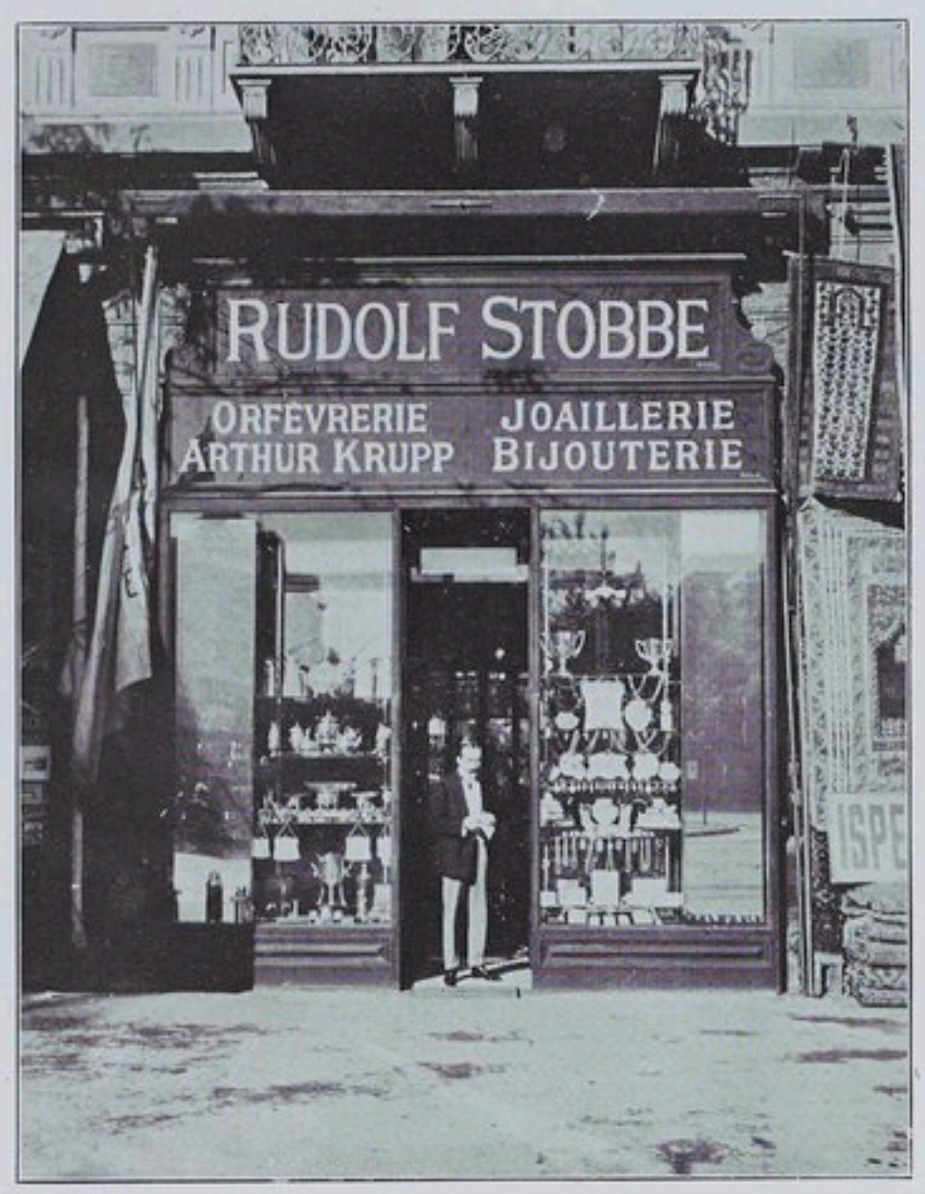
The Alexandria branch was opened in 1875, and now occupies an imposing building at the corner of the Place Mohamed Ali and the Rue des Sœurs. It has a total frontage of 200 yards, and in few warehouses in the country can be seen such a lavish array of goods of all descriptions as are displayed in its windows and various departments. Special representatives in London, Paris, and Berlin are engaged in order that the house may be supplied regularly with the latest creations of fashion, and the stock is so continually replenished that customers may rely upon all their purchases being fresh and in good condition. Ladies', gentlemen's, and children's requirements, however exacting, are invariably met, and the firm have the satisfaction of knowing that their *clientèle* includes numerous customers who have dealt with them for many years. The secret of their success is that they use every endeavour to secure that in making a new customer they make a new friend.

Further details regarding the history of the business are to be found in the Cairo section of this volume.

L'HISTOIRE de l'établissement bien connu S. Stein est le récit de la réalisation pratique de l'idéal. Fondée au Caire, en 1863, par feu M. S. Stein, la maison, qui eut les modestes origines d'un magasin de costumes confectionnés, s'est développée jusqu' à son activité actuelle de grande maison de gros et de détail, ayant des succursales à Alexandrie, Constantinople, Galata, Stamboul, Salonique et Tantah, et une immense fabrique à Vienne.

La succursale d'Alexandrie fut ouverte en 1875, et elle occupe à présent un imposant édifice formant le coin de la Place Mahomed Ali avec la rue des Sœurs, ayant une façade totale de deux cents yards environ, et peu de magasins en Egypte présentent un si grand étalage de marchandises comme il est donné d'en admirer dans ses vitrines et ses rayons. Des représentants spéciaux à Londres, Paris, et Berlin, sont chargés de fournir les magasins des dernières créations de la mode, et le stock est si bien renouvelé que les clients peuvent être sûrs que la marchandise qu'ils achètent est toujours fraîche et bien conditionnée. On y trouve toujours les articles les plus variés pour dames, messieurs et enfants, quelque soit l'exigence de l'acheteur, et la maison a la satisfaction de compter sur une clientèle qui se fournit chez elle depuis de longues années. Le secret de son succès consiste à faire son possible pour s'assurer dans chaque nouveau client un nouvel ami.

On trouvera des détails supplémentaires sur l'historique de la maison dans la partie de ce volume qui traite du Caire.



THE PREMISES OF RUDOLF STOBBE, OPERA SQUARE, CAIRO.

RUDOLF STOBBE.

A NATIVE of Graudenz, Mr. Rudolf Stobbe received his technical education as a jeweller in the best workshops of Berlin, Paris, and Vienna. Recognising that his native land held out no prospects for the rapid advance of a young man, Mr. Stobbe left for abroad at the age of twenty-eight years. Five years later, in 1885, he began business on his own account as a jeweller at Alexandria, and believing there was a great future in the copying of the ancient art of Egypt in gold and precious stones, he devoted himself to this class of work. By dint of steady application he speedily established a reputation throughout Egypt, and his workshops at 29, Rue Cherif Pasha are much frequented by



RUDOLF STOBBE'S PREMISES AT ALEXANDRIA.



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S. STEIN.

1. Premises in Place Mahomed Ali.
2. Entrance Hall.
3. Gentlemen's Clothing Department.
4. Tantah Premises.
5. Ladies' and Drapery Department.

those who admire the choicest products of the jeweller's art. Modern work in gold, silver, and precious stones in his own designs are as much a feature of his establishment as the Egyptian copies with which he won his reputation.

Mr. Stobbe numbers amongst his regular customers members of the British royal family and the British aristocracy, his largely varied stock at all times attracting rich buyers. In his workshops he employs thirty specialists and eight native workmen, under his own supervision. These celebrated workshops should be seen by all visitors to Alexandria. In 1904 he was awarded the Médaille pour l'Art et la Science by the Turkish Government. In the same year he opened a branch establishment at Cairo. It is situated in the Place de l'Opéra, and is under the management of Mr. Sheffield.

Natif de Grandenz, M. Rudolf Stobbe reçut une éducation technique de bijoutier dans les meilleurs ateliers de Berlin, Paris et Vienne. Reconnaissant que dans son pays natal il ne pourrait pas avancer rapidement comme jeune homme, M. Stobbe partit pour l'étranger à l'âge de vingt-huit ans. Cinq ans plus tard, en 1885, il commença des affaires à son compte comme bijoutier à Alexandrie. Croyant à un bel avenir en copiant les objets d'art égyptiens en or et en pierres précieuses, il se mit au travail. Par grande énergie, il acquit rapidement sa réputation partout en Egypte, et ses magasins au No. 29 de la rue Chérif Pacha sont très fréquentés par ceux qui admirent le choix et le goût des objets artistiques. Ses travaux modernes en or, en argent, en pierres précieuses de son goût sont les traits caractéristiques de sa maison, les copies égyptiennes lui ont valu sa réputation. M. Stobbe compte parmi sa clientèle des membres de la famille royale d'Angleterre, et celle de l'aristocratie anglaise. Son grand choix très varié lui attire continuellement de riches acheteurs. Dans ses ateliers il emploie trente spécia istes et huit ouvriers indigènes sous sa direction. Ses ateliers célèbres devraient être visités par tous ceux qui se rendent à Alexandrie. En 1904 il reçut la Médaille pour l'Art et la Science, offerte par le Gouvernement turc. Dans la même année il ouvrit une succursale au Caire. Elle est située à la Place de l'Opéra et est sous la direction de M. Sheffield.

GRAMOPHONE COMPANY, LTD.

The Egyptian branch of the Gramophone Company, Ltd., whose trade marks "His Master's Voice" and "The Angel Writing" are so well known, was opened in July, 1905, by Mr. Vassallo, who had visited the country on several occasions as a representative of the Company's branch in Milan. He was shortly afterwards superseded by Mr. K. F. Vogel, who had had many years' experience with the Company in Italy, Switzerland, and Austria. Up to that time no serious attempts had been made to record the voices of native artistes, although it is true that a few phonographic cylinders were produced from the voice of the late well-known exponent of Arabic music, Abdou el Hamouli. Mr. Vogel fully realised the importance of making Arabic records. The Oriental has a great love for music, and, though the long-drawn notes and apparently monotonous cadences of the native songs do not appeal to Western ears, the Arabs themselves hold their artistes in high esteem, and no social function is complete without the services of one or more of them. Some of the more noted singers were approached, including Cheick Youssef el Manialawi, Mohamed Effendi el Sabegh, and Abd el Hai Effendi, and the success of the records was immediate and extraordinary. More adequate premises were taken in the Rue Stamboul, Alexandria, and a large staff was engaged to cope with the growing business. To-day there is hardly any town in Upper or Lower Egypt or the Soudan in which the Company have not an agency. In Cairo the Company have a spacious retail shop in the Continental Hotel Buildings. In the spring of 1908 the Company were appointed *fournisseurs* to H.H. the Khedive, who was pleased also to accept a gramophone and a selection of Arabic and European records. At their depôt in Alexandria the Company hold a stock of instruments and records sufficient to meet all demands for a period of three months. What this means will be more fully realised when it is borne in mind that the records are in seven different languages and dialects—English, French, Italian, Greek, Turkish, and Egyptian, Syrian and Arabic—so cosmopolitan is the population of the country.

La Branche égyptienne de la "Gramophone Co. Ltd.," dont les marques "His Master's Voice" et "The Angel Writing," sont si avantageusement connues, fut ouverte en juillet, 1905, par M. Vassallo, qui, en sa qualité de représentant de la Compagnie à Milan, avait visité l'Egypte à plusieurs reprises. Il fut, peu de temps après, remplacé par M. K. F. Vogel, qui avait acquis une grande expérience en ce genre d'affaires au service de la Compagnie en Italie, en Suisse, et en Autriche-Hongrie. Jusqu'à cette époque aucune tentative sérieuse n'avait été faite pour enregistrer la voix des artistes indigènes, quoique, cependant, quelques cylindres phonographiques aient été impressionnés par Abdou el Hamouli, le chanteur arabe bien connu. M. Vogel comprit immédiatement l'importance qu'il pouvait y avoir à enregistrer la musique arabe. L'oriental aime en effet beaucoup la musique, et, quoique les notes traînantes et la cadence apparemment monotone du chant indigène ne rappellent en rien les airs occidentaux, les Arabes tiennent leurs artistes en haute estime, et aucune cérémonie n'est complète sans la participation de ces derniers. Quelques uns des chanteurs les plus renommés, tels que le Cheik Youssef el Manialawi, Mohamed Effendi el Sabegh, et Abd el Hai Effendi se sont prêtés à la reproduction phonographique de leur voix, et le succès vint, immédiat et extraordinaire. Un local adapté aux exigences de cette grosse affaire fut pris dans la rue Stamboul, à Alexandrie, et un grand personnel fut engagé, pour tenir tête au travail croissant. A l'heure actuelle il n'existe que peu de villes de l'Egypte ou du Soudan qui n'aient une agence de la Compagnie. Au Caire, la Compagnie a un spacieux magasin de détail dans l'immeuble de l'Hôtel Continental. Au début de l'année 1908, la Compagnie fut nommée fournisseur de S. A. le Khédive, et ce dernier fut prié d'accepter un gramophone et une collection de disques arabes et européens. Dans son dépôt d'Alexandrie, la Compagnie conserve un stock d'instruments et de disques suffisant pour faire face à toutes les demandes pendant une période de trois mois. Peut-on prétendre à plus, quand on songe que les disques sont édités en sept lafigues différentes: anglais, français, italien, grec, turc et dialectes arabe, égyptien et syrien pour répondre à la demande de la population cosmopolite qui habite le pays?

CAV. GIUSEPPE GIULIO MATTIOLI, managing director of the Industrial Building Company of Egypt, and of the Egyptian Sanitary Engineering Company, came to Alexandria in November, 1904, and established himself as an engineer and architect. Up to the time he accepted his present appointment, he was responsible for the erection of the Savoy Palace Hotel, the Israelite Temple, and several other important buildings in Alexandria; and previous to his arrival in Egypt he was engaged on numerous large engineering contracts, such as the construction of the Lecco-Calico Railway and the Galatz-Berlat Railway, on the Continent. A son of the late Francis Mattioli, of Bologna, Italy, he was born in 1866, and was educated at the Polytechnic College, Bologna, securing his diploma in 1887. From 1887 to 1889 he served as an officer in an Italian artillery regiment. Mr. Mattioli, who is married to Elena, a daughter of Samuel Rieti, of Ferrara, takes a great interest in the affairs of the local Italian Community. He is president of the Italian Colonial Institute, and is a member of various committees, including that of the Dante Alighieri Society.

XENOPHON GIOVANIDI is a son of the late Jean Giovanidi, who settled in Egypt in 1816, and died in 1895 at the age of ninety-five. Born in Alexandria in 1857, and educated locally, he entered his father's coal business, and in course of time assisted in opening up a considerable area of land for cotton cultivation, and in developing some valuable building property in the town. He is vice-president of the Greek Community of Ibrahimieh, Ramleh, and has recently presented a fine church, which cost £4,000, to that community. His wife, Fanny, whom he married in 1897, is a daughter of Avusti Politi, of Athens.

M. Xénophon Giovanidi, fils de feu Jean Giovanidi, qui se fixa en Egypte en 1816 et mourut en 1895 à l'âge de quatre-vingt quinze ans, naquit à Alexandrie en 1857, et éduqué là-bas, il entra dans le commerce de charbon de son père, puis plus tard l'aida à préparer du terrain pour cultiver le coton et construisit des bâtiments en ville. Il est le vice-président de la communauté grecque de l'Ibrahimieh et offrit dernièrement à celle-ci une belle église de £4,000. Sa femme, Fanny, qu'il épousa en 1897, est la fille de Avusti Politi, d'Athènes.

ADOLPHE BOGDADLY has rendered signal services to the cause of agriculture in Egypt, and last year (1908) was created a Chevalier du Mérite Agricole by the French Government. A British subject, he was born in Alexandria, and after receiving a primary education locally, he entered the Gymnasium at Gratz, in Austria. He continued his studies at the Agricultural Institute at Vienna, and in 1897 received his diploma as an agricultural engineer. The two following years he spent in travel, visiting the chief agricultural districts in Austria, Hungary, and Germany, and he then returned to Egypt to take charge of the agricultural lands belonging to his father, the late Yacoub E. Bogdadly. He made several valuable experiments in cotton growing, fruit culture, and the raising of cereal and other crops, and in the application of artificial manures to various soils. He has placed the results upon record in various articles which he has written. A long article from his pen on "Cotton in Egypt" appeared in one of the issues of the *African World*, and he has also written studies entitled "La Culture des Aurantiacées en Egypte" and

"La Bactériologie dans l'Agriculture." He is vice-president of l'Union Syndicale des Agriculteurs d'Egypte, which he was partly instrumental in founding; he is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, the Société d'Histoire Naturelle; and he is on the Conseil Agricole of the Ecoles des Arts et Métiers. He is one of the expert advisers on agricultural matters to the Austrian Consular Court. He possesses an agricultural and technical bureau, his object being to develop in Egypt all modern methods for the cultivation and improvement of the soil.

M. ADOLPHE BOGDADLY a rendu des services marquants en agriculture en Egypte, et l'année dernière (1908) il a été créé Chevalier du Mérite Agricole par le Gouvernement français. Sujet anglais, il est né à Alexandrie, et après avoir reçu une éducation locale primaire il entra au gymnase à Gratz en Autriche. Il continua ses études à l'Institut Agricole à Vienne, et en 1897 il reçut son diplôme d'ingénieur agricole. Les deux années qui suivirent il voyagea, visita les districts agricoles les plus importants en Autriche-Hongrie et en Allemagne. Puis il entra en Egypte pour s'occuper des terrains agricoles appartenant à son pere, feu Yacoub E. Bogdadly. Il fit plusieurs expériences de valeur dans la culture du coton, dans la croissance de la plante, dans la hausse des céréales et dans la récolte, et dans l'application d'engrais artificiels à plusieurs sols. Il en a décrit le résultat dans plusieurs articles. Il a écrit un long article sur le coton en Egypte, qui apparut en publication dans l'*African World*; il a aussi écrit des études appelées. "La Culture des Aurantiacées en Egypte" et "La Bactériologie dans l'Agriculture." Il est le vice-président de l'Union Syndicale des Agriculteurs d'Egypte, de laquelle il a été, pour ainsi dire, l'instrument principal; il est membre de la Khedivial Agricultural Society; de la Société d'Histoire Naturelle; il est du Conseil Agricolé de l'Ecole des Arts et Métiers. Il est l'un des experts conseillers pour les causes d'agriculture au Consulat d'Autriche. En outre il est propriétaire de plusieurs exploitations agricoles importantes. Il possède un bureau technique et agricole dont le but est de développer en Egypte les applications modernes pour la culture; il s'occupe de projets pour l'amélioration des terres et expertises.

ARISTIDE R. GIRO, a British subject, is a son of the late Athanassi Giro, who came over from Turkey and settled in Egypt as a merchant in 1813. Mr. Giro was born in Alexandria in 1844, and at the age of fifteen entered upon a commercial career. He has now a flourishing business as a merchant and general importer, and is one of the largest landed proprietors in the town. He married in 1870, Athenà, a daughter of the late Gerassimo Kakuri, a former merchant of Missolonghi, Greece, and has two sons, Athanassi and Adrian, who are assisting him in the conduct of his business.

M. ARISTIDE R. GIRO, sujet anglais, est fils de feu Athanassi Giro, qui vint de la Turquie pour s'établir en Egypte comme marchand en 1813. M. Giro est né à Alexandrie en 1844, et à quinze ans entra dans la carrière commerciale. Il a maintenant une situation florissante et est importateur; il est un des possesseurs des plus grands propriétaires de terrains de la ville. Il se maria en 1870, à Athènes, à la fille de feu Gerassimo Kakuri, marchand grec, a Missolonghi. Il a deux fils: Athanassi, et Adrien qui l'aident à diriger sa maison.

JEAN C. PALÉOLOGO, manager of the business and properties of Mr. Antoine J. Antoniades, was born in Lemnos (Turkey) in 1852. His great-grandfather, Anastasios, was the admiral of the local commercial fleet, which, during the Greek Revolution (1821–1827) was transformed into warships, and rendered valuable services to the Greek cause; and, as a consequence, the Turkish Government banished him from all Turkish territory, and confiscated his large estates in Lemnos. He died in 1828 in Syra (Greece), and was buried, with great honour, by the Greek Government. Mr. Jean Paléologo's father came to Egypt, where he carried on business in various articles for several years. Mr. Paléologo himself came to Egypt in 1863, and joined his uncle, Nicolas Giro, a Cairo merchant, importing chiefly Manchester goods, and exporting Soudanese produce. Owing to the trouble in the Soudan, the business had to be closed, and in 1886 Mr. Paléologo started business on his own account as a commission agent, dealing in metals and building materials at Zaptieh, Cairo. In 1896, he accepted power of attorney for the firm of Mr. Antoniades. He managed the business with great ability, and enjoys the confidence, not only of Mr. Antoniades, but of his sisters, who own much property in Egypt. Mr. Paléologo is married to Mme. Euterpe, a daughter of the late Theofani Moscoudi, a former leading merchant of Alexandria and a great benefactor of his native island, Lemnos. He has six children. He is a member of the committee which manages the schools, hospital, churches, and other similar establishments of the Greek Community in Alexandria, and is also very popular among members of the international colony.

JEAN C. PALÉOLOGO, directeur des affaires, et régisseur des propriétés de M. Antoine J. Antoniades, est né à Lemnos (Turquie) en 1852. Son bisaïeul, Anastasios, était amiral de la flotte commerciale et locale, qui pendant la révolution grecque (1821-1827) fut transformée en flotte de guerre, et rendit des services importants à la cause grecque. Comme conséquence de ces services le Gouvernement turc le bannit du territoire turc, et confisqua les grands biens qu'il possédait à Lemnos. Il mourut en 1828 à Syra (Grèce), et fut enterré, avec beaucoup d'honneurs, par le Gouvernement grec. Son père vint en Egypte, où il s'occupa d'affaires diverses pendant plusieurs années. M. J. C. Paléologo lui-même vint en Egypte en 1863, et rejoignit son oncle, Nicolas Giro, négociant au Caire, qui s'occupait principalement de l'importation des articles de Manchester, et de l'exportation des produits soudanois. Par suite des troubles qui se produisirent au Soudan, les affaires durent être cessées, et en 1886 M. Paléologo s'établit pour son propre compte comme agent commissionnaire en métaux et matériaux de construction à Zaptieh, le Caire. En 1896, il accepta le poste de fondé de pouvoirs de la maison Antoniades. Il dirigea les affaires avec une grande habileté, et obtint la confiance, non seulement de M. Antoniades, mais de ses sœurs, qui possèdent en propre de grandes propriétés en Egypte. M. Paléologo s'est marié avec Mme. Euterpe, fille de feu Téofani Moscoudi, un des anciens négociants d'Alexandrie, grand bienfaiteur de son île natale, Lemnos. Il a six enfants. Il est membre du comité qui dirige les écoles, l'hôpital, les églises et autres établissements similaires de la communauté grecque d'Alexandrie; il est également très connu parmi les membres de la colonie internationale.



VIEWS IN PORT SAID.

TOWNS OF LOWER EGYPT.

PORT SAID AND SUEZ.

PREVIOUS to the commencement of the construction of the great canal which shortens the sea voyage from Europe to India and Australia, Port Said was merely a small and insignificant fishing village. It possesses, therefore, no archæological interests. The locality is, besides, destitute of all scenic charm, the town being situated on a flat sandy beach, washed by the Mediterranean Sea But since the work on the Canal was begun in 1859 by M. de Lesseps, Port Said has risen rapidly in importance until now it ranks as one of the world's chief ports of call and coaling stations for vessels. All the great steamer lines between Europe and the Middle and Far East halt at this the Mediterranean gateway of the Canal, and most of them replenish their bunkers from the huge stacks of coal brought to the spot by colliers. With steamers of every tonnage, up to the huge liners of the Eastern and Australian mail companies, continually passing in and out of the Canal night and day, the harbour is an ever busy scene. (The volume of shipping, which is mostly British, is given in the article on "Ports and Lighthouses" included elsewhere in this volume.) Two long piers, or moles, projecting north-east and north into the Mediterranean, form the entrance to the harbour and protect the fairway from the silt continually drifting eastwards from the Damietta mouth of the Nile. The eastern of these two arms of massive masonry is about one mile long, the other one and a half miles long. The harbour has an area of some 600 acres, which is kept clear of silt and mud by constant dredging ; and from the inner anchorage (Bassin Ismail) branch off the three sheltered basins in which vessels discharge and load. One of these sheltered basins is designated Bassin de l'Arsenal. On the western mole, some 300 yards from the shore, and fitly dominating this entrance to the waterway, stands the statue of De Lesseps. On the shore end of this mole rises the great lighthouse, a massive construction of concrete, nearly 180 feet in height, whose electric lights have a range of 24 miles.

The name "Port Said" is, of course, derived from that of the Khedive, Said Pasha, from whom the concession for the construction of the canal was obtained by De Lesseps. The town has grown with the business of the great waterway, and now possesses a population of about fifty thousand, of whom perhaps fifteen thousand are Europeans. Entirely of modern construction, it is laid out with regular streets and contains a principal square, occupying ground which has been formed of the earth dug out in making the Canal. There are several banks, a number of large modern hotels, and some cafés chantants, including a somewhat noted casino, in the Rue de Commerce. Commerce dominates the town, and the principal buildings are mostly devoted to business purposes. The chief of these are the handsome offices of the Canal Company, which overlook the harbour. A tramway runs from the harbour through the town and the Arab quarter north-westwards to the Arab cemetery, where the underground tombs are constructed of masonry to resist the water which underlies the soil at a shallow depth.

While the steamers are taking in coal at Port Said the passengers generally land to avoid the inconveniences attending this operation—to become the more or less amused and willing victims of importunate vendors of doubtful cigarettes, picture postcards, pseudo curios, and other trifles. Port Said is connected with both Cairo and Suez by rail, *viâ* Ismailia (46 miles), the line running due south, along the embankment between the Canal and Lake Menzaleh, and is twelve hours' sail from Jaffa.

At the southern extremity of the Canal are the harbour and town of Suez, at the head of the gulf of that name. Apart from its situation at the southern entrance of the great waterway to which its name has been given, this place has small importance. It has, however, grown, with the construction of the Canal, from a small Arab village into a town of some thirteen thousand inhabitants, with modern commercial and other buildings of considerable size, also large docks. The principal buildings are the Customs Office, Government and French hospitals, and English and French churches. Owing, however, to the railway connection between Port Said and Cairo, the trade of Suez has not developed with the growth of the Canal traffic. The climate is salubrious and the affairs of the town are admirably administered by a governor. The town proper is connected with the harbour at the entrance of the Canal by a stone pier, two miles long and 50 feet wide, which forms an agreeable promenade ; and on an artificial island at the end stands the lighthouse, also a bust to Lieut. Waghorn, the pioneer of rapid intercourse between Great Britain and the East. A hill to the north of the town, on which stands a kiosk of the Khedive, is believed to have been the site of the fortress Clysma, erected in the Ptolemaic era, but of which no recognisable remains have been discovered in the vicinity. From this eminence a splendid view is obtained of the surrounding scenery, including the picturesque high red cliffs of Gebel Attaka, bounding the anchorage on the right, and the mountains on the peninsula of Sinai across the water. The banks of the Canal at Suez are lined with gardens, luxuriant with fruit and vegetables, affording a pleasant contrast to the surrounding desert scenery. The Fresh Water Canal, which supplies the town from the Nile, here finds its way into the sea. Many caravans of pilgrims, to and from Mecca, pass through Suez. Tradition exists that it was from Suez that Moses led the Israelites across the Red Sea ; but this theory is unsupported by any reliable evidence. Boating is the favourite pastime of the locality, and an excursion may be made to the Springs of Moses, a pleasant oasis, owned by some Greek residents of Suez, situated in the desert to the south and on the Asiatic side of the Red Sea. The journey, which is accomplished partly by boat and partly on donkeys, occupies about eight hours, the springs being about 6½ miles from the landing-place for the boats. At this spot, following the tradition just mentioned, the Israelites are supposed to have rested in relief after the pursuing Egyptian hosts were overwhelmed in the waters of the Red Sea.

CONTINENTAL HOTEL.

THE Continental Hotel, Port Said, was established in 1886 by G. Francesconi, and in 1897 was taken over by two of his nephews, Silvio and Alfonso Simonini, whom he had sent to England to learn hotel management. The hotel is situated in the Boulevard Sultan Hassan, close to the harbour, and affords a pleasant stopping-place for visitors who do not wish to remain in the stifling atmosphere which surrounds a coaling ship. Accommodation is available for some eighty persons, the bedrooms being airy and comfortable,

the public apartments spacious and well-furnished, and the culinary and general arrangements leaving nothing to be desired. The charges are moderate, and Cook's coupons are accepted.

The brothers are also the proprietors of the Port Said Casino, which is situated near the entrance to the harbour. It is open from May to October each year, and, with its restaurant and café chantant, it is a popular resort of passengers by the Australian and Far Eastern lines.

Messrs. Silvio and Alfonso Simonini are natives of Venice, where they received their education.

GIULIO DE CASTRO & CO.

Established in Cairo in 1898, the business of Giulio de Castro & Co., coal merchants and shipping agents, was in 1906 transferred to Port Said, where a large depôt has been established. The firm supply coal to the Egyptian Government and to all places in the interior, and, possessing the only depôt on the African side of the Suez Canal, they enjoy rail transport facilities which place them at a great advantage. The head office is in the Rue el Nil, and they have a branch. office in the Rue Tahel Galel, Boulac, Cairo.

The founder, Mr. Giulio de Castro, was born in Alexandria in 1876, and was educated at Rome. For two years after his return to Egypt he was employed in a commercial house, and he then went to Calcutta in the employment of the Crédit Lyonnais. Again returning to Egypt, he founded the business which bears his name. In 1905 he was appointed a commercial delegate to the Italian Consulate at Cairo; and he is also a judge of the Italian Consular Court, and a member of various local philanthropic societies. He is a Chevalier of the Order of the Crown of Italy. Married to Margherita, a daughter of D. Weil, of Paris, he has one son and one daughter.

SIMON ARZT'S STORE.

Thousands of persons making the grand tour find their way year by year through the Suez Canal, and at Port Said many of them have their first glimpse, or take their last, of the East. In either case they have a disposition to purchase of the myriad wares exposed for their especial benefit, and almost the first establishment to which they tend is that of Simon Arzt. The business is one of the oldest in Port Said. It was established thirty-four years ago, and its departments have been so extended that customers may there purchase every description of useful and fancy goods. The leading lines are high-class cigarettes, tobacco, tropical requisites, ostrich feathers, fancy articles and curios of Oriental origin, Egyptian needlework and embroidery, and Maltese lace. A great advantage of the house is that all prices are fixed, and the purchaser is thus freed from the uncertainty incidental to haggling for "bargains." The present proprietors are the Salónica Cigarette Company, Limited, who have their head offices in Cairo.

Mr. Max Muschly, the manager, is a native of Austria, and was born in 1878. He came to Egypt ten years ago, and joined Mr. Arzt as manager in 1906. He has done much towards furthering the business, and now has a substantial interest in the concern.

GEORGES N. CORONI, President of the Greek Community at Port Said, is a son of the late Nicolas Coroni, a former merchant of the Ionian Islands. Born and educated at Smyrna, he came to Egypt in 1866, and joined his brothers, who were trading as ships' chandlers under the style of Coroni Frères. He succeeded to the business on the death of his brothers, and continued it with great success, retiring in 1906. He owns extensive house property in Port Said. In 1888 he was appointed honorary treasurer of the Greek Community, and in 1895 he succeeded to the president's chair. He is married to Catherine, a daughter of Dr. Alexander Pistes, of Constantinople. The co-operation of the Greek Community for the furthering of their mutual interests dates from 1870, in which year a committee of twelve influential men was appointed to draw up rules for approval by the Greek Government. A grant of 6,000 square metres of land from the Suez Canal Company provided sites for a church and school, and temporary structures were erected forthwith. The foundation stones of the church and school which exist to-day were laid in 1888, the then Consul-General for Greece (Mr. A. Bizantioy), Patriarch Sofronios, the Greek Consul for Port Said (Mr. Leonardos), and several members of the committee, were present. The buildings were not completed, however, until 1903, owing to lack of funds, the total cost being over 500,000 francs. There



THE PREMISES OF SIMON ARZT, PORT SAID.

are now 715 scholars attending the school. Thanks to the zeal of Mr. Coroni the prosperity and importance of the Community have greatly increased, and the revenue of the organisation, which in 1895 was 21,000 francs, is now 87,844 francs. The committee includes, besides Mr. Caroni, Messrs. Nicola Ziginia (vice-president), Jean E. Couppas (honorary treasurer), Constantines Douros and S. Barowmis (honorary secretaries), C. Platis, D. Lardicos, E. Diecakis, J. Valendi, E. Papanicola, G. Manolakaki, N. Garangioti, and Nicola Xenas (manager and secretary).

M. GEORGES N. CORONI, président de la communauté grecque à Port Said, est un fils de feu Nicolas Coroni, autrefois marchand aux îles Ionniennes. Né et éduqué à Smyrne, il vint en Egypte en 1886, et s'associa à ses frères qui étaient fournisseurs de navires sous la raison sociale de Coroni Frères. Il succéda dans l'affaire après la mort de ses frères et continua avec grand succès, se retirant en 1906. Il possède de grandes maisons à Port Said. En 1888 il fut nommé trésorier honoraire de la communauté grecque, et en 1895 il succéda à la présidence. Il est marié à Catherine, fille du Dr. Alexandre Pistes, de Constantinople. La coopération de la communauté grecque pour l'extension des intérêts mutuels date de 1870; dans cette année un comité de douze hommes influents furent nommés pour proposer des règlements qui furent soumis au Gouvernement grec. Six mille mètres carrés de terre de la Compagnie du Canal de Suez fournit la place pour une église et une école qui furent construites temporairement. La pierre de fondation de l'église et de l'école, qui existent aujourd'hui, a été posée en 1888, le Consul Général de la Grèce (M. A. Bizantioy), le patriarche, Sofronios. Le consul grec de Port Said (M. Léonardos), et plusieurs membres de la communauté étaient présent. Le bâtiment ne fut achevé qu'en 1903, à cause du manque de fonds. Le prix total a été plus de frs. 500.000. Il y a maintenant 715 écoliers. Merci au zèle de M. Coroni, la prospérité et l'importance de la communauté se sont grandement accrues et les revenus de l'organisation qui étaient en 1895 de frs. 21.000, sont maintenant de frs. 87.844. Le comité se compose, à côté de M. Coroni, de MM. Nicolas Ziginia (vice-président), Jean E. Couppas (trésorier honoraire), Constantines Douros et S. Barowmis (secrétaires honoraires), C. Platis, D. Lardicos, E. Diecakis, J. Valendi, E. Papanicola, G. Manolakaki, N. Garangioti, et Nicolas Xenas (directeur et secrétaire).

ALEXANDER BEY ROCH, a native of Jaffa, is one of the largest landed proprietors in that region. He owns twelve gardens, 86 acres of orange groves, 49 acres of vineyards, and 1,156 acres of agricultural land. He finds it more convenient to sell his produce locally than to export it, and has therefore abandoned the mercantile business which he formerly carried on. A son of the late Pierre Roch, he was born on November 24, 1859, and was educated at Jaffa and afterwards at the Catholic Patriarchal Greek School and the Jesuits' College, Beyrout. He began business on his own account in 1875, dealing chiefly in oil. His father died in 1894, leaving him a share of his property, the nucleus of his present extensive estates. Besides cultivable land, he owns houses, shops, and building land. Alexander Bey Roch was elected a member of the Jaffa Municipal Council in 1899, and in the following year he became an administrator in the Jaffa Tribunal. He was one of the founders, and is a director, of the Orient Commerce Company, Ltd., of London. The title of Bey was conferred on him about nine years ago, and he has since been created an Officer of Osmanieh. Married to Labibe, a daughter of Louis Zamaria, a merchant and landed proprietor of Jaffa, he has four sons and two daughters. Laki, the eldest son, is studying agricultural engineering at Beauvais, France; the other sons, Edmund, Arthur and Henri, are still at school.

TANTAH.

TANTAH, the thriving capital of the Province of Gharbieh, takes third place among the towns of Egypt, deriving its importance from its geographical position, its size, its markets and fairs, and its prestige among the Mahomedans as a focus of religious life and observances—the last-named, as is so often noticeable in the Orient, having been the original determining factor. It is linked to the past by a mosque, the nucleus of which was erected some five or six hundred years ago, and its aspirations towards modern ideals find expression in a system of municipal government instituted as recently as 1905.

The town is most favourably situated. It lies in the heart of the fertile Nile Delta, and midway between the great importing and distributing centres of the country. The main trunk line furnishes rapid through communication with the termini, and the Delta Light Railway system opens up transport facilities in the enormous cotton-growing area of which Tantah is the principal market; while, added to these, the Kased Canal gives access to the splendid network of waterways which overspreads the whole of Lower Egypt.

The population, estimated at about 75,000 inhabitants, is chiefly Mahomedan. The foreign element, however, is steadily increasing, the opportunities for trading in piece goods attracting numbers of Greek and other European merchants to the town. A great deal of overcrowding is prevalent, for while the number of inhabitants has increased by about twenty times during the past thirty years, the superficial area has only increased by about ten times. It is, however, satisfactory to note that the general health returns of the town are relatively good.

With the spread of the agricultural industry during recent years, Tantah's market has correspondingly increased in importance, and Monday by Monday the place is thronged with buyers and vendors, floating down almost endless streams of talk to mutual agreement as to terms. Cotton is, of course, the staple article, but it forms only one item in the long list of goods exposed for sale—a list comprising, each in its season, almost every variety of produce cultivable in that region.

The big days in the town's year-book are, however, those upon which the three annual fairs are held. Then vast concourses of people come together; the villagers by thousands and tens of thousands flock into the town, some, doubtless, with sordid intent, others bent on a wholesome combination of business and pleasure, but the preponderating majority animated by religious motives, deep-seated in their veneration of their Prophet and of one of his most devout followers. For Tantah enshrines the bones and the memory of Egypt's most popular saint. Some six hundred years ago Said el Bedawi, a native of Fez, retired to Tantah on his return from a pilgrimage to Mecca, and there lived the life of a recluse. He acquired more than a local reputation as a holy man during his lifetime, and since his death the passing of years has but added lustre to his name. To this day the descendant of his pupil, Abd el Al, whom he nominated (he dying without issue) as his successor, is held in veneration, the fellaheen having a touching faith in his more than human attributes.

The chief of the three fairs is that known as El Moulid el Kebir, in commemoration of the nativity of the saint. Its date is determined each year by the sheikhs of the Mosque of Said el Bedawi; and it usually falls in the month of Ragab and lasts about seven days. It is characterised by a procession in which are to be seen tableaux descriptive of the religion, trades, and industries of the town. The leading figure is the Khalifa, the descendant of the saint. The present representative is Sheikh Abd el Aziz el Khalifa, a man in the early prime of his manhood, of powerful frame, and of fine, intelligent features lit with the unmistakeable expression which denotes strength of character. As the procession makes its way through the narrow streets, the people press forward to touch his scarlet cloak in the belief that their sins may be pardoned; and who shall say that their faith does not in some degree make them whole? The fellaheen do not make an end with profession merely. Enormous wealth has accrued to the mosque from the donations of worshippers; and vows to pay gifts to the shrine as thankofferings for the saint's beneficent influence in the healing of the sick are discharged with scrupulous exactitude, the gifts varying from sums of money to a camel, a gamoose (buffalo), or a piece of land. A curious custom which prevails at the Moulid fair is worth recording. The fellaheen purchase "hommos" (peas) and "halawa" (a kind of sweetbread), and these they distribute to their fellow-countrymen on returning to their respective villages, as an earnest that they have visited the mosque.

The second fair, known as El Moulid el Saghis is almost entirely devoted to business; while the third, known as El Moulid el Ragabieh, is a religious one. The mosque is a most interesting structure. The older portion, as already indicated, was built six hundred years ago. A reconstruction of the building was undertaken about a hundred and twenty years ago; and in or about the year 1860, Khedive Said Pasha made considerable additions. Khedive Ismael Pasha and Khedive Abbas Hilmy Pasha I. effected further improvements, and as it stands at the present day the mosque is surpassed, in point of size, only by the mosques of Gamth Ghar and Saidina el Hussein at Cairo. The dome towers above the town, and is visible for a radius of many miles around. The catafalque of the saint is covered with embroidered red velvet, and is enclosed by a bronze railing of fine workmanship. Attached to the mosque, it may here be mentioned, is a religious school, which fulfils much the same purpose as the Al Azhar University at Cairo. It is attended by thousands of scholars during the course of the year.

The interest of the mosque to the devotee is now greatly enhanced by the fact that some hairs from the head of Mahomed have been placed within its walls for safe keeping. This priceless heirloom, handed down from generation to generation in the family of an Egyptian notable, was presented, about seven years ago, to the present Khedive, who ordered that it be placed in the mosque. Now that the question of abandoning the yearly pilgrimage to Mecca on the ground of public health is being raised, it is suggested by some that the pilgrimage should take place to Tantah, on account of these sacred hairs being there deposited.

The trade of Tantah, apart from its fairs and markets, is comparatively small. There is little or no industry in the neighbourhood other than that of agriculture, although, of course, cotton-ginning on a fairly extensive scale has come in the wake of the development of cotton cultivation in the province. There are some half a dozen timber depôts, branches of concerns having their headquarters at Alexandria or Damietta ; a limited amount of copper and brass working is carried on ; while of recent years the cigarette industry has greatly increased.

The general government of Tantah is vested in the Mudir or Governor, H.E. Mustapha Maher Pasha, and a sub-governor. The Municipal Council consists of eight persons, four of European, and four of Egyptian or Syrian nationality. The influence of this



1. ALEXANDER BEY ROCH.

2. RESIDENCE OF ALEXANDER ROCH.

body is gradually making itself felt, though the native population are slow to yield acknowledgment of the efficacy of sanitary and other precautionary measures. Great improvements have been effected in the streets, where asphalt has taken the place of the dust of former days.

Water supply and public and private lighting by means of electricity have been left to private enterprise, two companies, the Société Anonyme des Eaux de Tantah and the Société Electrique de Basse Egypte, both heavily backed by Jewish capital, having taken these functions upon themselves.

Of public buildings the largest are the Government offices, the post office (recently erected), and the prison, a cleanly, well-regulated establishment, where every effort is made to instruct the prisoners in useful arts and industries, so that they may rehabilitate themselves at the expiry of their sentences.

There are consular representatives of Great Britain, Germany, France, and Russia in Tantah. The law is administered by a President of Tribunals, a Chief of Parquet, and two or three resident judges.

Branches of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank, the Bank of Egypt, the National Bank, and the Agricultural Bank, besides those of several private financial houses, have been established in the town, a large business being done in loans upon the security of crops and agricultural land.

The chief places of worship other than the Mahomedan mosque are a native Coptic church, a Greek church, and a French Catholic church. The Anglican and American inhabitants worship in a building, provided by the American Mission, used on weekdays as a schoolroom.

Schools include the Mosque school, a Government school, an American Mission school for girls, a branch of the Collège des Frères, and a Coptic school. Of hospitals, there are one under Government ; a private one treating eye diseases principally, under Dr. Hajj, the Director of Public Health ; and one under the auspices of the American Mission. There is also a large free surgery in connection with the Collège des Frères. A local branch of the S.P.C.A. carries on a useful work.

The hotel accommodation, in the absence of any special demand for it, is poor, and there are no places of public amusement.

ZAGAZIG.

ZAGAZIG, the capital of the province of Sharkia, lies about 50 miles from Cairo, at the point whence the branch line to Kaliub leaves the main line to Suez. The surrounding district is extremely fertile, and the town is therefore an important centre of the cotton and grain trade. Several ginning factories have been established, and several European merchants have been attracted by the increased demand for general goods and by the facilities afforded by the weekly market. The fair of Mulid el Nabi, held annually, is attended by thousands of people. The population is estimated to be about thirty-six thousand, and quite a number of the inhabitants are engaged in mat-weaving, the town sharing with Menuf practically the whole of Egypt's matting industry. The affairs of the town are controlled by a Municipal Commission, who undertake, among other things, the public water supply. Zagazig is the seat of the Mudir of the province, and both Great Britain and Germany have consular agencies there. In the vicinity lie the ruins of the ancient Bubastis, the "Pibeseth" mentioned by Ezekiel, and at one time a great pilgrim resort.

MANSOURAH.

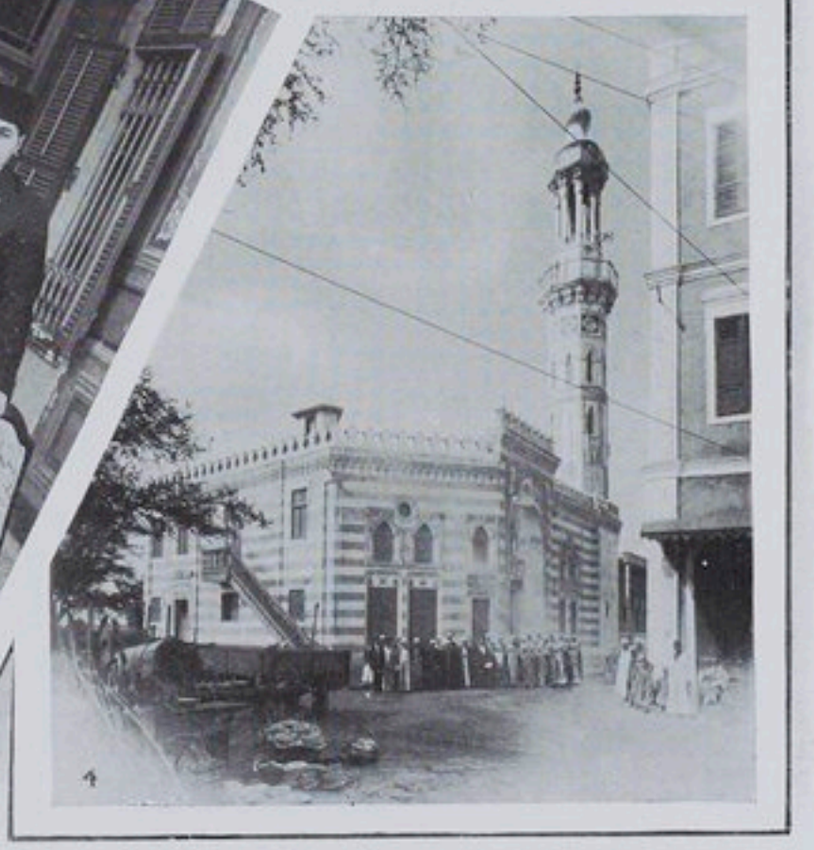
THE thriving town of Mansourah, the capital of the province of Dakahlieh, is prettily situated on the right bank of the Damietta branch of the Nile. It has two hotels, a post office, and branches of the National Bank, the Bank of Egypt, and the Crédit











MOHAMED CHENAOUI BEY.

1. Residence. 2. The School. 3. Mohamed Chenaoui Bey, his Brother, and Eldest Son. 4. The Mosque.

Lyonnais, besides British, Austrian, German, French, and Russian consular agencies. There are numerous houses in the European style, and the general appearance of the town impresses the visitor most favourably. The most important industry is cotton cleaning, J. Planta & Co. and other large firms having established factories. Mansourah was the focus of a serious attack by the Crusaders under Louis IX. of France in 1249, when Louis and his brother Charles of Anjou were captured and held to ransom. A house is still pointed out as the place where the ill-fated monarch was imprisoned. Another interesting building is the mosque of Sanga, which contains columns brought from older edifices, besides remains of fine wood-carving. The town is well served by the Delta Light Railway system. It lies about midway between Tantah and Damietta, at a distance of 92 miles from Cairo, or it may be reached *viâ* Zagazig.

BENHA.

BENHA, the capital of the province of Kaliubieh, is situated at the junction of the main lines between Cairo and Alexandria and Port Said, and is connected by light railways with Mansourah and the Barrage. Its population of some 12,500 persons is chiefly interested in fruit culture, the neighbourhood being famed for its blood oranges, mandarins, and choice grapes. Agriculture in all its branches is pursued in the province, which is watered from the Damietta branch of the Nile, and a market held in Benha every Monday is largely attended. An interesting tradition that a jar of honey was sent by the inhabitants to Mahomed has given to the place the name of Benha el Asal, or "Benha of the honey."

DAMANHOUR.

THE second station at which express trains from Alexandria to Cairo stop, and the starting point of light railways to Teh el Barud, Edfina, and Kafr el Dawar, Damanhour, the capital of Beheireh Province, is a town of some importance. It is an agricultural centre, and has a population of about twenty-two thousand inhabitants, It stands on an eminence, upon the site formerly occupied by the ancient Egyptian city of Time en Hor, or "City of Horns," and the Roman town of Hermopolis Parva.

ISMAILIA.

ISMAILIA, the busy centre of operations during the construction of the Suez Canal, is now a town of relatively small importance. It is not, however, without attraction. Its population of some seven or eight thousand people dwell amid pleasant environs. Gardens, avenues, and a public park, containing several monuments found at Pithom, have been laid out, and the waters of Lake Timsâh (Crocodile Lake) form a lovely azure background to many a charming view. Ismailia is the seat of a deputy governor. It has two hotels, a post office, and an office of the Egyptian Telegraphs. The railway station, which is connected with the passenger pier by a steam tramway, is the point of junction of the railways from Port Said and Suez, which converge at Ismailia before turning inland to Cairo.

H.E. MUSTAPHA ABU EL EZ PASHA, a large landowner in Gharbieh Province, is descended from an old Arabian family. His father, the late Itriby Abu el Ez,. was for many years in Government service as a high official, and his grandfather, Achmed Abu el Ez, was a Government official in the province of Gharbieh, where he was highly esteemed. His Excellency was born at Mit Abu Ghabib, and is now in the sixty-third year of his age. He was instructed in religious and general subjects in his native village, and at the age of eighteen he was appointed an inspector of properties in Gharbieh, belonging to the late Khedive Ismael Pasha. Five years later he was made inspector-general of another section of the property, and was next transferred to a similar position on the estates of Princess Fatma Hanem. Since 1876 he has managed his own lands. He is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and of the Tantah branch of the S.P.C.A. He is a Pasha of the Mirimiran grade, and is decorated with the Orders of Osmanieh (third class) and Mejidieh (third class), and with the Hedjaz Railway medals. He has two sons, of whom one is a judge, and four daughters.

KAIMAKAM MAHMOUD AZMI BEY, Chief of Police at Tantah, was born in Gizeh in 1866, and was educated at the Cairo Government Schools, and at the military school at Abbassieh, passing out of the latter in his nineteenth year with the rank of second lieutenant. After twelve months in the cavalry he was transferred to the police at El Arich, and subsequently he was stationed at Zagazig, Fayoum, and other towns in the provinces, and was promoted through various grades to the rank of kaimakam, or lieut.-colonel, and he is decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, fourth class. He received his present appointment in 1907. His father, the late Achmed Mohamed Effendi, a military official, helped to suppress the rebellion at Siwa in 1896. He has four sons and three daughters.

BIMBASHI MOHAMED NABIH, who has been in charge of the prison at Tantah for the past eight years, was born at Roda Island, and is now in his forty-fifth year. Educated at the Cairo Government schools, and at the military school at Abbassieh he joined the Infantry with the rank of second lieutenant. He went to Halfa with the 8th battalion, and a year and a half later he was transferred to the Police and stationed in the Gharbieh division, where he remained eight years. He was then promoted to be captain, and was stationed at Cairo under Coles Pasha, the then Chief of Police; and three years later, when Coles Pasha was appointed Director of Prisons, Mohamed Nabih went with him to Alexandria. Eventually he was promoted to the rank of bimbashi, or major; and he was also decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, fourth class. He and his family inherited small properties at Cairo, Beni Souef and Marg. His father, the late Abou Taleb Aly, was a well-known agriculturist. He has three sons and three daughters.

OSMAN MOHAMED BEY has been practising the legal profession at Tantah since 1884, first in association with Albawi Bey, who is now in Cairo, and, latterly, alone.

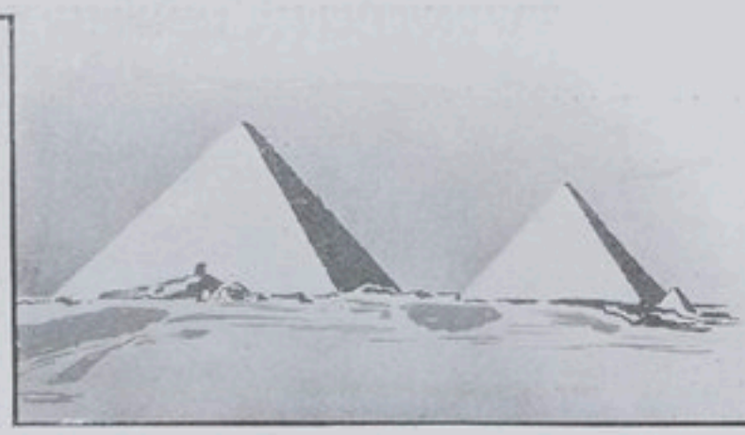
DR. HASSAN KAMEL was for seven years chief medical officer at Damietta and Tantah hospitals, but since 1903 he has been in practice on his own account in Tantah as physician and surgeon. A son of the late Achmed Shakib, of the Army Medical Corps, he was born in Cairo in 1870, and educated at the Government medical school where after a post-graduate course he gained an honorary certificate in surgery. Before receiving his appointment as medical officer, he was for three years an inspector under the Cairo Sanitary Department. He is president of the Tantah Club, and a member of the Egyptian Medical Society, Cairo; and he takes great interest in the work of the local branch of the S.P.C.A.

KOEB RABIH EFFENDI was made Omdeh of Kotawa, his native town, at the age of twenty-three, and has held the position for upwards of twenty years. He is one of the leading agriculturists in the neighbourhood, and has conducted many experiments in the cultivation of various crops suitable to the locality. He has satisfied himself, as the result of close observations, that crops on land watered at night thrive better than those watered by day, and that it is not advisable to drench the land. Further, he is convinced that the continuous cultivation of cotton is injurious to the soil, and that a system of rotation of crops is a distinct advantage. He contends that agriculturists would do better to grow less cotton and more grains, advancing in support of his belief the fact that imported grain costs more than that grown in the country. He is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and of the Islamic Charitable Society. He is a son of the late El Hadj Youssef Rabih, but he acquired his houses and land by dint of hard work, and not by inheritance.

MOHAMED BEY ALY, a native of Alexandria, and educated at the Naval School there, began life in the Egyptian Navy as a staff officer, and attained the rank of captain. He also saw some military service, and eventually he was drafted into the Police, filling successively the positions of captain of police at Baliana and at Luxor, where he was promoted to the rank of Mamour. He was then transferred to Assiout, Tala, Assouan, Tantah, and Zifteh. From 1903 to 1905 he was Vice-Mudir of Keneh; and he has since held similar offices in Menufieh, Mansourah, and, from the beginning of 1909, at Sharkia. He has been decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, fourth class, and he is a Bey of the Sanieh grade. He has five sons, one of whom is in London, and one daughter. His father, the late Ahmed Effendi Maghraby, was formerly a merchant in Alexandria.

SOLIMAN AHMED BEY ABAZA, a prominent agriculturist in the district of Zagazig, is greatly interested in all matters regarding the progress and development of Egypt's chief industry. He believes there should be a ministry of agriculture, as in other countries, or that Government should support the Agricultural Society in such a manner as to enable it to fulfil the functions of a department. He points to the yearly increase of ravages to crops from insect pests as proof of official negligence, for he is confident that vigorous action would at once mitigate the evil. A native of Sharwida village, near Zagazig, he was born in 1864, and at the age of sixteen he joined his father, a landed proprietor, in the management of the family estates. In 1894 he was appointed a member of the Tax Adjustment Commission for the district. He was next for nine years inspector of the properties belonging to Prince Seif Ed Dine, who was afterwards exiled to England for shooting Prince Fouad. On his father's death, Soliman Bey returned to his estates in Sharkia province. From 1903 to 1906 he was a member of the Municipal Council of Zagazig, and he is still a member of the Meglis el Hasbi, or Council of











MITWOLLY BEY NOUR.

1. El-Daraksa Estate Residence of Bourban Bey Nour.
2. El-Kibab Estate (in the district of Dekernis Dakahlieh).
3. Residence of Saleh Bey Nour and Sheikh Hassan Nour, Mitwolly Bey Nour and Office Staff at Mansourah.
4. El-Taweelah Estate (in the Talkha district).

Guardians, and of the Khedivial Agricultural Society. For the last four years he has been elected a member of the Council for the election and supervision of Omdehs. His family consists of eleven sons and seven daughters.

RIZGALLA BEY CHEDID, German Consular Agent at Zagazig, is a native of the town, and was born in 1847. He was educated privately, and at the age of eighteen entered the Spanish Consulate as interpreter. Eight years later he was appointed to a similar position in the German Consulate, and since 1875 he has filled his present office. He is closely identified with almost every phase of the town's activity. Associated with his brother, Count Chedid, in business, all his undertakings have prospered, and he occupies a leading place in local commercial life and among the landed proprietors of the neighbourhood. His estates are in the districts of Sharkia, Dakahlieh and Gharbieh, and he has considerable house property in Cairo, Mansourah and Zagazig. He was formerly a member of the Tax Adjustment Committee, and he still takes an active interest in the local branch of the S.P.C.A., for which he is honorary treasurer. He has been decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, second class, and has received the Papal decoration of Commander. He has one son and three daughters.

SAYED AHMED BEY EL DIB, a proprietor of agricultural land situated in the provinces of Sharkia and Menufieh, and formerly engaged in commerce as a cotton and grain merchant, is a native of Hehia, near Zagazig, where his father, Ismail el Dib, was held in great respect. The Bey sat on many councils, including the Zagazig Municipality at one time, but latterly has retired from public life owing to ill health. He is a member of the Islamic Charitable Society, the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. He built a mosque at Zagazig, and also a school for girls. He has four sons and four daughters, his eldest son now having charge of his various business interests.

MUSTAPHA BEY KHALIL is one of the leading agriculturists in the province of Sharkia, where he owns some 6,500 feddans of land, and conducts experiments in cultivation and in stockbreeding. He was born at Miniet el Moharrem, and after receiving his education at Al Azhar University he became Omdeh of his native village, a position he filled for twenty-seven years, and in which he has been succeeded by his eldest son. The Bey has been a member of the General Assembly for the past fourteen years, and he is also a member of the Provincial Council and of many other local councils. He takes great interest in the work of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and has secured several medals and other awards at shows held under its auspices. He has built several mosques and also a large school for the benefit of the people in his village. He is a Bey of the second degree, and has been decorated with the Order of Osmanieh, fourth class. He also received at the hands of H.I.M. the Sultan the Hedjaz railway medal. The Bey's father was the late Sheikh Khalil Abd el Al, a descendant of the Prophet. He has seven sons and five daughters.

HASSANEIN MOUSSA, a native of Hassanieh, and now in his fortieth year, succeeded his father, the late Moussa Nigni, as Omdeh of that village, in January, 1907. He has property in Zagazig and in the neighbourhood, and devotes himself to agriculture and commerce. He was a member of the local Taxes Adjustment Committee, and he also served on the Wakfs Commission. His family originally came from Jeddah.

H.E. MOHAMED PASHA CHOUKRI, Mudir of Dakahlieh, was born at Mansourah in 1869, and was educated at Alexandria and at the Cairo Government Schools, afterwards studying at the Khedivial Law School, and taking his licentiate's degree in 1886. For two and a half years he was employed as a sitting-clerk in the Native Tribunals, and he was then appointed a substitute of Parquet, attaining the position of Chief of Parquet,



PRINCIPAL RESIDENTS OF THE SMALLER TOWNS OF LOWER EGYPT.

1. Dr. Ahmed Fahmy el Rasheed (Mansourah).
2. H.E. Mustapha Abu-el-Ez Pasha (Tantah).
3. Osman Mohamed Bey (Tantah).
4. Dr. Hassan Kamel (Tantah).
5. Mohamed Bey Aly (Sub-Mudir of Sharkia Province, Zagazig).
6. Soliman Ahmed Bey Araza (Zagazig).
7. Kiamakam Mahmoud Azmi Bey (Tantah).
8. Frederick T. Murdoch (Mansourah).
9. H.E. Mohamed Pasha Choukri (Mudir of Dakahlieh Mansourah).
10. Sayed Abd el Aziz el Khalifa (Tantah).
11. Hassanein Moussa (Zagazig).
12. Bimbashi Mohamed Nabih (Tantah).
13. Mustapha Bey Khalil (Zagazig).
14. Ibrahim Bey el Tahri (Mansourah).

Cairo. In 1899 he became an inspector under the Committee of Judicial Control, and in 1901 he was transferred to Tantah as President of the Tribunals. In 1903 he was appointed Mudir or Governor of Gizeh, and towards the close of the year he was appointed to a similar position in the province of Menufieh, where he remained until, in February, 1909, he succeeded Maher Pasha as Mudir of Dakahlieh. His Governorship at Menufieh was marked by a great decrease in crime. He stimulated the inhabitants to create schools with a view of spreading education throughout his province. Several village schools (kuttabs) were thus established. In April, 1908, he approached the notables of his province on the question of raising money for establishing three big schools deemed complementary to this educational movement. Thirty thousand pounds was raised for this purpose, and about the middle of the year 1908 the building for one of these schools was commenced. About three hundred village schools (kuttabs) for primary education were established during his governorship of Menufieh. In these kuttabs twenty-five thousand boys and one thousand girls are in attendance. His Excellency knows French perfectly, and speaks Italian and Turkish. He has visited Europe and travelled much in Asia Minor and Constantinople. His father, Badawi Effendi Hassan, is a retired navy official, and saw service in the Russo-Turkish war and the Egyptian war with Abyssinia. His Excellency is a Pasha of the Mirmiran degree, and is decorated with the Order of the Osmanieh.

FREDERICK TEED MURDOCH, British Consular Agent at Mansourah, is the eldest son of Andrew Jamieson Murdoch, born April 13, 1851, at Panmure, Bleachfield, Forfarshire, Scotland. Educated at the West End Academy, Dundee, he was afterwards apprenticed as an engineer. In April, 1873, he came to Egypt,

where he was appointed chief engineer by Benjamin Whitworth & Brothers at their cotton-ginning factory, Mansourah. In 1881, in partnership with the late James Templeton, he founded the firm of Murdoch & Templeton, engineers. In July, 1908, the business was sold to the Egyptian Engineering Company, Ltd. In December, 1890, Mr. Murdoch married Marion, eldest daughter of the late John Maclaren, architect, and a town councillor of Dundee. He has two sons, one being at Cheltenham College, and the other being trained as an engineer. Mr. Murdoch was appointed Acting British Consular Agent in 1881. He received letters of commendation from Earl Granville, Sir Edward Malet, and Lord Cromer (then Sir Evelyn Baring) for assisting the local authorities during the cholera epidemic of 1883. He was appointed British Consular Agent in 1887. He is a Commander of the Orders of Mejidieh and Osmanieh.

MOHAMED M. BEY EL CHENNAWI occupies a leading position among the native community at Mansourah. He owns a great deal of property in the neighbourhood, and besides his agricultural interests he has a cotton mill, a confectionery factory, a carpenter's shop, and an ironware factory. He has conducted numerous experiments with cotton and other crops, and has secured nearly thirty prizes for exhibits at various shows held by the Khedivial Agricultural Society. He is a member of the General Assembly and of the Mansourah Municipal Council. The Bey, who is in his fiftieth year, is a son of the late Sheikh Mohamed, and his ancestors were related to the Prophet. The family have been known in Egypt for many years and played a prominent part in the history of the country at the time of Napoleon's visit. The Bey has erected a mosque in the town, and also a school for Mahomedan children.

MOHAMED EL BEHAI YOUNIS, a former Omdeh of Talkha, and grandson of Mohammed Younis Bey, an inspector of properties belonging to the Khedive Ibrahim Pasha, was born at Talkha in 1869, and was educated at Mansourah and at the Government Secondary and Polytechnical Schools in Cairo. He succeeded his father in the Omdehship in 1897, and in the following year he inherited the family estates. He has conducted many experiments in agriculture, and has been a successful exhibitor at various agricultural shows held at Tantah and Mansourah. A lover of horses and other animals, he keeps a fine stable. El Behai is a member of the Council of Omdehs and of the Khedivial Agricultural Society.

Dr. AHMED FAHMY EL RASHEED, senior medical officer attached to the Travelling Ophthalmic Hospital in the Mansourah District, has held that position since January, 1906. He was born at Rosetta in 1884, and was educated at the Government Medical School in Cairo, afterwards spending a year at the Kasr-el-Aini Hospital. He passed his examinations with great credit, and secured his diploma when but twenty years of age, the Board of Examiners recommending that the Ministry of Education grant him a special certificate.

IBRAHIM BEY EL TAHRI, son of Ahmed Bey el Tahri, was born in Mansourah in 1885, and after securing his secondary certificate at the Tewfikieh School, Cairo, he proceeded to Lyons, where he studied agriculture in the National Agricultural School. He returned to Egypt to assist his father in the management of the family estates, which are situated in the provinces of Gharbieh, Sharkia, and Dakahlieh, and of extensive properties in Cairo, Alexandria, and Mansourah. An active member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, he has conducted numerous experiments in agriculture, the more important of which have been directed to show the value of deep ploughing. He has won several prizes and medals at agricultural shows throughout Egypt. He is a bey of the third degree, and is decorated with the Order of Mejidieh, third class. He is a member of the Islamic Charitable Society, and takes a great interest in the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.

MITWOLLY BEY NOUR, a notable of Mansourah, was born at Tawila in 1857, and on completing his education at the Sayed el Bedawi Mosque School at Tantah, he joined his father, the late Sheikh Mitwolly Nour, a cotton merchant and landed proprietor in the provinces of Gharbieh and Dakahlieh. Sheikh Mitwolly died in 1907, at the age of one hundred years, and left the management of the family affairs to Mitwolly Bey. The Bey has five brothers, five sons, and three daughters. He is a member of the Khedivial Agricultural Society, and conducts valuable experiments with various crops. His brothers are Bourhan Bey Nour, Sheikh Abd el Hadi Nour, Sheikh Osman Nour, Sheikh Hassan Nour, and Saleh Bey Nour.

CIGARETTE INDUSTRY.

IT is not a little curious that the manufacture of cigarettes should be such an important industry in Egypt, for not only is the cultivation of the tobacco plant absolutely prohibited by the Government, but even if this were not the case the soil and climatic conditions of the country are not suitable for growing any but the coarsest and most inferior tobacco. The circumstance really responsible for the introduction of the industry was the granting of a monopoly of tobacco manufacture in Turkey to a private company, which drove a number of Greek cigarette makers in that country to establish themselves elsewhere. Some of these found their way to Egypt, where they made the welcome discovery that the same climatic conditions which militated against the successful growing of tobacco were eminently suited to its manufacture, and that cigarettes made in Cairo and other centres acquired a peculiarly agreeable flavour never before attained. Another advantage enjoyed by these early promoters of the industry was the advertisement their cigarettes received from officers of the British Army of Occupation, who, on their transference from Egypt to other stations, carried with them the Egyptian cigarette, all unconscious of the immense service they were rendering to the country. Out of this widespread introduction to all parts of the world grew the huge export trade in cigarettes and manufactured tobacco which, necessitating correspondingly large importations of raw leaf, has indirectly contributed so largely to the receipts of the Customs Department. In 1907 the net revenue derived from the import duty on tobacco amounted to £E1,648,453, while the total proceeds from this source since the duty was first imposed amounted, at the close of 1907, to no less than £E23,195,448.

It was in 1873 that the Government first decided to take cognizance of tobacco as a source of revenue, and in August of that year a duty of P.T. 20 per oke was levied on Turkish tobacco and tombac—the form in which tobacco is smoked in the native tschiboques and nhargilés. The duty was reduced to P.T. 5 per oke in 1879 (except for superior qualities, on which the tax was raised to P.T. 25 per oke), but was increased in 1885 to P.T. 10 per kilo, and again in 1888 to P.T. 15·1 on Turkish tobacco with raftieh, to P.T. 18·5 on Turkish tobacco without raftieh, and to P.T. 14 on other tobaccos. Finally, in 1890, the import duty on all tobaccos was raised to the uniform rate of P.T. 20 per kilo, and, so far as leaf tobacco is concerned, it has remained at that figure ever since. On stripped and manufactured tobacco, however, the duty was further increased by P.T. 5 in 1894; while in June, 1902, a surtax of P.T. 2 per kilo was imposed on all tobacco admitted from countries which had no special arrangements with Egypt.

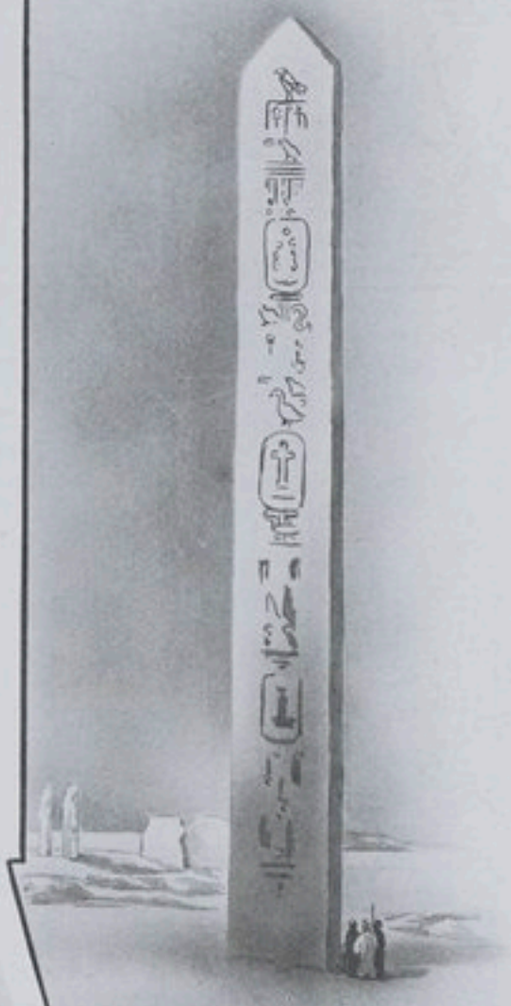
A question upon which manufacturers of cigarettes feel very strongly is that of drawback. In July, 1891, a decree was issued granting a drawback of P.T. 10 per kilo on all cigarettes exported from Egypt; but the opinion of those engaged in the industry is that not only should the amount be increased, but that it should be extended to all forms of manufactured tobacco. They contend that whilst the Egyptian blends of Turkish tobacco are allowed to be superior to any other, the high price of these blends, for which the import duty of P.T. 20 per kilo is chiefly responsible, compels manufacturers in other countries either to make their own or to be content with inferior blends. It is generally believed that if all drawbacks were allowed the increased output of locally manufactured tobaccos would balance the loss of revenue; and, further, that the Customs receipts from cigarettes would be similarly maintained if, by a larger rebate on cigarettes exported, Egyptian manufacturers were enabled to compete in the foreign markets on a more satisfactory footing.

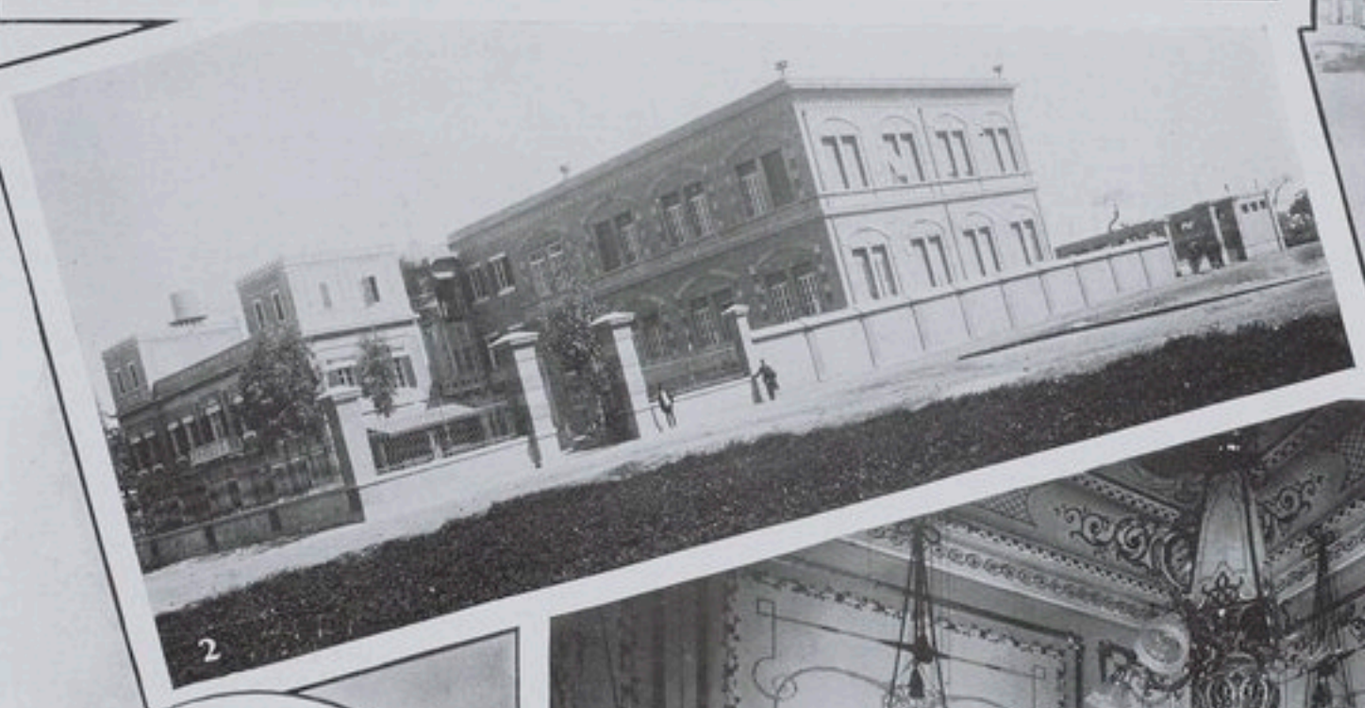
The total yield of the import duty up to the end of 1907 (after deducting drawback from 1892 onwards) is shown in the following table:—

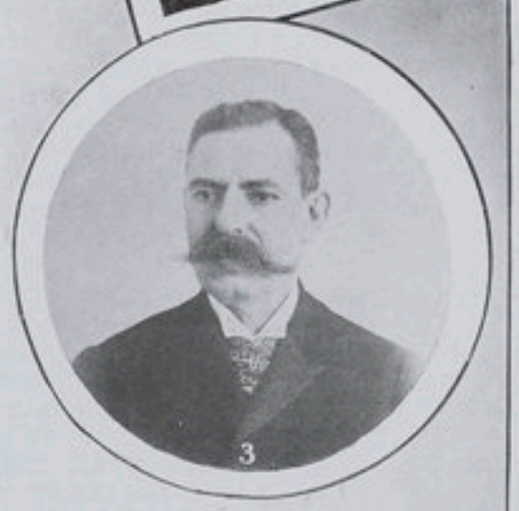
	£E.		£E.
1874 ...	132,000	1891 ...	318,757
1875 ...	211,000	1892 ...	655,297
1876 ...	125,000	1893 ...	788,660
1877 ...	113,000	1894 ...	932,749
1878 ...	68,000	1895 ...	968,575
1879 ...	109,083	1896 ...	1,006,526
1880 ...	98,791	1897 ...	1,004,780
1881 ...	129,328	1898 ...	1,080,669
1882 ...	108,421	1899 ...	1,068,282
1883 ...	106,162	1900 ...	1,159,881
1884 ...	147,130	1901 ...	1,221,483
1885 ...	212,267	1902 ...	1,285,908
1886 ...	304,475	1903 ...	1,304,077
1887 ...	289,050	1904 ...	1,476,238
1888 ...	332,517	1905 ...	1,525,484
1889 ...	441,443	1906 ...	1,584,175
1890 ...	1,237,787	1907 ...	1,648,453
Total ...			...23,195,448

The decree prohibiting the cultivation of tobacco in Egypt was promulgated on June 25, 1890. The reasons for the prohibition were purely fiscal, for while numerous attempts had been made to arrive at a satisfactory basis of taxation, it was found impossible to avoid inflicting hardship either on the small cultivators on the one hand or on the importers on the other. The first tax, imposed in 1879, was one of £E9 per feddan. In January of the following year it was reduced to £E6, and in December a further reduction was made to £E2½. Calculated on the yield per feddan, these taxes represented only a small fraction of the duty imposed on imported tobacco, and consequently amounted to a heavy protection on the native-grown product. A marked loss to the revenue was apparent; and to the complaints of the importers were added those of the consumers, for the local product was inferior, and largely used to mix with the finer grades imported. Even the best qualities of Turkish seeds imported gave poor results; the tobacco grown from them proved to be absolutely tasteless and coarse in fibre. At length, in 1887, it was decided to raise the tax to £E30 per feddan, but this was found to press heavily on the small cultivators, for the tax was collected while the crop was still on the ground, and they had some difficulty in finding the money. In 1890, as part of the scheme for the general readjustment of taxes on a more equitable basis, it was decided to raise the duty on tobacco with a view of using the increased revenue for the remission of taxation in other forms. In order to do this it was necessary either to suppress the cultivation of tobacco altogether, or to raise the tax per feddan to the point which would place native-grown on the same footing as imported tobacco. There were several obvious objections to a tax of at least £E300 per feddan which the latter alternative would have involved, and recourse was therefore had to total prohibition, the decree being issued simultaneously with that which fixed the import duty at P.T. 20 per kilo, the figure at which it stands to-day. During the eleven years the tax remained in force the total proceeds amounted only to £E402,416. The results of the prohibition have in every way justified that course. The revenue has benefited considerably, and the increase has been accompanied by more than correspondingly large remissions of taxation in other directions. The price of tobacco to consumers is still very reasonable compared with that which prevails in the principal countries of





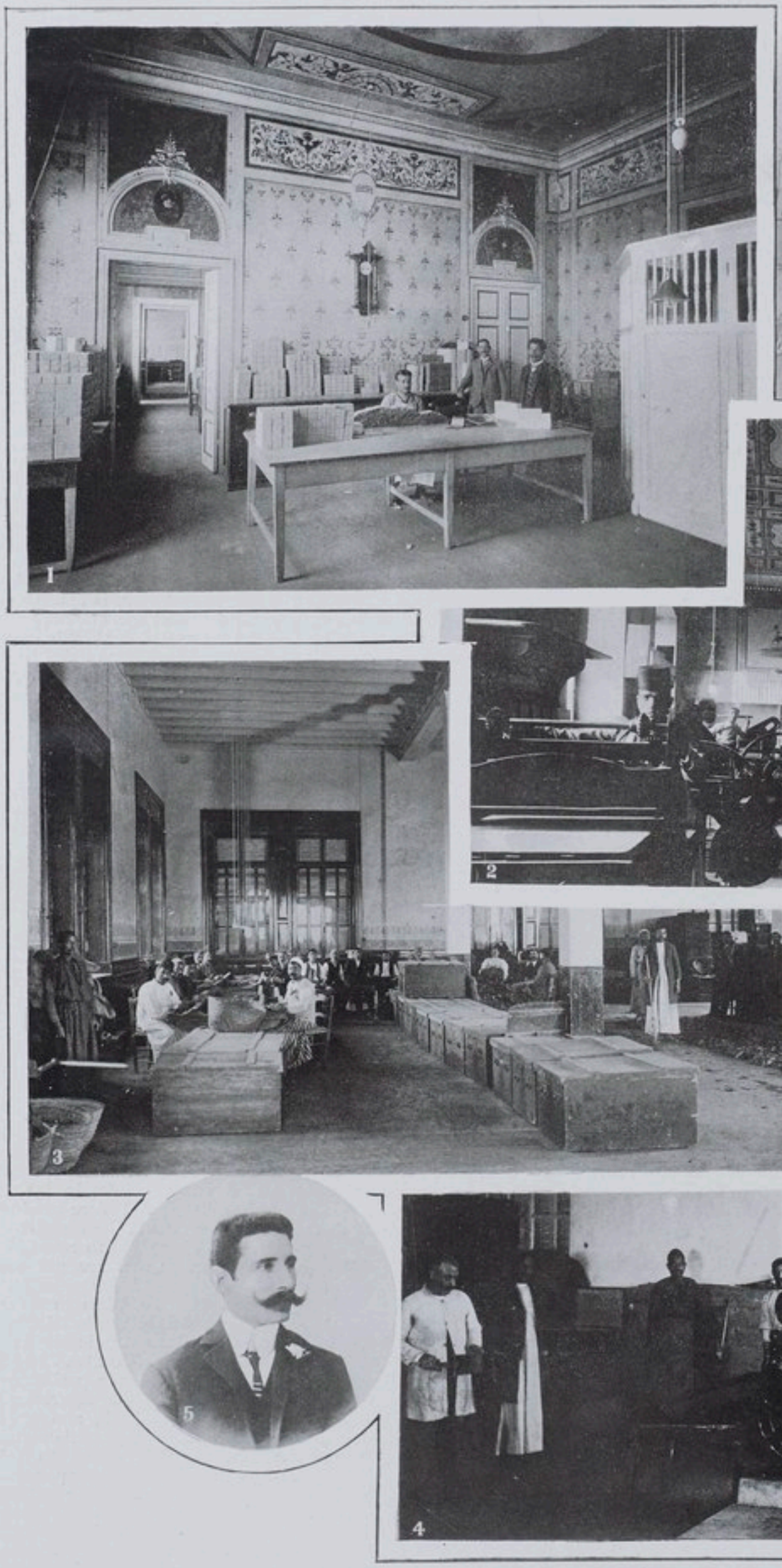




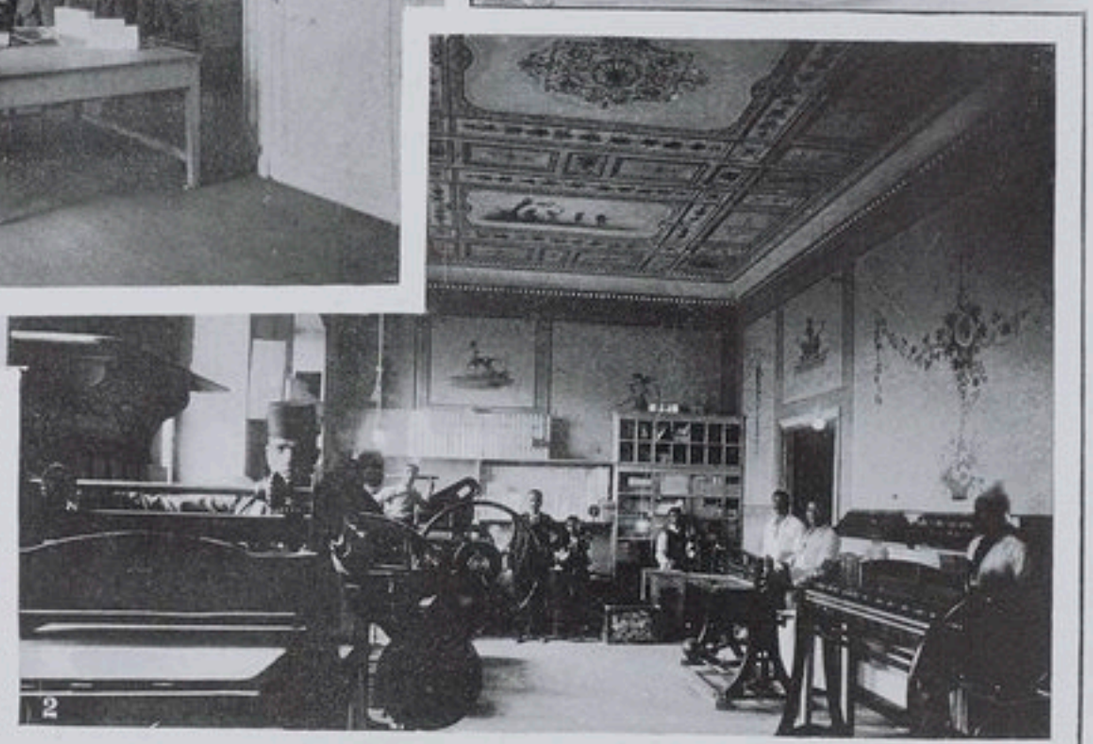


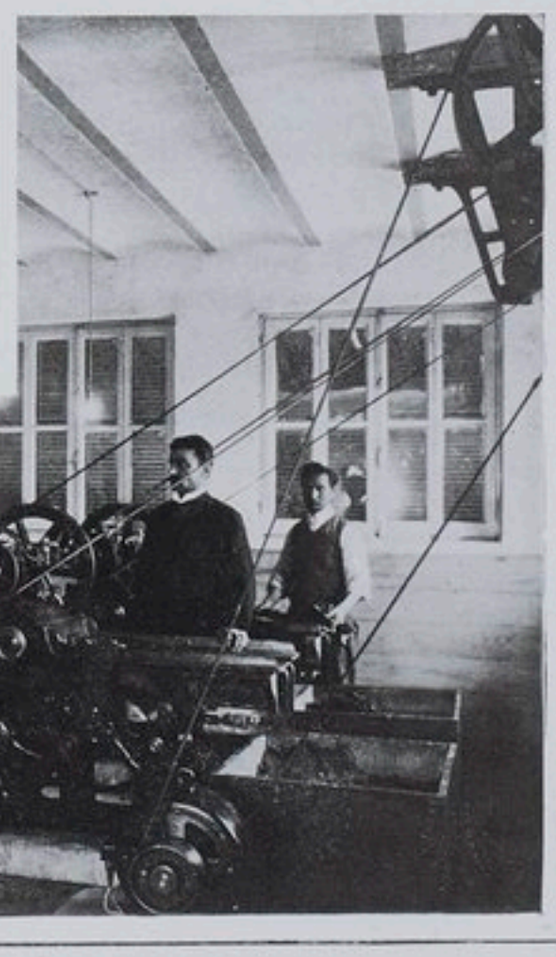
NESTOR GIANACLIS.

1. Cigarette Manufacturers' Hall. 2. The Factory. 3. Nestor Gianaclis. 4. Nestor Gianaclis' Office.









NESTOR GIANACLIS.

1. Cigarette Packing Department. 2. The Box Making Department. 3. The Blending Room.
4. Tobacco Cutting Department. 5. Panayotes M. Comninos, Manager.

Europe, where the import duty is higher. At the same time tobacco has been replaced by profitable crops, such as onions, so that the cultivators have not suffered any great hardship. All native-grown tobacco is now contraband, and would-be growers are liable to a penalty of £E200 per feddan.*

From 1885 to 1887 an octroi duty of P.T. 3 per oke was imposed, but as this yielded only £10,568 for the three years it was abolished.

The value of tobacco imports during 1908 was £E860,542, as compared with £E716,207 in 1907, and £E695,452 in 1906. The value of cigarettes exported during those years was £E364,977, £E393,509, and £E465,863 respectively. An analysis of the figures for 1907, the last year for which detailed returns are available, shows the sum of £E716,207, the value of tobacco imports, to be made up as follows :—

	Quantity. Kilos.	Value. £E.
Leaf tobacco ...	7,923,554	666,663
Tombac	604,446	30,220
Cigars	74,804	15,710
Other manufactured tobaccos	30,152	3,614
	8,632,956	716,207

Of the leaf tobacco, Turkey supplied 3,253,556 kilos, of the value of £E341,662, and Greece 3,633,247 kilos, of the value of £E217,993. Practically the whole of the tombac was derived from Persia and Turkey; the cigars came principally from Italy, Switzerland, and the British possessions in the Mediterranean, whilst the manufactured tobaccos were chiefly of British origin. Incidentally it may be mentioned that cigarette paper was imported during 1907 to the value of £E40,069, towards which Austria-Hungary contributed £E29,275; Turkey, £E5,336, and France, £E4,252. The centre of the Austrian cigarette paper industry is Fiume, the water of that town being exceptionally pure and free from all mineral ingredients, and therefore particularly suitable for the manufacture of the best rice paper. It has the additional advantage of being cheaper than the paper manufactured in France.

Of the cigarettes exported during 1907, 403,948 kilos, of the value of £E323,158, were shipped in bulk, while 87,946 kilos, of the value of £70,351, were sent through the post. The countries to which they were consigned were as follows :—

	Quantity. Kilos.	Value. £E.
Great Britain	87,780	70,223
British Mediterranean Possessions	3,270	2,613
British Possessions in the Far East ...	69,015	55,213
Germany	153,786	123,026
America	14,240	11,396
Austria-Hungary ...	44,350	35,479
Belgium	12,096	9,677
Bulgaria	18	15
China and the Far East	25,874	20,700
Denmark	948	755
Spain	593	475
France	23,221	18,576
French Mediterranean Possessions	361	288
Greece	237	189
Holland...	7,236	5,788
Italy	5,742	4,594
Massaua	23	19
Persia	47	39
Portugal	190	152
Roumania	26	19
Russia	95	77
Sweden...	34,716	27,772
Switzerland	7,986	6,389
Other countries ...	44	35
Total ...	491,894	393,509

This total of £E393,509 represents 14 per mille of the value of all exports from Egypt during 1907.

The tobaccos employed in the manufacture of Egyptian cigarettes all belong to the genus *Nicotiana tabacum*. They are divided into two distinct classes known as Bachi-baglis (literally, "tied by the head"), and Basmas (literally, "bales"). Originally these names had no botanical significance, but referred only to the methods in which the two varieties, consisting respectively of large and small leaves, were prepared for the market.

The Bachi-bagli is a hybrid in which appear the strains of four species of *N. tabacum*, namely, *fruticosa*, *brasiliensis*, *havanensis*, and *macrophylla*. These species impart certain qualities to the leaf : *N. fruticosa* contains the most nicotine, and tends to make the taste of the tobacco strong; *N. brasiliensis* gives strength to the tissue of the leaves, and perfume; *N. havanensis* modifies the flavour; and *N. macrophylla* imparts sweetness to the taste. According to which of these species predominates in the leaf, so the leaf falls into a particular grade of quality. The Basmas are also hybrid, but are derived from only two of the above-named species—*N. macrophylla*, which predominates, and *N. havanensis*. Both types originated in America, but whilst the Basmas were brought direct to Turkey from the Antilles, the Bachi-baglis found their way by a circuitous route, embracing Japan, China, Java, India, the neighbourhood of the Persian Gulf, and Syria.

For trade purposes, a further division of Turkish tobaccos has been made, the various kinds or qualities taking their names from the provinces in which they are most largely cultivated, or, in some instances, from the market to which they first tend. Thus of Bachi-baglis there are the Latakia, Samsoun, Baffra, Persochian, Kirlikova, and Prevista tobaccos. In the first-named *N. macrophylla* predominates, while in the others *N. fruticosa* is the more pronounced; and it is these differences in the leaf itself, together with the modifications induced by varying soil and climatic conditions under which the tobacco is grown, which decide the market value of the products of the respective districts. For instance, other things being equal, tobacco grown on high ground is better than that raised in the valleys. Basmas are divided into two classes—those which come from Smyrna, and known as Aya-Solouk, and those which come from Xanthe, Drama, and Cavalla in Macedonia. These latter are frequently styled Yenidje tobaccos, but as Yenidje is only a centre of manufacture, and has never been a producing district, the name is misleading. The tobaccos grown in the Xanthe district are the most highly esteemed, and often realise extravagant prices. While the best Turkish tobaccos ordinarily fetch from P.T. 60 to P.T. 100 per oke (2·75 lbs.), as much as P.T. 170 or P.T. 190 is sometimes paid for the very finest Basmas when the supply of a particularly choice leaf is limited. The Smyrna tobacco possesses peculiar narcotic properties, the reason assigned being that the land in that region was at one time under poppy cultivation. Besides the Basmas and Bachi-baglis, other types are grown, but as a rule they find less favour in the markets; they are the Damas, Beyrout, Latakia, and Andrinople tobaccos.

Great care has to be exercised in the harvesting and maturing of the leaves. The process of curing occupies from two to three years, according to the size of the leaves and the quality of tobacco required; and many of the leading manufacturers have their own depôts at Cavalla, Smyrna, Samsoun, and other centres in order to ensure that all the necessary processes are carried out under proper supervision. When ready for shipment the Bachi-baglis are usually made up into bales of from 25 to 30 kilos, and the Basmas into smaller bales of from 12 to 14 kilos. A third class of bale is the Yubek, weighing from 7 to 9 kilos, into which the very best qualities only are packed. It may be mentioned that a duty of P.T. 3 per oke is levied on all tobaccos exported from Turkey.

The first and most important step in the actual process of manufacture is that of blending, and the skill of the expert blender is only acquired after long experience. It is essential that cigarettes of a given brand shall possess uniform qualities of strength and flavour, and many factors have to be taken into consideration, the relative value of which only years of patient study can teach. When blended, the leaves are cut either by machine or by hand, and the tobacco is then stored ready for distribution to the cigarette makers. All the big factories have an elaborate system of controlling this delivery, a given number of cigarettes being required from a given quantity of tobacco. A kilogramme of tobacco will suffice for from 700 to 800 cigarettes of medium size. Most of the workmen employed in cigarette-rolling are Greeks.

Two methods of making cigarettes obtain. The most speedy is the "macaroni" or "push-in" process. The paper tubes are first prepared, and the tobacco is pushed into the tubes; the cigarettes are then trimmed by boys, who cut off the loose ends with specially-made scissors. After this, the cigarettes are ready for packing. A skilled hand is paid from 3*s.* to 4*s.* per thousand, and can fill from 2,500 to 3,000 tubes in a day of seven hours. The hand-rolling process is less rapid, a man being unable to make more than 1,200 or 1,500 cigarettes in a day of eight hours. The rate of pay per thousand is correspondingly higher and amounts to as much as 5*s.* Before passing on to the packing departments, the cigarettes are all carefully examined by the foremen of the factories, who reject all that are not evenly filled.

Here occasion may be taken to refer to the notion rather commonly entertained that narcotics are sometimes employed in the manufacture of Egyptian cigarettes. The idea is entirely erroneous; such soporific qualities as are noticeable in the cigarettes are inherent in the tobacco itself, and are not due to the admixture of any adulterant. It is probable that the fallacy had its origin in the fact that in spite of Government prohibition a considerable quantity of "hasheesh" is smuggled into the country. This drug, derived from the well-known *Cannabis indica*, is used in various forms by all classes of people. In the case of the habitual user, it produces a kind of trance, but the novice is generally overcome by nausea long before

*It may be mentioned that early in the present year, 1909, the General Assembly passed a resolution advocating the reintroduction of tobacco cultivation; but the Prime Minister indicated that the Government would not be likely to entertain the proposals.

this stage is reached. The drug is never used in the cigarette of commerce; its preparation for local consumption is quite a separate industry, carried on surreptitiously and at the risk of heavy penalties in the event of those engaged in it being discovered.

NESTOR GIANACLIS.

THE distinction of being one of the oldest, and at the same time the most widely-known firm of cigarette manufacturers in Egypt, belongs to the great house of Nestor Gianaclis. Its founder, a Greek, came to Cairo in 1875 at the time of the formation of the Turkish tobacco monopoly. A native of Gumuldjina, near Xanthe, from which district comes some of the finest Turkish leaf on the market, Mr. Gianaclis had a distinct advantage in knowing exactly how and where to buy, and this, combined with his enterprise and business acumen, has enabled him to build up from very modest beginnings the huge industry which bears his name.

The original factory was situated in the Rue de Mousky, and afterwards in the Rue Kamel, Cairo. In 1898 larger and more suitable premises were taken opposite the Turkish Residency, in the Kasr-el-Doubara quarter of the city. These were subsequently sold, and the present factory, situated in the Boulevard de Choubrah, was opened, towards the end of 1907. The main building, which was formerly known as Chicolani Palace, has been retained for general offices, and for the drying, box-making, and packing departments. An extensive wing has been added to provide accommodation for the remaining departments, whilst a second annexe has been built for the electric light and power generating plant. The premises stand in ornamental grounds, 10,000 square metres in extent, and form altogether one of the largest establishments of the kind in Egypt. About five hundred people are employed in the factory, and their annual output has reached the enormous total of 80 millions of cigarettes, of which not less that 70 millions find their way to other parts of the world. The principal consumers of the Egyptian-made "Nestor" cigarettes are Great Britain and Germany. To meet the American demand a special factory has been opened in Boston.

The tobacco employed in the factory is principally derived from the districts of Xanthe and Cavalla, in Macedonia, the firm having their own depôt, where leaf to the value of £200,000 is kept in stock. From two to five years are allowed to elapse before the tobacco is considered to be sufficiently matured for use. At the end of that term it is shipped to Egypt, and is received at the factory in a huge storeroom, where the weights of the bales are checked and records made of the quantities issued to the workmen. On an average six hundred bales, each weighing about 20 kilos, are converted into cigarettes each month. From forty to sixty blenders are employed in preparing the various grades so well known to smokers of "Nestor" cigarettes, and their work has to be done with the greatest possible care in order to ensure uniformity in the quality of the blends. The leaf is taken to the motor-driven cutting-machines, which have a combined capacity of 400,000 okes (oke = 2·75 lbs.) a day, and from thence by lifts to the cigarette-making department on the floor above. Here are two large rooms—one for the men engaged in preparing the "macaronis"—as the paper tubes for the cigarettes are called—and the other for those whose business it is to fill these tubes. There are 140 cigarette makers, and, as each man can make from three to four thousand cigarettes in a day, the total daily output is about 400,000. The cigarettes are carefully examined by the foremen, who throw out all that are not properly made, and are then placed in perforated tin boxes ready for the drying room. The process of drying takes from two to four days, according to the prevailing climatic conditions, and the cigarettes are then passed on to the packing department. With the exception of the tin boxes, which are imported from Europe, all the boxes are made on the premises, no less than thirty-four men being engaged in this branch of the work. The packing calls for great dexterity on the part of the workers. A skilled packer can fill about a thousand boxes of twenty cigarettes, or three hundred boxes of one hundred each, in a day.

The whole of the premises are lit by electricity, the wiring being carried out on the English system. Current is generated by a 36-kwt. dynamo, driven by a suction gas engine of 40 i.h.p. There is an alternative plant for use in case of a breakdown, consisting of an oil engine of 20 i.h.p. coupled to a dynamo of 20 kwts.

Agencies for the wholesale supply of "Nestor" cigarettes have been established in England, Scotland, Canada, South Africa, Australia, Germany, Austro-Hungary, Switzerland, Belgium, Scandinavia, Holland, India, China, New Zealand, Greece, Siam, the United States, Chili, Mexico, and the Argentine Republic; and the universal popularity of these well-known cigarettes is further evidenced by the medals and diplomas awarded to the firm at the leading exhibitions in different parts of the world during the last fifteen or twenty years. The firm enjoy the patronage of H.H. the Khedive, H.H. the Crown Prince of Greece, H.E. the Viceroy of India, and many of the leading residents in Egypt. The Cairo retail establishment is situated in the Chareh-el-Kamel, No. 16.

NESTOR GIANACLIS, founder of the well-known cigarette manufacturing business which bears his name, is one of the most prominent Greeks in Egypt and founder of the cigarette industry in Egypt. He has for some years been president of the Cercle Hellenique, and he is now president of the Hellenic Community. Of a benevolent disposition, he has made good use of the means with which his prosperity has furnished him, and, in recognition of his many philanthropic works, he has received a gold medal from the King of Greece and the honorable title "megas ar hon" from the Patriarch of Constantinople. Recently he erected a Greek church in Cairo at a cost of £20,000; while he has furnished £7,000 towards the cost of a school in his native town of Gumuldjina, and annually contributes some £300 towards its maintenance. He has also been associated with T. Rostovitz Bey in providing a gymnasium at Athens at a total cost of £12,000. Mr. Gianaclis, who is in his sixtieth year, is married to a daughter of the late Mr. D. Bellamore.

PANAYOTES M. COMNINOS, who has for ten years occupied the position of manager of the firm of Nestor Gianaclis, was born at Gumuldjina, and received his education at the Commercial School, Salonika, and then he joined his fellow-townsman, Mr. Gianaclis. He came to Cairo in 1893, and, prior to assuming his present duties, was for five years employed as sub-manager. He is now in his thirty-fifth year. Mr. Comninos is a fluent linguist, speaking many European languages.

SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME "LE KHÉDIVE."

(ED. LAURENS).

FOUNDED in 1888 by Ed. Laurens, it is claimed for the Laurens Cigarette Factory that it is the largest and most important in Egypt. Situated in the Rue Laurens, in the Salah ed-Din quarter, the handsomest part of Alexandria, the factory occupies a large series of buildings, constituting in itself a veritable village, laid out on model lines. In 1896 the business was formed into a company, with a capital of 1,000,000 francs. In spite of the enormous increase in the firm's output and the extension of the factory on the most elaborate scale, it has not been found necessary to increase the capital, a testimony to the excellent financial management of the concern. The factory is so well equipped that it is entirely independent of outside assistance for the supply of its auxiliary requirements. All the printing, engraving, and carpentering are done on the premises; there is a special department for the manufacture of the tin and cardboard boxes in which the cigarettes are done up, and another for the production of the cigarette paper, both with and without gold tips, the gold in which is of twenty-two carats. An extensive electrical plant provides the necessary light and power. The machinery for making boxes, printing on metal, &c., is all of English manufacture of the latest design, while the tin for box-making comes from Swansea.

Long experience of the tobacco industry induced the founders of the business to select Alexandria as the site for their factory. All the great cigar and cigarette manufacturing centres are situated near the sea—in Havana, Florida, the Philippine Islands, &c., and, formerly, in Constantinople. Throughout the year the climate of Alexandria is tempered by the sea breezes, and it is the consequent humidity which gives the sea-coast town the advantage over Cairo, where the constant winds from the desert during the long summer months cause an intense, dry heat.

Ten thousand bales of tobacco, weighing 200,000 kilos, are used in the year. This tobacco is of the finest quality grown in Macedonia, and here the factory employs its own buyers, who deal direct with the growers. This branch of the business alone employs in Cavalla upwards of four hundred workmen, by whom it is treated, handled, and shipped preparatory to manufacture into cigarettes at Alexandria. Laurens cigarettes are made exclusively from the finest grades. Their delicious aroma is derived solely from the tobacco, no foreign substance being introduced in the form of perfume, spice, or chemical, and every cigarette is hand-made. A declaration to this effect appears in every box sent out by the factory.

The new factory at Alexandria has a floor area of 3,000 square metres. Here eight to nine hundred workmen are employed. In the rolling room alone there are five hundred employés, and the output is from 150,000,000 to 200,000,000 cigarettes per year. The bales of tobacco remain in the Customs sheds in bond, and are taken out daily as required. In these sheds, the factory has tobacco valued at over £E60,000 in bond. After being taken from the bales the leaves are carefully inspected, sorted, and blended by experts. Before being cut, the leaves are sprinkled with carefully filtered water, and everywhere in the factory the same care is exercised to preserve cleanliness. From the blending room, the tobacco is taken to the







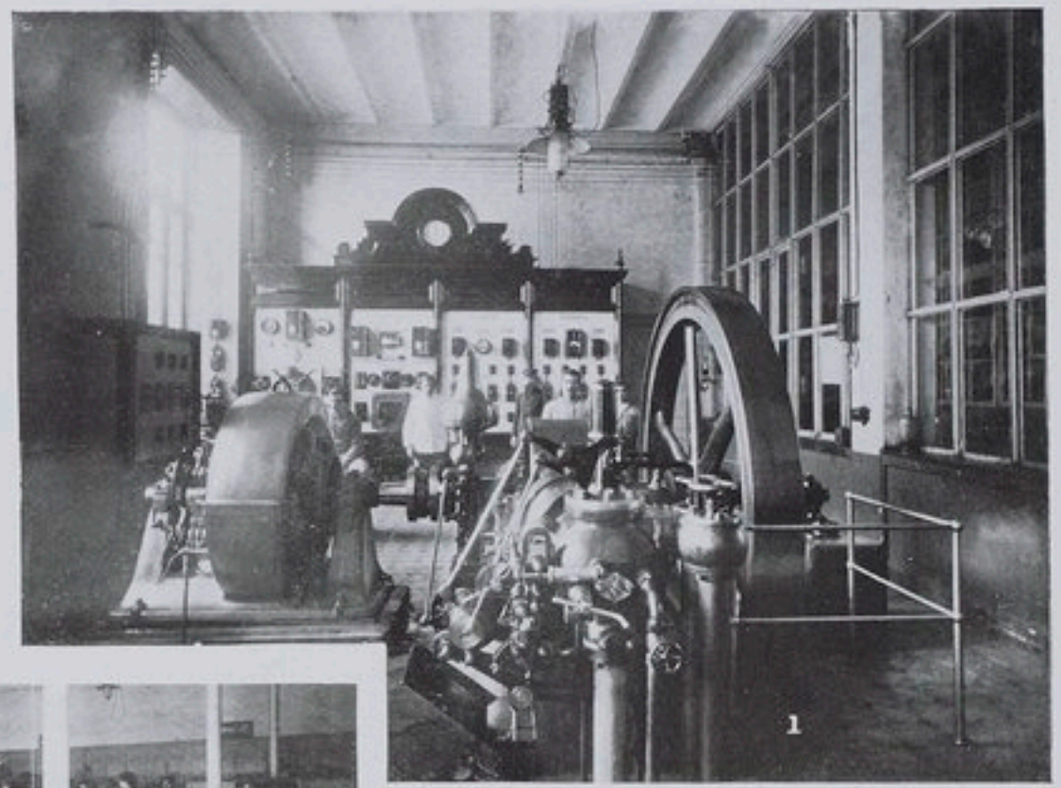


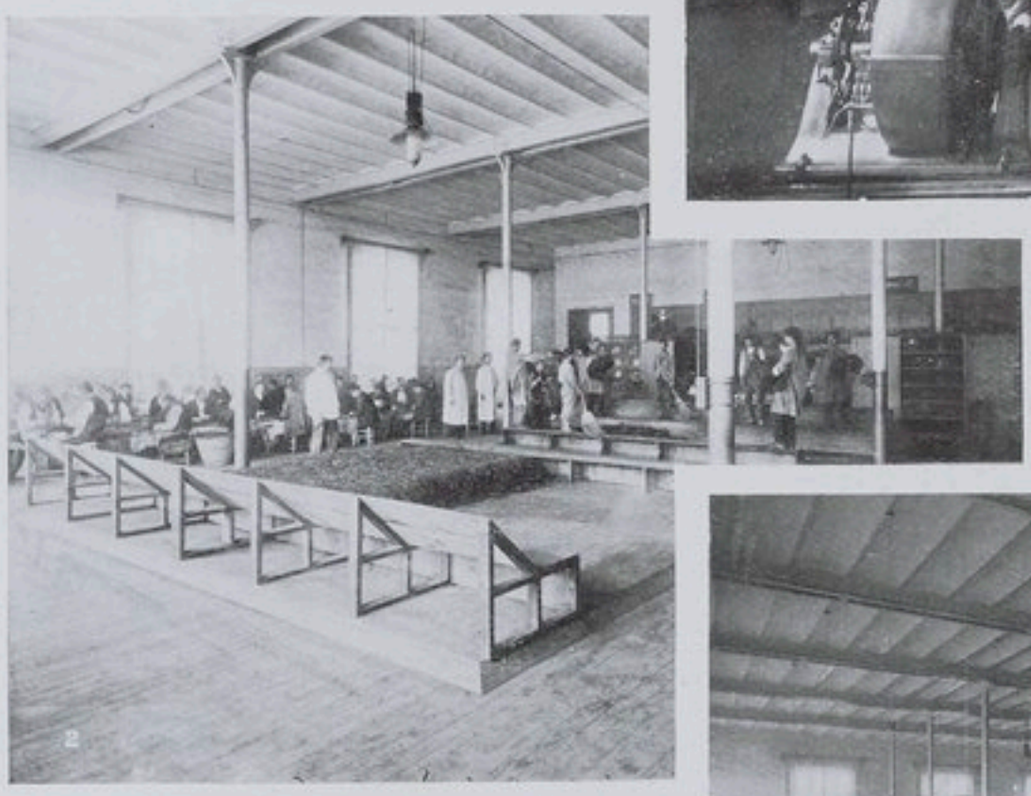




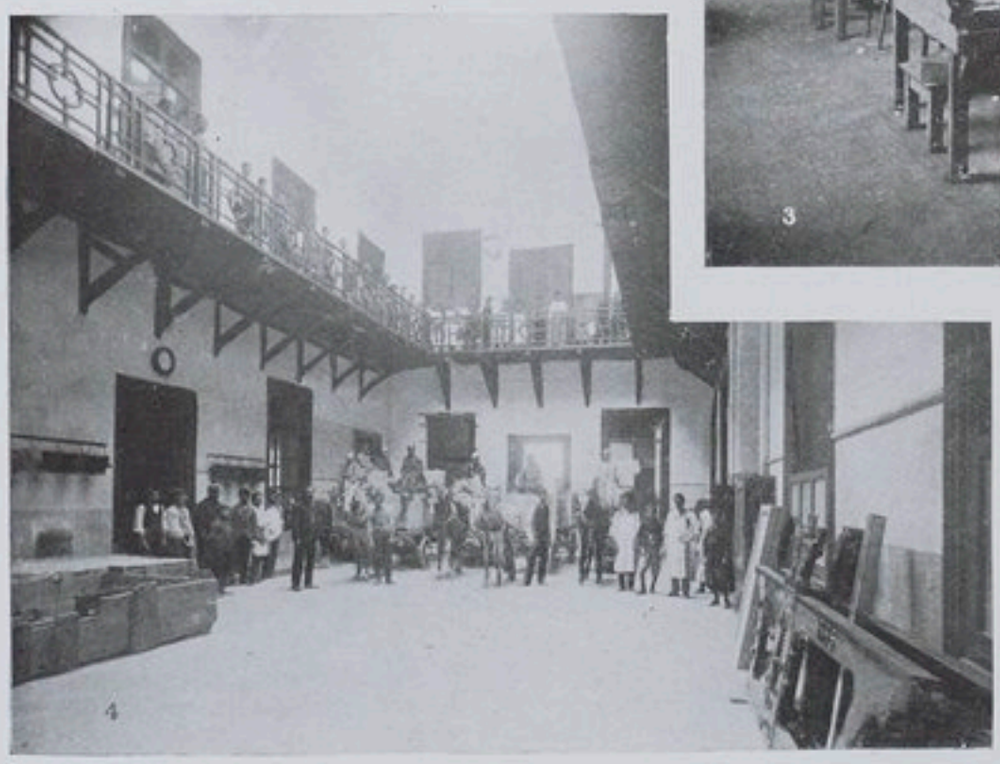
SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME "LE KHEDIVE" (ED. LAURENS).

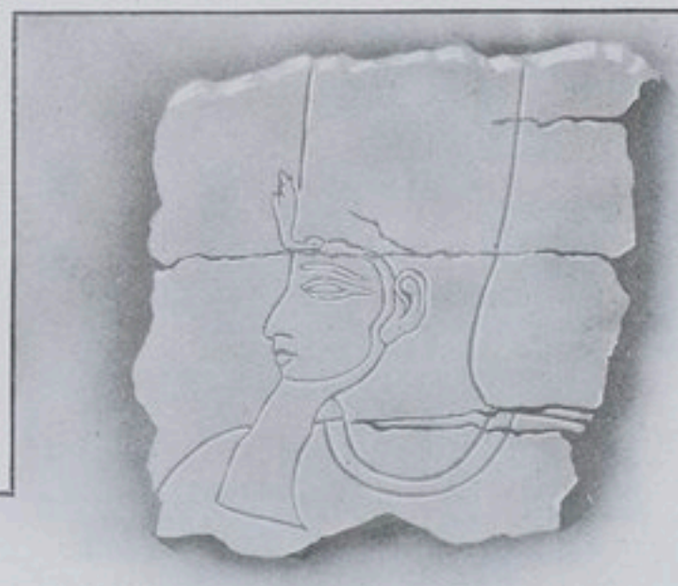
1. Ed. Laurens, founder of the firm. 2. J. H. Laurens. 3. The Factory.
4. Depôt at Kasr el Nil, Cairo. 5. Interior of Kasr el Nil Branch, Cairo. 6. Interior of Port Said Depôt.











SOCIÉTÉ ANONYME "LE KHEDIVE" (ED. LAURENS).

1. Motor and Power Room. 2. Sorting and Blending Room. 3. Rolling Room. 4. Despatching Scene

cutting room. Some of it is cut by machinery, but the finer grades are cut by hand. After being filled and rolled, the cigarettes are taken to the storing and drying room, the drying process taking from ten to fifteen days. The dry air is forced into the room by special engines. Cigarettes coming from the drying room are carefully examined, and all imperfect ones are discarded.

Every possible hygienic refinement and safeguard is observed throughout the factory, which is governed by the strictest rules in connection with the health and personal cleanliness of the employés, a special medical staff being located permanently on the premises. Spittoons are provided everywhere, and promiscuous spitting—so prevalent in Egypt and throughout the Orient—is rigidly forbidden. When an employé leaves the room in which he or she is engaged, for any reason whatever, hands must be washed before resuming work. Any one applying for employment is carefully examined by a doctor, and all have to submit to regular inspection by the head doctor. Any employé showing signs of disease is placed on the sick list and removed from the factory until cured. A special sick fund and pension list is provided for the relief of sick or disabled workmen. Employés do not contribute to this fund. It is provided entirely by the firm, having been founded by the family of the late Ed. Laurens. There is a coffee room on the premises, the profits from which go to the Benevolent Fund.

The factory is open at all times to the inspection of visitors.

The firm are contractors to the *régies* of France, Austria, Hungary, Italy, Spain, and Tunis, and purveyors by special warrants to the King of Italy, the King of Spain, the Royal Courts of Bavaria, &c., and to His Highness the Khedive since 1890. Amongst the numerous awards won by the firm are included nineteen grands prix. Besides the palatial buildings in Rue Laurens, Alexandria, the firm has its own retail rooms as follows:—Cairo, Kasr el Nil Street (opposite Savoy Hotel); Port Said, Rue du Commerce (Savoy Hotel Buildings); Alexandria, 30, Rue Chérif Pacha; Paris, 44, Boulevard Haussmann; Brussels, 15, Rue de Turin (Q.L.); London, W., 44, Old Bond Street. The Company's offices and warehouses at Cavalla (Macedonia) are in Tuillet Baghtsché, and it has established general agencies all over the world.

Fondée en 1888 par Ed. Laurens, la Fabrique de Cigarettes Laurens est considérée à juste titre comme la plus grande et la plus importante d'Egypte. Située rue Laurens, dans le quartier Salah-ed-Din, le plus bel endroit d'Alexandrie, la fabrique occupe une importante série de constructions et forme à elle seule un véritable village construit à la façon moderne. En 1896 l'affaire fut constituée en Société Anonyme au capital de 1.000.000 de francs.

Quelqu'ait été l'agrandissement considérable de la production de la maison et en dépit du développement de la fabrique sur les plans les plus perfectionnés, il n'a point été nécessaire d'augmenter le capital, ce qui prouve l'excellence de l'administration financière de l'entreprise.

La fabrique est si bien installée qu'elle peut se passer entièrement de tout concours extérieur pour ses besoins auxiliaires. Tous travaux d'imprimerie et de gravure ainsi que toute la menuiserie se font dans la fabrique; il y a un service spécial pour la fabrication des boîtes en fer blanc et en carton dans lesquelles sont contenues les cigarettes; il y en a aussi un autre pour la fabrication du papier à cigarettes, avec et sans bouts dorés dans lesquels l'or entre dans la proportion de vingt-deux carats. Une importante installation de machines électriques fournit la lumière et la force motrice nécessaire.

Toutes les machines servant à la fabrication des boîtes, à l'impression sur métal, etc., sont de construction anglaise du dernier modèle et la feuille de Flandres avec laquelle on fait les boîtes vient de Swansea.

C'est leur vieille expérience de l'industrie des tabacs qui a fait choisir aux fondateurs de l'affaire Alexandrie pour siège de leur fabrique. Tous les grands centres de fabrication de cigares et de cigarettes sont situés près de la mer, savoir, à la Havane, la Floride, les Iles Philippines, etc., et aussi autrefois à Constantinople. D'un bout à l'autre de l'année, le climat d'Alexandrie est tempéré par les brises marines, et c'est à l'humidité qui en résulte que la ville, située sur la côte, doit sa supériorité sur Le Caire où les vents qui soufflent constamment du désert pendant les longs mois d'été amènent une chaleur sèche intense.

La fabrique emploie dans l'année dix mille balles de tabac pesant 200.000 kilos. Ce tabac est de toute première qualité et est cultivé en Macédoine où la fabrique a ses acheteurs particuliers qui traitent directement avec les planteurs.

Cette partie de l'affaire occupe a elle seule, à Cavalla, plus de quatre cents ouvriers qui ont à traiter, à manipuler, et à embarquer le tabac avant qu'il soit transformé en cigarettes à Alexandrie. Les cigarettes Laurens ne se font qu'en tabacs de premier ordre. Leur arôme délicieux ne provient que du tabac; on n'y ajoute aucune substance étrangère pour leur donner du parfum, et les cigarettes, qui ne renferment aucune épice ni aucun produit chimique, sont toutes faites à la main.

Chaque boîte qui sort de la fabrique contient une déclaration de garantie à ce sujet.

La fabrique à Alexandrie occupe un emplacement de 3.000 mètres carrés.

On y emploie de huit à neuf cents ouvriers. Rien que dans l'atelier à rouler les cigarettes, on compte 500 employés, et la production annuelle atteint de 150.000.000 à 200.000.000. Les balles de tabac restent entreposées dans les magasins de la douane d'où on les retire chaque jour suivant les besoins. La fabrique possède, entreposés à la douane, des tabacs pour une somme évaluée à 60.000 livres égyptiennes.

Après avoir été retirées des balles, les feuilles sont soigneusement examinées par des experts qui les classent et les mélangent. Avant de les hacher, on arrose soigneusement les feuilles avec de l'eau filtrée, et on observe partout, dans la fabrique, les mêmes soins de propreté. En sortant de la salle à mélanger, le tabac passe dans l'atelier de hachage. On en hache une partie à la machine, mais, pour les qualités supérieures, le hachage se fait à la main.

Une fois remplies et roulées, les cigarettes passent dans la salle d'emmagasinage et de séchage; l'opération du séchage prend de dix à quinze jours. Des machines spéciales font circuler l'air sec au travers de la salle. Au sortir de cette salle de séchage, on examine les cigarettes avec soin et on rejette toutes celles qui ne sont pas parfaites.

On observe d'un bout à l'autre de la fabrique tous les soins et toutes les précautions hygiéniques possibles. Tout le personnel y est soumis aux règlements les plus sévères au point de vue de la santé et de la propreté individuelle des employés et il existe sur la place un service médical en permanence. Il y a des crachoirs partout, et la promiscuité des crachats, si fréquente en Egypte et dans tout l'Orient, est sévèrement interdite. Lorsqu'un employé, homme ou femme, quitte pour une raison quelconque la salle où il travaille, on l'oblige à se laver les mains avant de se remettre au travail.

Toute personne qui sollicite un emploi est examiné soigneusement par un médecin, et tous les employés ont à passer d'une façon régulière la visite chez le docteur en chef. Tout employé qui présente des symptômes de maladie est porté sur la liste des malades et retiré de la fabrique jusqu'à sa guérison. Il existe un fonds spécial pour les malades et une liste spéciale de pensions pour les ouvriers malades ou incapables de travailler. Les employés n'ont pas à souscrire pour ce fonds. C'est la maison qui le fournit en entier en vertu d'une fondation faite par la famille de feu Ed. Laurens.

Il y a dans les locaux une salle où l'on vend du café et les bénéfices qui proviennent de cettte vente sont versés au fonds de bienfaisance.

La fabrique est toujours ouverte aux personnes qui désirent la visiter.

La maison fournit par contrat les régies de France, d'Autriche, de Hongrie, d'Italie, d'Espagne et de Tunis et, par décisions spéciales, le Roi d'Italie, le Roi d'Espagne, la Cour Royale de Bavière, etc., ainsi que Son Altesse le Khédive depuis 1890. On compte, parmi les nombreuses récompenses qu'a obtenues la maison, dix-neuf grands prix. En dehors des bâtiments somptueux de la rue Laurens à Alexandrie, la maison possède ses magasins particuliers pour le détail et qui se subdivisent comme suit: Le Caire, rue Kasr el Nil (en face du Savoy Hôtel); Port Said, rue du Commerce (bâtiments du Savoy Hôtel); Alexandrie, 30, rue Chérif Pacha; Paris, 44, boulevard Haussmann; Bruxelles, 15, rue de Turin (Q.L.); Londres, 44, Old Bond Street, W. Les bureaux et les magasins de la Société à Cavalla (en Macédoine) sont situés place Tuillet Baghtsché, et la maison a établi des agences générales dans le monde entier.

ANGLO-EGYPTIAN CIGARETTE COMPANY.

The Anglo-Egyptian Cigarette Company are one of the leading houses of wholesale manufacturers of cigarettes. They have branches in London, Berlin, Brussels, Frankfort, and Cairo, besides agencies in the principal centres in India, Burma, Siam, Straits Settlements, China, Australia, South, East, and West Africa, the Dutch East Indies, North and South America, Switzerland, Holland, Austria-Hungary, Denmark, Scandinavia, &c. They are purveyors to the Khedivial Family, H.M. the King of Belgium, H.I.M. the Sultan of Turkey, H.I.M. the Shah of Persia, H.R.H. the Hereditary Princess of Prussia, H.I.H. Prince Arisugawa of Japan, H.H. the Sultan of Zanzibar, H.H. the Landgrave of Hesse, and other notable people. They supply a large number of clubs and army and navy messes all over the world. The firm have secured numerous awards and diplomas at Sydney, Melbourne, Amsterdam, Breslau, St. Louis, and other great expositions.

The founder of the concern was Mr. Stanislaus Przedecki, who established himself at Breslau in 1860. He was followed by his son, Mr. Joseph Przedecki, who brought the Breslau business to such a flourishing state that it is now one of the largest of its kind on the Continent, with an output of about 300,000,000 cigarettes per annum. Mr. J. Przedecki afterwards associated himself with his brother, Mr. Ludwig Przedecki. They

established branches in Berlin, Munich, Frankfort and London, and opened a factory at Brussels, and in 1894 they decided to secure a share of the Egyptian cigarette trade. Accordingly, Mr. Joseph Przedecki, came to Cairo and opened up a factory at Abdin, appointing Mr. Max Przedecki, another brother, as manager. Business increased, and in course of time a larger factory was erected on land purchased by the Company at Bab el Louk; but even this eventually proved too small for the growing requirements, and in 1906 a house and ground were acquired in the Sharia el Manna at Shoubrah. A new wing was added to the building, and the change has been marked by a still further increase in the output. The Cairo factory now exports about twenty million cigarettes each year, while the local sales amount to some three or four million. All the cigarettes bearing the well-known "Anhuri Shu" trademark are handmade from hand-cut Turkish tobacco, no machinery whatever being employed. The brands of the Anglo-Egyptian Cigarette Company are particularly renowned, not only for their excellent flavour but for their "keeping" qualities in humid climates, owing to a special method of air-tight soldering of the tins in which they are exported. The Company also make a speciality of natural straw-tipped, natural straw-tube, and "Hinoki"-tipped cigarettes. Their retail branch in Cairo is situated in the Rue Kasr el Nil.

A change in the proprietorship was made in 1902, when Mr. Ludwig Przedecki retired from the firm and was succeeded by Mr. Max Przedecki, who has since proceeded to Europe to take over the management of the Brussels factory. The senior partner, Mr. Joseph Przedecki, is Consul General for Turkey at Breslau. Since the beginning of 1908 the co-management of the business in Egypt has been entrusted to E. Drechsler and Albert Subke.

M. MELACHRINO & CO.

WHEN the monopoly of the tobacco trade in Turkey was granted to a limited company some twenty-five years ago, numbers of Greeks who were engaged in the cigarette-making industry in that country migrated to Egypt. Among them was Mr. M. Melachrino, who established a factory at Cairo, and thus became one of the pioneers of the Egyptian cigarette industry. His partner in the venture was Mr. E. Raissi, who had long resided in the country, and to whom Mr. Melachrino was related by marriage. The factory was opened in 1884 in premises situated near the Turf Club, in the Chareh el Maghraby. Little progress was made until 1886, in which year Mr. Melachrino paid a visit to England, and was so successful in pushing the business that the prosperity of the firm was thenceforward assured. Trade gradually extended, and to-day large shipments of the company's cigarettes are made to Great Britain, Gibraltar, South Africa, China (Hongkong, Shanghai, and Tientsin), Canada, Australia, the Argentine and Colombia. The firm hold the monopoly for supplying Egyptian cigarettes to Italy and Austria-Hungary; and are purveyors to H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, H.R.H. Prince Henry of Prussia, the Italian Government, Lord Kitchener, the Governor of Bombay, and H.M. the King of Portugal, as well as to numerous courts, embassies, clubs and regimental messes.

The local trade is very large, six million cigarettes being sold annually in Alexandria, and two millions in Cairo. The total output of cigarettes reached its maximum of about sixty millions a year towards the latter end of the last century, and in 1900 it was necessary to build larger premises, for which purpose a site in the Chareh el Manakh was acquired. Since that date, however, the firm have suffered, in common with others engaged in the industry, from the effects of heavy duties imposed on cigarettes in Germany, Australia, Canada, South Africa and other countries, and the output has fallen to thirty-five millions a year, while the number of cigarette-makers employed—at one time upwards of two hundred—has been correspondingly reduced.

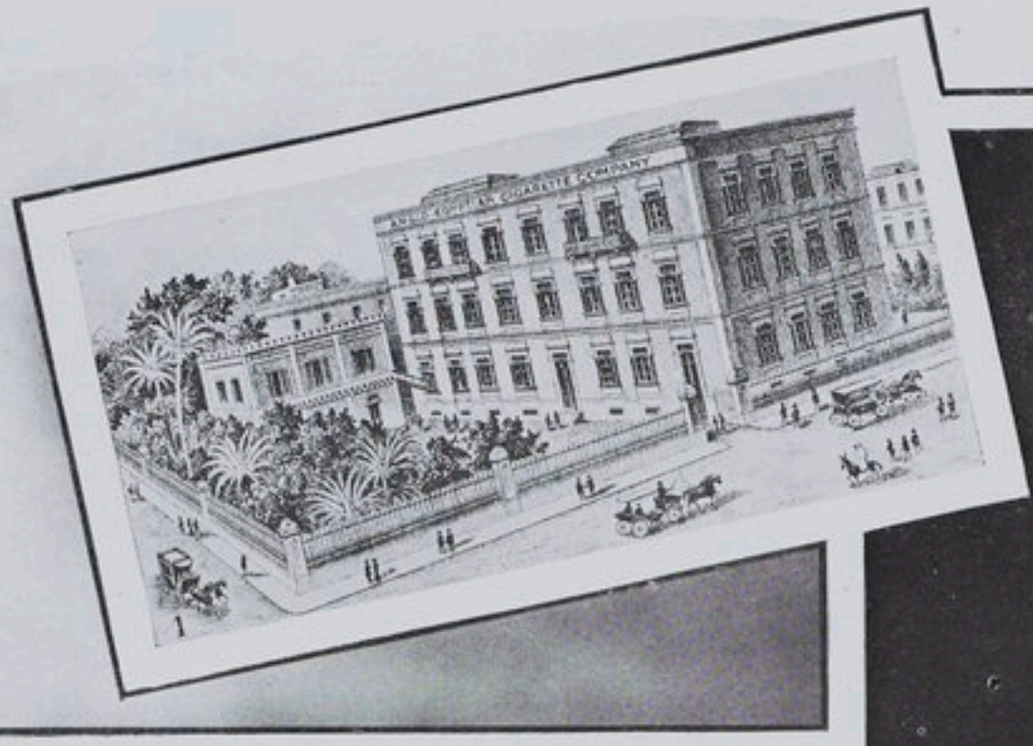
Early in 1904 Mr. Melachrino established a factory in New York, and so popular are the firm's cigarettes becoming in the United States that already three hundred cigarette-makers and sixty packers are required to cope with the demand, which has reached eighty million cigarettes a year.

The tobacco used by the firm is grown in Turkey in Europe and Turkey in Asia, the chief markets being Smyrna, Cavalla, and Samsun. The leaf is carefully selected and the raw tobacco is brought to Egypt in bales averaging about 25 kilos each, wrapped in a

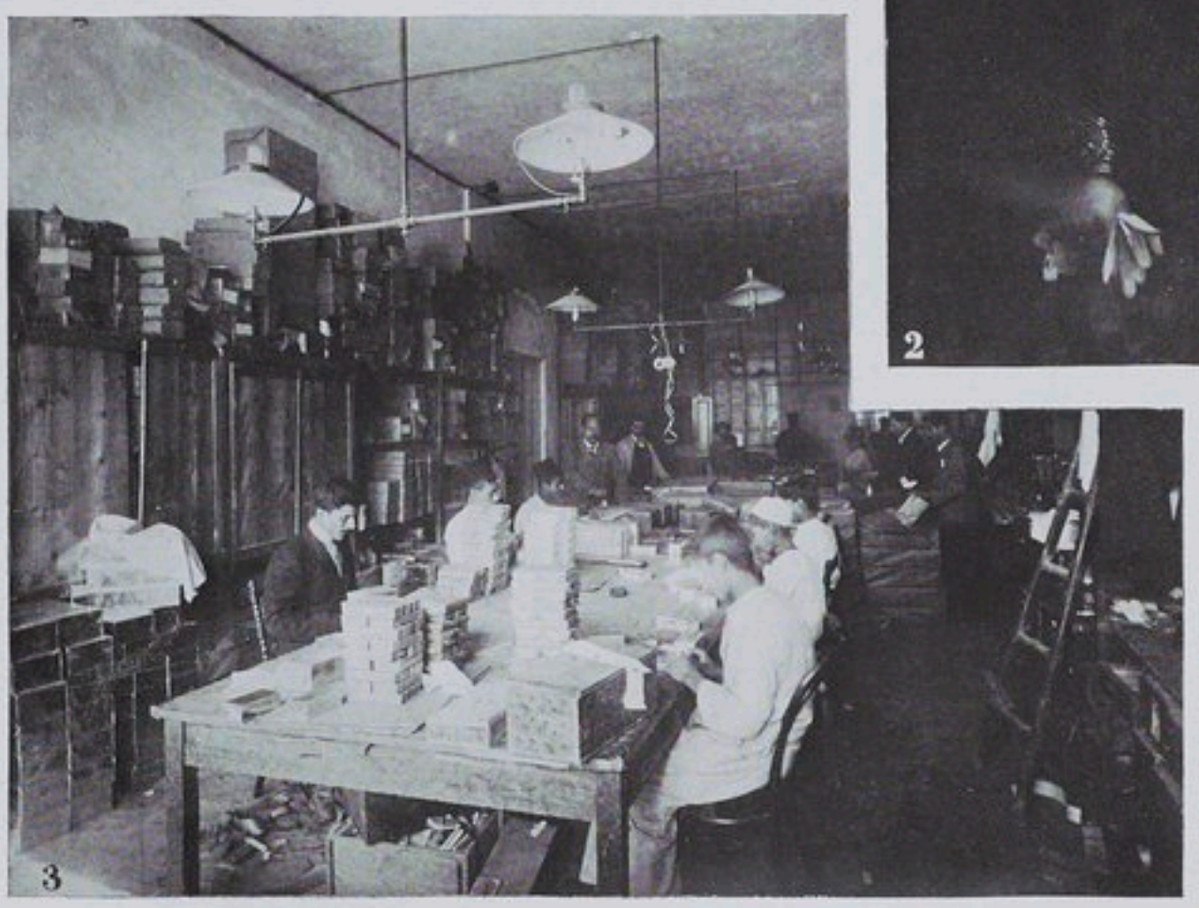


M. MELACHRINO & CO.

1. PACKING ROOM. 2. SORTING ROOM. 3. THE FACTORY.









THE ANGLO-EGYPTIAN CIGARETTE COMPANY.

1. Factory.
2. Joseph Przedecki, founder of firm.
3. Packing Room.
4. The Cigarette Manufacturer's Room.

coarse cloth of camel's hair. At the factory the leaves are sorted, graded, and blended; and the various blends are then passed through the cutting machines, of which there are two, each with a capacity of 400 kilos a day. This is the only process in the whole course of manufacture in which mechanical means are employed. At the beginning of each day the tobacco is weighed out to the cigarette-makers, a given quantity being allowed for making a given number of cigarettes. The cigarettes are carefully examined by the foremen, and are then spread on shelves to dry, ready for packing and export. The cigarettes are made in five leading qualities, denoted by numbers, and each quality may be had in five sizes, denoted by names.

The firm have branches in London, Calcutta, Bombay, Leipzig and Alexandria. In Egypt the firm is closely identified with many public movements, utilitarian and philanthropic, and is represented on the British Chambers of Commerce at Cairo and Alexandria.

M. Melachrino, founder and head of the firm, is proud of the fact that, though a Greek by birth, he is now a British subject. At the present time he is in the United States supervising the factory recently established by the firm in New York. He was born in Constantinople, and received his education in Lyons and London. In 1880 he married a sister of Mr. E. Raissi, his partner. When in Cairo he lives in a suite of rooms over the factory in the Chareh el Manakh, and he has also a splendid villa at Ramleh. He takes great interest in all the philanthropic movements supported by the firm, and only recently has established a school for Greeks in New York.

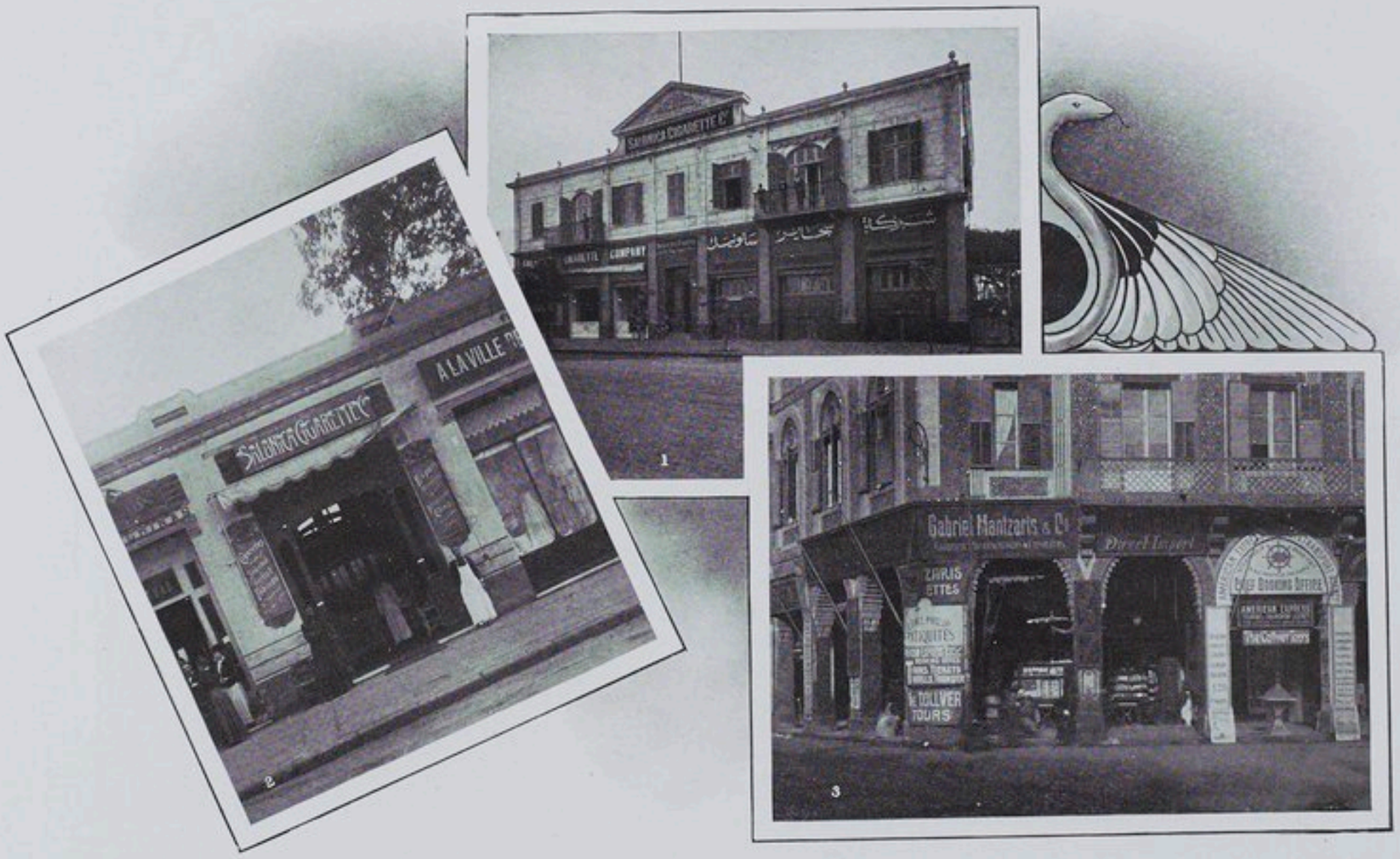
E. Raissi, partner in the firm, came to Egypt on leaving school, and subsequently started business in the interior as a cotton merchant. He has contributed much to the success of the firm of Melachrino & Co., with which he has been connected ever since its establishment, and is now managing director in Cairo. Mr. Raissi, who is fifty years of ago, married, in 1889, a daughter of a Government official in Smyrna, his native place, and has one son, now at school in Zurich, and three daughters. He owns a magnificent house at Ramleh, in Alexandria.

SALONICA CIGARETTE COMPANY, LTD.

THE rapid growth of the business carried on by the Salonica Cigarette Company, Ltd., is clearly shown by the fact that in five years their capital has been increased from £24,000 to £100,000, while their output has grown from 100,000 cigarettes a month to 4,000,000. The Company already enjoy a world-wide reputation. They are represented in Great Britain, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium and all other European countries, and in the principal centres of America, South Africa and India; and they are purveyors to the French, Austrian, Italian and Tunisian monopolies. The factory at Shoubra is specially constructed in order to ensure that the tobacco is stored, and the cigarettes made, under the most favourable conditions. They have large depôts in Cavalla and Xanthe, from whence the finest Turkish tobacco is procured, and only the choicest leaf is used by them. They have retail shops in Cairo and Alexandria, and in most of the provincial centres in Egypt and the Soudan. Their patrons include H.H. the Khedive, and officers of the British Army of Occupation. The Salonica Cigarette Company are proprietors of Messrs. Gabriel Mantzaris & Co., purveyor of cigarettes to H.M. the King of Wurtemburg, whose premises are opposite Shepheard's Hotel, Cairo, and Simon Arzt, Port Said, purveyor to H.H. the Khedive. The managing director of the company is Mr. R. Misrachi.

ISAAC ISMALUN & CO.

THE firm of Isaac Ismalun & Co. were established in Alexandria in the year 1874. The factory was removed to Cairo in 1908 in order to continue the manufacture of cigarettes under more favourable climatical conditions. Their cigarettes enjoy an excellent reputation in England and the British Colonies, and the firm are also doing an important trade in Sweden. They are, by special appointment, purveyors to H.M. the King of England, and to many prominent members of the British nobility.



SALONICA CIGARETTE COMPANY.

1. THE FACTORY. 2. RETAIL SHOP IN SHARIA KAMEL. 3. RETAIL SHOP OPPOSITE THE SAVOY HOTEL.

KYRIAZI FRÈRES

THE firm of Kyriazi Frères dates its existence back to the earliest days of the cigarette industry in Egypt. The founder, Mr. Jean Kyriazi, entered, in 1866, the service of his maternal uncle, Mr. Alex. J. Alexopoulo, a wholesale tobacconist and tobacco manu-

facturer at Smyrna, and in 1870 he succeeded in establishing in that town a factory of his own. Four years later, when the Turkish Government forbade the free trade in cut tobacco unless carried on by specially recognised manufacturers, Mr. Jean Kyriazi migrated to Cairo, and, in partnership with Mr. Eustace Halikiopoulo, established a business, importing tobacco in bulk from various parts of Turkey, and selling it at wholesale prices to dealers, and also manufacturing cigarettes.

The partnership was dissolved in 1880, through the retirement of Mr Halikiopoulo, and Mr. Jean Kyriazi continued the business himself until 1885. In that year he was joined by his brothers, Epaminondas and Eustace, as partners in the concern which took the name of Kyriazi Frères.

During the crop season, when leaf purchasing takes place, Mr. Jean Kyriazi goes to those tobacco-producing centres and personally superintends the purchase of the finest leaf. Owing largely to this the cigarettes manufactured by them won for themselves a high reputation, and Kyriazi Frères have been awarded numerous diplomas at Chicago, Bordeaux, Amsterdam, Antwerp and elsewhere.

Mr. Jean Kyriazi, who, since 1907, when one of his brothers died and the other retired, has been sole proprietor of the business, is a son of the late Demetrio Kyriazi, formerly a tobacco merchant of Volo, Thessaly. He was born in 1853, and he married, in 1886, Margitza, a daughter of Const. Mattheopoulo, a farmer, of Mount Pelion, Thessaly. He has two sons, Damiano, who is studying law in Europe, and Constantine, a student in the upper class of the Cairo Gymnasium, and four daughters.



1. JEAN KYRIAZI.
2. KYRIAZI FRÈRES' FACTORY.



1. F. M. CORTESI.
2. FRANC. M. CORTESI'S PREMISES, RUE KAMEL.

Under the new combination, the selling of leaf was discontinued, and the attention of the brothers confined to the cigarette industry, which quickly became a prosperous one. The output rose to one hundred and eighty millions of cigarettes yearly, but, owing to increased import duties in Germany, the principal outlet of their products, the export of the cigarettes has lately undergone a diminution.

The original factory was a small building in the principal thoroughfare of Cairo; but in 1896, a site of 3,000 square metres was purchased at Tewfikieh, and upon it a special factory, with all modern equipments, was erected. The firm Kyriazi Frères have storehouses in Cavalla, Smyrna and Samsoun.

F. M. CORTESI.

It was in 1868 that Mr. Franc. M. Cortesi left his native country, Greece, in order to establish himself in Egypt as a cigarette manufacturer, and, thanks to his patience and perseverance, he has since succeeded in acquiring a substantial share in the tobacco industry. His present premises, which he acquired in 1875, are situated opposite Shepheard's Hotel, in the busiest thoroughfare in Cairo. Throughout the winter season, numbers of distinguished customers visit the establishment, adding their names to a lengthening roll of patrons, which includes H.I.M. the Czar of Russia, the Grand Dukes Serge and Paul of Russia, H.R.H. the Duke and Duchess of Connaught, several members of the Khedivial Family, H.R.H. Prince Chira of Siam, and the Maharajahs of Vizianagram and Bikanir. Mr. Cortesi still manufactures a special brand of cigarettes to commemorate the visit of the Prince of Wales (now H.M. King Edward VII.) to Cairo in 1889. The Duke of Connaught also twice visited the premises.

Mr. Cortesi has had great experience in the difficult work of buying tobacco, and thanks to his skill in the selection of the leaf, he has been able to maintain a very high standard of excellence in all the cigarettes which bear his name. No machinery other than the skilful fingers of expert cigarette-makers is employed in the factory. The output varies annually from four to five million cigarettes, quite a large proportion being specially made to order for clients in all parts of the world. Numerous diplomas and gold medals have been awarded to the factory at various international expositions.

A son of the late Michael Cortesi, a contractor, Mr. Cortesi was born in 1847 in the Island of Ios, in the Grecian Archipelago, and he still spends six months each year in his native land. In 1889 he was elected mayor of the island, and he is now serving his third term of four years in that office. He is a knight of the Grecian Order of the Saviour. He married, in 1880, Mary, a daughter of Spyridian Lorenziades.

ISHERWOOD BROTHERS.

It is from the district of Xanthe that Isherwood Brothers, of Cairo, derive most of the leaf used in the manufacture of their well-known brands of cigarettes. Neither trouble nor expense is spared in keeping their products up to standard. Only the finest tobacco is purchased, and by the exercise of more than ordinary care in the various processes of sorting, blending, and cutting, the firm are enabled to produce a cigarette not excelled by that of any other maker. All their cigarettes are hand-rolled, and for export they are packed in air-tight tins of various dimensions, protected by Khedivial Government stamps, thus guaranteeing the genuineness of the contents.

Messrs. Isherwood's export trade amounts to about four and a half million cigarettes a year. They are purveyors by Royal warrant to H.I.M. the Czar of Russia; to H.E. Lord Minto, Viceroy of India; and many other distinguished personages. The firm is represented in the principal towns of Great Britain, India, Canada, China (Hong Kong and Shanghai), Chili, the Argentine Republic, and other parts of the world, and thanks to the interest taken by their representatives in studying climatic conditions, they are enabled to ship their cigarettes so packed as to meet the exigencies of all temperatures.

Messrs. Isherwood's factory occupies a corner site in the Sharia Dawaween (the "Whitehall" of Cairo), and the retail establishment is in the Sharia el Maghraby, three doors from the Turf Club. The general manager is Mr. Augusto Petrucci, who has been with the firm for many years.

MASPERO FRÈRES, LTD.

Founded with British capital, the firm of Maspero Frères, Ltd., was established in 1905, for the purpose of manufacturing Egyptian cigarettes. In 1908 the firm acquired an interest in the Alma Cigarettes Company.

Maspero Frères, Ltd., are makers of the three well-known brands—"Bouton Rouge," "Felucca," and "Nilometer"—which are exported in large quantities to all quarters of the world. They have their own leaf-buying organisation in Turkey, and the culture of tobacco on many of the Turkish estates is maintained with a view to be supplied solely to the factory at Cairo. The firm has a luxuriously fitted shop at Port Said, and a branch establishment at Alexandria, besides numerous agencies and depôts throughout Egypt and the Soudan. The large and beautifully decorated city depôt in Cairo, in Rue Kasr el Nil, near the Savoy Hotel, possesses a fine stock of Havana cigars, English and American tobaccos and cigarettes; also a full line of smokers' requisites. Maspero Frères are suppliers to the leading hotels in Cairo, including Shepheard's, Gezireh Palace, the Semiramis, and the hotels of Upper Egypt; also the Nile river steamers, and the wagons-lits. They count amongst their customers members of the Royal family and the nobility, and they also supply the French and Italian *régies*.

Throughout the Far East, the firm's brands have established themselves, and connoisseurs declare a preference for the "Bouton Rouge" for a strong smoke, "Felucca" for those who like medium strength, and "Nilometer" for mild palates.

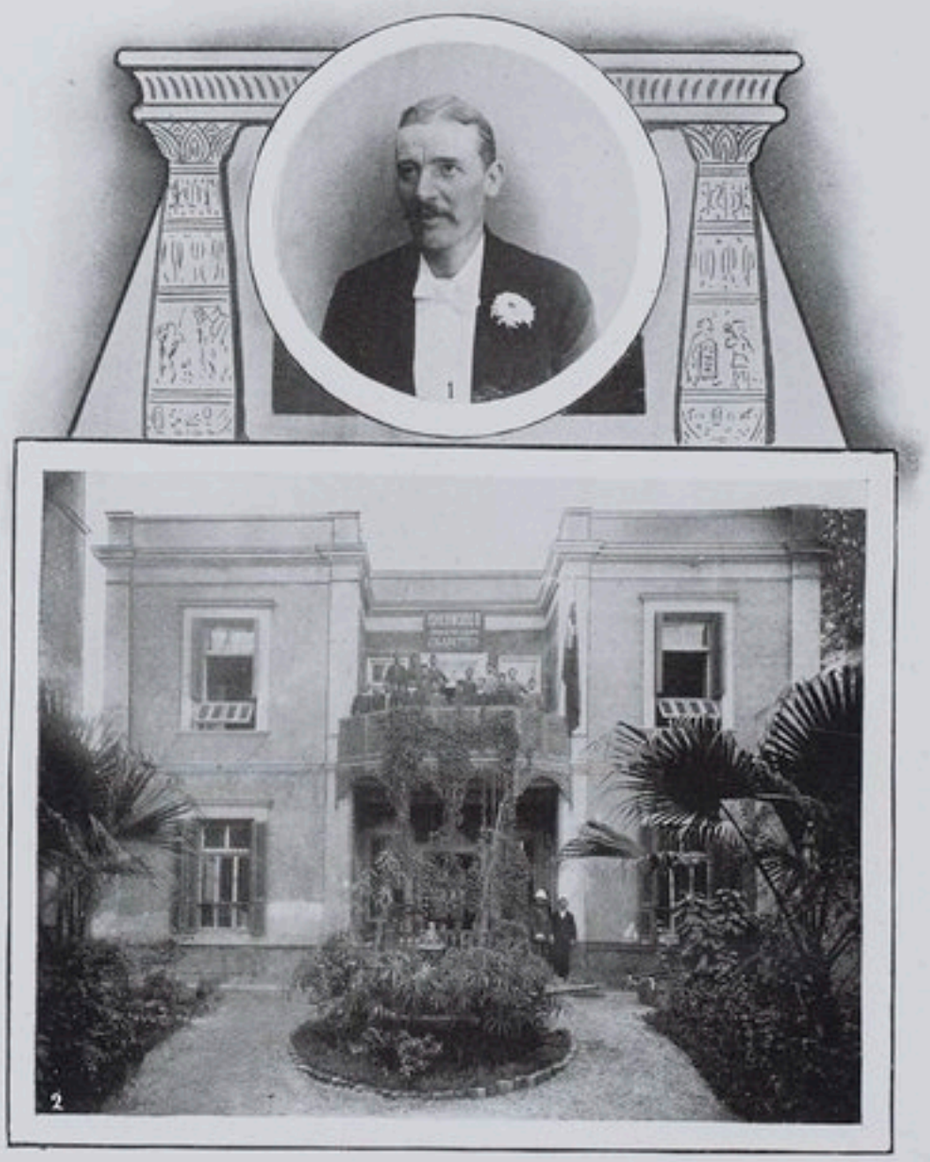
The factory at Shoubra is within easy reach of the main railway station at Cairo, and is worthy of a visit. It was specially designed by Mr. Leon Steinton, the well-known Cairo architect, and built by Messrs. Garozzo & Figli, contractors. The electric installation was laid down by Mather & Platt, Ltd., and the engines were furnished by Tangyes, Ltd. The firm have also their own appliances for the extinction of fire.

Maspero Frères have their own printing and box-making plant, and the box-making machinery manufactures hundreds of boxes an hour. The cigarettes may be obtained in boxes of ten and upwards, and are done up in the most attractive form.

Mr. J. D. Gilliam is the managing director, and Mr. R. Hooper the assistant manager. The head office of the firm is at 86, Strand, London.

HADJETIAN BROS.

From small beginnings N. and A. Hadjetian, Sharia Wagh el Birket, Cairo, have built up an extensive business as cigarette manufacturers and tobacco dealers, exporting large quantities of cigarettes to the Soudan and to the principal cities of Europe and America, and importing cigars, cigarettes, tobacco, and smokers' requisites of all descriptions. Their factory, opened in 1896, is busy throughout the twenty-four hours, two shifts of men being employed, and their output has now reached 150,000 cigarettes a day. Both brothers have travelled considerably, and speak several languages.



1. THE LATE GIFFORD ISHERWOOD.
2. ISHERWOOD BROS' RETAIL STORES.

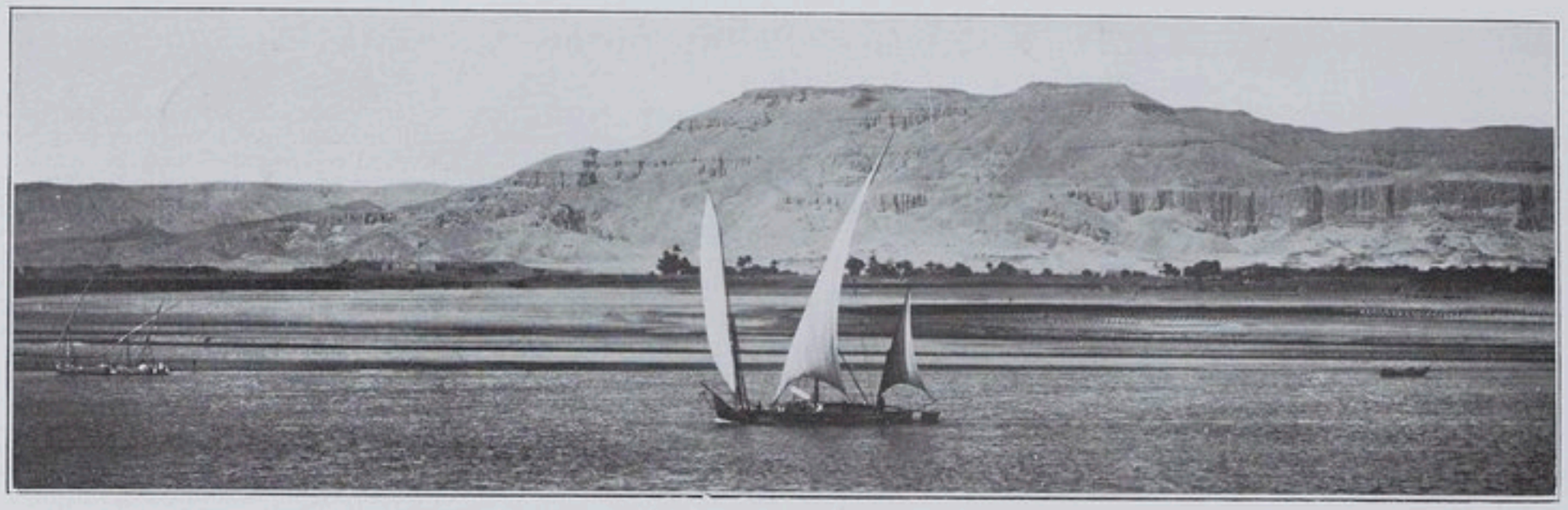
NICOLAS D. TOCCOS.

The firm engaged in the manufacture of the celebrated Toccos Egyptian cigarettes has now been established for wellnigh sixty years. Nicolas Toccos, a native of Macedonia and Demetrius Toccos, the father of the present proprietor, were the founders of the enterprise. They started trading as general merchants and cigarette makers in 1851, Nicolas Toccos opening a branch in Alexandria, while Demetrius had control of the firm's interests in Cavalla, the chief tobacco growing centre of Turkey. Upon the death of his uncle, Nicolas, and the retirement of his father, Nicolas D. Toccos became sole proprietor and reorganised the whole of the business. Born in Cavalla and having spent all his life in those districts, he was able to bring a long experience and wide knowledge to bear on the conduct of the trade. The results are apparent. Under his able supervision the business has increased by leaps and bounds, and the Toccos cigarettes are now known in Egypt and in all the principal countries in the world.

The firm import only the best tobacco and obtain it through their own house at Cavalla. Their headquarters are at Alexandria, their factory being situated in the Place Mohamed Ali, and their chief sales depôts in the Place Mohamed Ali and the Rue Chérif Pacha. They have also a number of other branches in Alexandria, Cairo, Tantah, Zagazig and Mansourah, and agencies in almost every village in Egypt. The tobacco is blended by experts who have been trained to the work from their earliest days, and all their

cigarettes are made by hand. The firm employ in their factory alone something like 150 workmen; of these 50 are constantly employed in making the cigarettes. There are 15 trained specialists to classify the tobaccos, and five men to cut it according to requirements. The most popular brands of cigarettes turned out at the factory are perhaps the "Shamrock," "High Life," "Extra Fine," "Yenidje," and "Mahala." Particular attention is paid to cleanliness in the factory.

La maison engagée dans la célèbre manufacture des Cigarettes Egyptiennes Toccos, a été établie il y a environ soixante ans. Nicolas Toccos, natif de Macédoine, et Démétrius Toccos, le père du propriétaire actuel, ont été les fondateurs de cette entreprise. Ils ont commencé leur commerce comme marchands et fabricants en 1851. Nicolas Toccos ouvrit une succursale à Alexandrie pendant que Démétrius avait le contrôle de la maison à Cavalla, le centre de la culture du tabac en Turquie. A la mort de son père et la retraite de son oncle, Nicolas D. Toccos devint le seul propriétaire et réorganisa toute la maison. Né à Cavalla et ayant passé toute sa vie dans les districts où pousse le tabac qui forme l'industrie de la population, il acquit par ce fait une longue expérience et de grandes connaissances pour conduire son commerce. Les résultats sont apparents. Sous sa direction intelligente la maison rapidement pris de l'accroissement, et les cigarettes sont connues maintenant en Egypte et dans les principaux pays du monde. La maison importe seulement les meilleurs tabacs et les obtient de leur maison à Cavalla. La maison principale est à Alexandrie, la manufacture est située à la place Mohamed Ali, et leurs magasins principaux à la rue Chérif Pacha. Ils ont aussi d'autres maisons à Alexandrie, au Caire, à Tantah, à Zagazig et à Mansourah et des agences dans la plupart des villages d'Egypte. Le tabac est mélangé par des experts qui ont été préparés à ce travail depuis leur première jeunesse. Toutes les cigarettes sont faites à la main. La maison occupe dans sa manufacture seulement à peu près cent cinquante hommes; de ceux-ci cinquante sont toujours employés à faire les cigarettes. Il y en a quinze spécialement employés à classifier les tabacs et quinze hommes à les couper selon qu'ils doivent l'être. Les marques populaires de la manufacture de cigarettes sont: "Le Shamrock," "High Life," "Extra Fine," "Yénidjé" et "Mahala" Des soins particuliers sont apportés quant à la propreté de la manufacture.



THE RIVER BETWEEN LUXOR AND THEBES.

INFORMATION FOR TOURISTS.

EGYPT is pre-eminently a country for tourists; and it is yearly becoming more and more a resort and place of residence for those who have the time and means to escape from the rigours and murk of the winter season of northern Europe to this land of perpetual sunshine. With its perfect climate during the cooler season of the year (from October to May), its rich stores of antiquities, the scenery of its famous river, the varied amusements provided in abundance at the principal centres, the interest of the native life, and, for sportsmen, the big-game shooting in the regions further south, the country of the Pharaohs is an ideal land in which to spend a holiday.

No other territory upon this round globe on which mortals toil and suffer and rejoice can rival it in attractions for all sorts and conditions of men. The warm dry climate is especially suitable for invalids, particularly those suffering from lung diseases, rheumatism, or any of the physical inflictions engendered by the damp and chilly weather which is the chief drawback to existence in the British Isles; and in this country such unfortunates will find sanatoria situated in most pleasant surroundings and equipped with every comfort and modern convenience. Here they can bask in the glorious sunshine, forgetting their pains, and interesting themselves to such extent as they please in the round of gaieties always proceeding during the Egyptian season, or spending the days in luxurious, dreamlike leisure.

And for those who are "run down" or who are otherwise suffering from nervous derangement, so common in these strenuous days, there is no better tonic and restorative than a trip to Egypt during the winter months. The change of scene, the wonders of a land that possesses the oldest known history, as well as numerous magnificent architectural remains of a storied past that stretches back to prehistoric times, the novel and awesome sensations imparted by excursions into the silent desert, the bustle and many-coloured life of Oriental towns, the gay good humour and cosmopolitan friendliness that characterise the ceaseless and varied pleasure-gatherings of tourists from all parts of the civilised world—all combine, with the peerless climate, to restore the shaken or shattered nerves, revive the jaded spirits, arouse the flagging interest, and bring back the lost zest in existence. And if the invalid and the temporarily wornout may find pleasant rest and recuperation in this wondrous land of sunshine, life, and colour, how much more fully may the robust pleasure-seeker and holiday-maker, globe-trotter and sightseer, find diversified and active enjoyment here "where every prospect pleases" with a new interest and every effort is made to ensure comfort for the tourist in residence or travelling, where the most complete arrangements are made to satisfy the passion for sight-seeing which seizes upon every visitor to this storied strand, where nights of still beauty, moonlit or starlit, succeed days of cloudless splendour in uninterrupted succession for weeks and months on end, where charming and lively society of the very best type is to be found, and various forms of amusement may be freely indulged in.

If the visitor to Egypt have something more than a superficial taste for antiquities, it is hardly necessary to say that he could spend years in this land of the Sphinx and the Pyramids in examining its treasures of the past—buried cities, ruined temples, and other monuments of remote times, many of which, whose sites even are yet uncharted, probably still remain to be brought to light from under the mounds that have accumulated on them during the course of the ages since they ceased to be known of men. With its historic traditions, with its remains of a civilisation and craftsmanship more ancient than any existing record can embrace, Egypt, while on the one hand it possesses natural charms that are far older than any work of man's hand and yet are never-fading, as fresh to-day as when man first stepped out of the cradle of the human race (as we know it), on the other is a land of mystic historic charm and awesome human interest, over which rests the ever-haunting, all-pervading, all-compelling spell of the desert.

STEAMERS AND FARES.

The first question which arises in connection with a projected trip to Egypt is, of course, how to get there. Assuming the tourist proceeds from England, there is a choice of several routes. If the all-sea route is preferred—and perhaps this is the most comfortable, as it is the most leisurely and the cheapest way of travelling—passengers can book by either the Peninsular and Oriental (weekly) or the Orient Royal Mail Lines (fortnightly) from Tilbury or Tilbury Dock, which is reached by train from Liverpool Street and St. Pancras Stations, London. The day of departure from Tilbury is Friday. The Egyptian port of disembarkation by these lines is Port Said, whence the traveller proceeds by rail to Cairo, the capital city, 150 miles distant. In addition to these services, steamers of the British India Line leave London for Port Said every fourteen days, while from Liverpool the Bibby Line and the Moss Line run steamers, the former for Port Said every other Thursday, the latter for Alexandria about every ten days. P. Henderson & Co. and Ellerman's City and Hall Lines also have regular services between Liverpool and Port Said, the former fortnightly and the latter about every ten days, in addition to which there is Ellerman's Papayanni Line about fortnightly from Liverpool to Alexandria; all at cheap fares. Then there is the Norddeutscher Lloyd, whose fine large boats leave Southampton for Port Said every fortnight on the China service, and monthly on the Australian service. The all-sea voyage from England to Port Said occupies from twelve to fifteen days, according to the line chosen, and the fares are:—£19 first class and £13 second, by the Orient and Norddeutscher Lloyd; £19 first class and £13 second by the Peninsular and Oriental; £17 first class by the Bibby Line; £11 or £14 first class by the Anchor, according to steamer; and £14 by the Moss and the Henderson Lines. The Moss Line carries second-class passengers for £9; and the charge by the Ellerman Line is from £10 10s. to £14 first class. Some of these fares are subject to a surtax of 10 per cent. levied by the steamship companies on account of the advance in the cost of coal and ship's supplies.

The shortest and quickest route from England to Egypt is by the P. & O. mail express across the Continent to Brindisi, and

thence on by the P. & O. steamer to Port Said. By this route the Mediterranean is crossed in about fifty hours, but the sea will frequently be found choppy in the Adriatic. The through journey from London is accomplished in four and a half days, the passenger leaving London on Friday night, Brindisi on Sunday night, and arriving at Port Said on the following Wednesday morning in time to catch the midday express train thence to Cairo. The through fare by the Brindisi route is £22 9s. 11*d*. The P. & O. also run an express transcontinental service to Marseilles, whence this Company's boats leave every Friday, arriving at Port Said on the following Tuesday. If this route is selected passages should be booked well in advance, especially in the late autumn, when the annual migration from England to the East sets in, and the steamers are likely to be crowded. The Orient and the Norddeutscher Lloyd boats also convey passengers from Marseilles to Egypt, the fare by the Orient liners from that port to Port Said being £13 first class, £9 second class; and by the Norddeutscher Lloyd to Alexandria (leaving Marseilles every Wednesday, and Naples every Friday), £14 first class and £10 second, from the French port; £12 first class and £9 second, from Naples. The Messageries Maritimes Company, too, maintain a weekly service of well-equipped steamers between Marseilles and Alexandria, leaving the former port every Thursday, and arriving at the latter every Tuesday; also between Marseilles and Port Said, with sailings about six times a month. The fare across the Mediterranean by this French line is £14 first class and £10 12s. second. Fares vary according to the season, and the rates we have quoted are mostly the minimum in the winter season.

If the traveller have time to spare, and should desire to extend his journey in Europe, he can cross to Alexandria from Trieste by the weekly service of the Austrian Lloyd Line (whose steamers also run from Brindisi); or from Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, or Messina by the weekly service of the Navigazione Italiana Company. Steamers are also run weekly between Piræus, Smyrna, and Constantinople and Alexandria by the Khedivial Mail Line; from Odessa, in addition to these east European ports, to Alexandria by the Russian Line; and from Costanza, Constantinople, and Smyrna to Alexandria by the Royal Roumanian Line. By any route, the Mediterranean passage is generally a bracing and pleasant experience, and on all the principal lines the service and catering are excellent.

Coming from Australasia and the East, all homeward bound vessels by the Canal route call at Suez and Port Said; and a stay to see the wonders of Egypt forms a pleasant break of the long voyage to England. It is sometimes possible for a passenger to leave the ship at Suez, travel thence by train to Cairo, see the Pyramids and Sphinx at Gizeh (sleeping for the night at Mena House), and, by taking the train next morning from Cairo to Port Said, rejoin the ship at the latter point.

The voyage out from the homeland *viâ* the Canal to India, Ceylon, and the Far East, or Australia, New Zealand and the islands of the Southern Pacific, may also be pleasantly broken by a short sojourn in Egypt with a visit to Cairo and the principal sights.

Should the visitor to Egypt disembark at Port Said, he will find little to interest him at that place beyond the crowd of shipping passing into and out of the Suez Canal. But he cannot fail to notice the statue of De Lesseps, with one arm outstretched in the direction of his great engineering achievement—the waterway between the eastern and western seas, which finds its northern outlet into the Mediterranean at this point.

Directly the traveller sets foot in Egypt he will perforce make acquaintance with the detestable system of "backsheesh" (*i.e.*, tips to all and sundry), universal throughout the country. The Egyptian native looks upon the tourist as his natural prey, and mendicancy has become a regular trade with the lower classes of the country, especially among the poorer inhabitants of the towns on the Nile, the children being trained to beg from infancy. To such dimensions has this national nuisance grown that the Government has issued an important notice pointing out the unwholesome and degrading tendency of the indiscriminate bestowal of backsheesh, and requesting tourists to refrain from the practice. They are especially asked not to throw money from the decks of the steamers on the Nile to be scrambled for by natives on the landing stages and banks. British tourists should remember that their own country is primarily responsible for the welfare of Egypt, and that Britain is doing great work in and for the country. They should, therefore, be careful to abstain from the encouragement of practices that tend to debase the natives. For any real service, rendered with zeal and due attention, a piastre or two may be given in addition to the regular fare or charge, which is generally fixed at a low figure. But the ordinary beggar should be sternly refused. A sharp word of reproof in the native tongue is sufficient to at once repel any importunities for money.

The tourist will find little difficulty in accustoming himself to the coinage current in Egypt. The unit in small money is the piastre, which is equivalent to about 2½*d*., and is divided into ten millièmes. The only gold coin in general circulation is the English sovereign.

A newcomer to Egypt, as a matter of course, will provide himself with some of the many excellent guide books to the country, issued by the steamship companies, the State Railways department, Messrs. Cook & Son (who have offices at Port Said, Cairo, and Alexandria), and others. Publications of this nature may be procured in London before starting. Some contain a short, serviceable vocabulary, in English and Arabic, of words and phrases in common use. Each person who wishes to visit and inspect the old-time remains, which form one of the chief attractions of Egypt, and are to be found at intervals along the course of the Nile, must provide him or herself with an Antiquities Ticket (price 120 piastres=25*s*.), procurable at the museum in Cairo, or from Messrs. Cook & Son, or the Inspector of Antiquities at Luxor (Upper Egypt). To ascend or enter the Pyramids at Gizeh, close to Cairo, an extra 10 piastres is charged.

OUTFIT.

After landing at Port Said, the visitor will take the train to Cairo, the radiating centre of Egypt. There are three trains daily, one in the early morning, an express which leaves Port Said after midday, with luncheon car attached, and another fast train after six o'clock in the evening, with dining car attached. The distance of about 150 miles is accomplished in from 4¼ to 4½ hours, the fares being: first-class, 95 piastres (19*s*. 6*d*.); second-class, 47½ piastres (9*s*. 9*d*.), exactly half.

Special outfit for Egypt on a large scale is unnecessary. English summer clothing will be found sufficient for all ordinary purposes. Such tropical equipment as may be required for excursions into the desert can be obtained at reasonable prices in Cairo, where there are excellent shops. It is a mistake, therefore, for the intending visitor to this country to burden him or herself with tropical attire before starting on the voyage, thereby adding to the trouble and expense of the conveyance of luggage. It should be mentioned, however, that Cairo is a fashionable rendezvous in the season, where smart dress is the order of the day. Luncheon and tea baskets to hold provisions required on excursions away from cities and steamers are necessary. Every provision for indulging in amateur photography will be found at Cairo. But those who bring motor-cars will have to confine their trips to Alexandria and Cairo and the environs of these two cities, as the roads elsewhere are too rough for motoring. Information for those in search of sport in the shape of big-game shooting is given in the concluding portion of this article dealing with the Soudan.

The railway journey from Port Said to Cairo will give the newcomer entering Egypt by that sea gate his first view of this strange and wonderful country. From the Port the line keeps a parallel course close to the Suez Canal due southward to Ismailia, the halfway halting place on the famous waterway. At that point it turns at right angles westward, and passes through a strip of desert. From Ismailia, also, a line runs south, and parallel to the canal, to Suez town and docks. One of the stations on the line to Cairo from Ismailia is Tel el Kebir, where Arabi Pasha and his army were utterly routed by the British forces under General Wolseley in 1882. Entering, soon afterwards, the fertile province of Lower Egypt, the Delta of the Nile, the line passes through country giving typical evidences of native methods of cultivation. The principal towns en route to Cairo are Zagazig and Benha, neither of which, however, is a tourist resort; and at each the train stops for only a few minutes. Benha is the junction for Alexandria, and here the eastern arm of the Nile on its way through the Delta to Damietta is reached. A further run southward of about three quarters of an hour completes the journey to Cairo. As the railway carriages are comfortable and a luncheon car is attached to this train, the journey will not be found irksome, particularly by the visitor making his first tour in the country, who will find much of interest to observe from the carriage windows.

ALEXANDRIA.

If the traveller is entering Egypt by way of Alexandria, he will not be impressed with the first sight of that port from the sea. The coastline lies low; consequently the buildings of the town do not stand out prominently, and there is no striking feature to catch the eye. Inside the long breakwater, there is always a host of craft of all sorts, from large passenger steamers and big colliers down to small sailing boats, and the constant bustle and movement in the harbour make a busy scene. The patriotic Briton will not forget that in Aboukir Bay, some 10 miles east of Alexandria, Nelson, in 1798, gained one of his famous victories over the French fleet. At Aboukir, too, three years later, Sir Ralph Abercrombie defeated the French army, thus frustrating Napoleon's ambition to occupy Egypt.

The main centre in Egypt, is, of course, Cairo, the capital, near which are the principal

Pyramids, also the health resorts of Gizeh and Helouan and other places of attraction, and whence the excursions start for the historic spots up the Nile. But if time permits two or three days, or even a week, may be spent pleasantly in Alexandria and its environment. For one thing, the climate of this coastal city, while warm and sunny, is never unpleasantly hot, the breezes from the Mediterranean preventing the temperate level. Alexandria is also a large and well laid out town, the second in size in Egypt, and of commercial importance as a port of entry to the country. It contains several excellent hotels as well as *pensions* adapted for slender purses. The eastern environs, especially Ramleh, a delightful residential suburb on the coastline and accessible by electric tram and rail, abound with pleasant resorts of various kinds, including Caesar's camp, as representing past days, and modern recreative institutions, the principal of which is the Sporting Club. In connection with the latter, which is a popular and much-frequented rendezvous, race-meetings are held and facilities for playing golf, tennis, cricket or football are liberally provided. Sea-bathing, boating and sailing are also among the healthy pastimes to be indulged in freely at Ramleh. But bathers are warned against the strong currents that prevail at any distance from the shore. Several excellent hotels at Ramleh cater specially for tourists, notably the Grand Casino San Stefano, which forms the summer quarters of the Government and where concerts, dances and other entertainments are frequently given during the season. A band plays during the afternoon on the spacious terrace of this establishment overlooking the sea, whereon meals are also served. A few miles further eastward is Aboukir, another favourite resort with those who delight in maritime exercises and amusements. On the way back from Aboukir a donkey ride along the coast to the San Stefano will be found enjoyable, the rest of the distance being accomplished by train or electric tram.

Alexandria possesses a theatre where operas and dramas are performed by the various travelling theatrical companies that visit Egypt during the tourist season, also a comfortable British Club, as well as other clubs that admit leading natives to membership. The museum, which is off the Rue Rosette, the principal thoroughfare, contains many interesting relics of the Græco-Roman period which are worthy of inspection.

Alexandria's famous past was connected with the era of Græco-Roman supremacy; and of that time the few relics remaining in their places are Pompey's Pillar and the Catacombs, both close together on the south-west part of the town and reachable by a short tram journey. There are also the Roman tombs of Kom el Shougafa. These remains of the comparatively recent time of the Roman Empire cannot, of course, compare in antiquarian interest with the ruins of the old days of Egypt to be found up the Nile; but they are fine specimens of the constructive art of the Roman conquerors of the ancient world. Those who have viewed, or heard of, the famous "Rosetta Stone," now in the British Museum, which constituted the first key for the deciphering of the ancient Egyptian inscriptions, may care to make an agreeable one-day excursion to Rosetta, which lies eastward from Alexandria. From its position at the mouth of the western branch of the Nile, this place was in former days a port of importance; but the shipping trade having been diverted to Alexandria, it has sunk into a condition of slumberous indolence and slow decadence. The State railway conveys the passenger from Alexandria to Rosetta, passing *en route* through the pleasant seaside suburb of Ramleh, with its smart villas set in pretty gardens, by the Khedive's gorgeous summer palace at Montaza, and to the left of Lake Edfu, where the curious native fishing boats may be seen and where waterfowl abound. There are two trains a day (one in the morning and one in the early afternoon) each way between Alexandria and Rosetta, the time occupied by the journey being between two and three hours. The fares are:—First class, 34½ piastres; second class, 17½ piastres, for the single journey.

THE DELTA.

CAIRO is, of course, the first main objective of the visitor to Egypt, and within the V-shaped delta of the Nile there is little to arrest the attention of the more eager sight-seer as compared with the attractions of the capital, situated at the inverted apex of the V, and the ancient ruins on the long course of the Nile from that point southwards. But Lower Egypt, which is cultivated throughout and consequently densely populated, presents an agreeable picture to the observant eye which finds pleasure in dwelling upon peaceful scenery, besides affording an object lesson of the beneficial effect of the British occupation in securing to the fellaheen—the tillers of the soil—a free field of labour and a due share of the fruits of their toil. Here Egypt is seen in its humbler modern aspect as contrasted with its majestic and mysterious past. The soil, formed by the silt brought down through countless centuries by the Nile, which formerly meandered in seven channels through this flat, low-lying territory, is extraordinarily fertile, two and even three crops being raised in the year. Besides a number of small towns, there are several of considerable size in the Delta, such as Bilbeis to the south; Damietta, situated on the Mediterranean coast at the mouth of the eastern branch of the Nile, which is not without historic interest as having been the old gate of Egypt and the scene of many sieges and conflicts between Arab and Christian and other adventurers in mediæval times; also Tantah and Mansourah in the interior.

Tantah, which is passed on the way south by rail from Alexandria to Cairo, possesses a fine mosque, also the tomb of Said Ahmed El Bedawy, a Mahomedan saint, whose festivals are celebrated in characteristic Arab fashion three times a year, and are attended by hosts of pilgrims from all surrounding parts, the various ceremonial performances and parades on these occasions affording interesting spectacles.

Mansourah is important as a trade centre, and has many European residents, cotton being the principal article of commerce. This staple product of the country may be seen growing on the rich soil as the train passes through this part; and palm groves abound on every side.



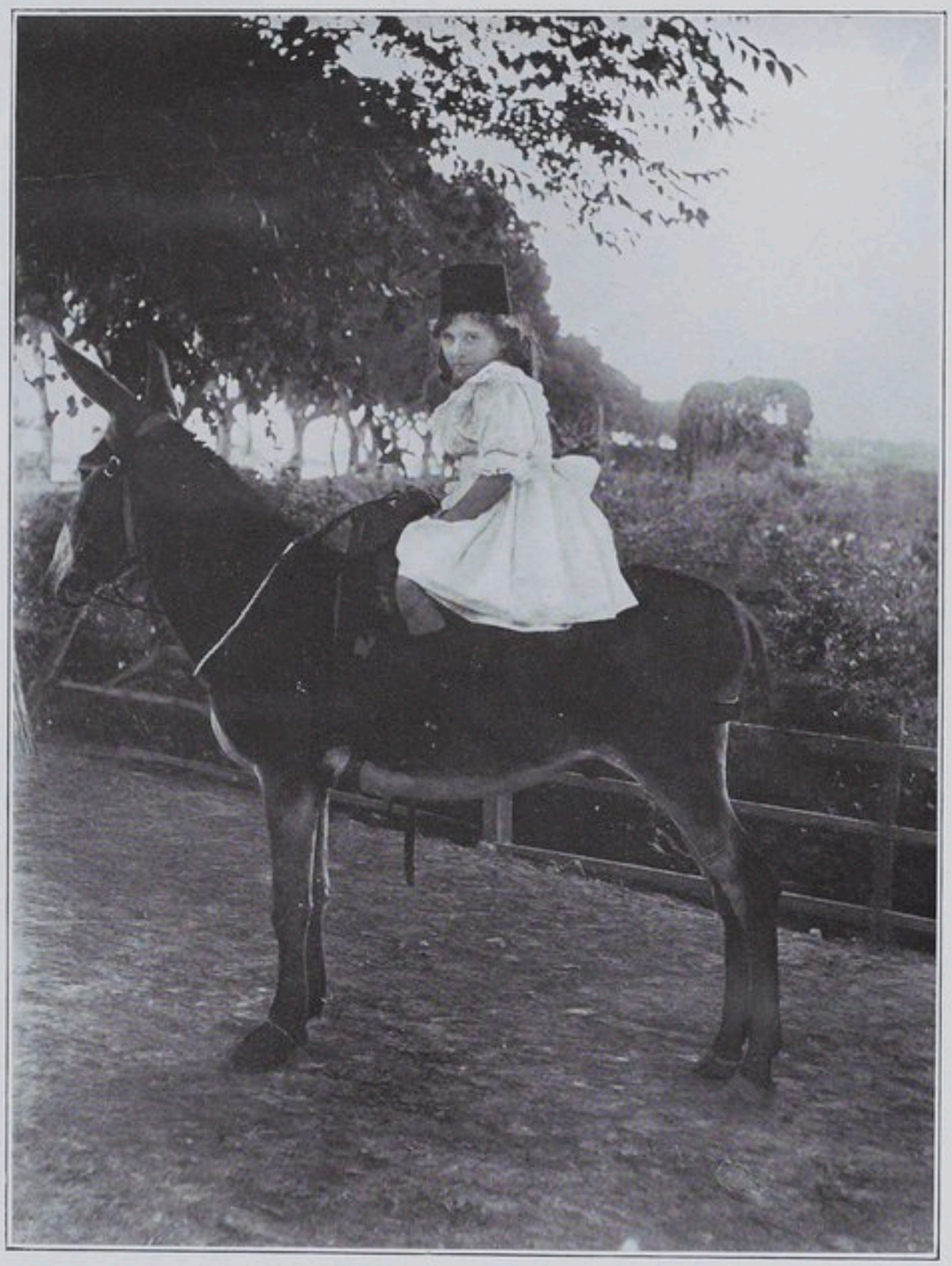
EGYPTIAN VILLAGE.

The Delta is intersected in every direction by canals and canalettes, deriving their supply primarily from the great river of Egypt; also by railway lines radiating from Cairo, and having numerous short branches and connections. Native villages, with their habitations of dried mud, come continually into view from the windows of the train; and the roads are seen to be alive with picturesquely attired Arabs and Egyptians riding on fine horses and fat donkeys; while sakkiehs—the primitive native carts—drawn by slowly plodding buffaloes, which apparently require incessant prodding and continuous shrill vocal admonition to keep them awake, pass along in endless succession. Lake Menzaleh, a large sheet of water, 165 miles in circumference, having Damietta on the western side and Port Said on the eastern, is the resort of all descriptions of wildfowl, including pelicans and flamingoes, as well as the more familiar swans, geese and ducks, which are to be found here in huge flocks. On the south side of the lake is the site of Tanis,

the ruins of which were discovered, and uncovered, by Mariette, the celebrated French Egyptologist, who, in the latter half of the last century, did so much to let the light of modern days in upon the archæological remains of the country.

CAIRO.

To CAIRO from the port at which he has landed in Egypt—either Port Said or Alexandria—the traveller will proceed by rail. From



"NEDDY"—THE TOURIST'S FRIEND.

Alexandria to Cairo is a distance of 130 miles, which is accomplished in three hours by the midday express from the port, to which train a luncheon car is attached during the winter season, and during that period a dining car is run with the express which leaves Alexandria at 6 p.m. The fares are 87½ piastres, first class, and 44 piastres, second class.

It may here be mentioned that on the Egyptian railways all baggage is charged for by weight, except such small articles as may be taken into the carriage by the passenger. This being the case, inconsiderate persons are prone, in defiance of the regulations, to load up the seating accommodation and the passages of the cars with their belongings, a practice to be deprecated in the interests of other travellers. The second class fares are half the first class. There is a third class, but this is not used by Europeans. The fast trains attain a speed of up to fifty miles an hour. Special trains or reserved carriages or saloons, as well as the conveyance of road vehicles, can be arranged for by giving the requisite notice in each case at the departure station. Heavy luggage can be sent by goods train at moderate charges. The fares and charges generally will be found to be cheaper than those of English railways. The article dealing with the railway system of Egypt, included in this volume, should have the special attention of the tourist.

Arrived at Cairo, the traveller finds himself in the great rendezvous of Egypt, the bustling, busy centre of all the brisk modern life of the country, and the main starting-point for all excursions in this land of wonders.

If the visitor has been wise, he will have engaged his quarters in advance at one of the many hotels or *pensions* in Cairo. Otherwise he may experience a little difficulty in finding suitable accommodation, particularly in the height of the winter season. There are several palatial hotels—Shepheard's being, perhaps, the best known to the outside world —which are resorts of the highest fashionable society from all civilised parts of the world, and are in every particular equal to any establishments of the kind in the European capitals. The hotel omnibuses meet the trains at Cairo railway station, and the hotel porters there will take charge of the visitor's baggage and place it on the vehicle. The tariff in the leading hotels is from about ninety to one hundred piastres per day and upwards during the height of the season (January to the end of March); while comfortable and satisfactory accommodation, *en pension*, may be obtained in the less fashionable establishments around the Esbekieh Gardens for about twelve shillings per day. Furnished flats can also be rented.

There is so much to see in Egypt, so many places of interest that may be visited, so many enjoyable excursions that may be made, that unless the visitor has unlimited time for travelling about the country and expense is no consideration with him, he will not be able to make the most of his time and secure full value for his outlay, unless his whole tour is arranged and carried out in accordance with a definite plan. On arrival, therefore, at Cairo, the first thing to be done is to draw up an itinerary which will include all the places of interest, near and far, which can be visited in the allotted time for a tour of the country, and, in the case of those who need to keep a close control upon their expenditure, will not overstrain their pecuniary resources. It should here be said that, contrary to what is probably the general conception of untravelled folk in Great Britain, the expense of a visit to Egypt and a tour of the Nile can be arranged for a moderate sum. For instance, Messrs. Cook and Son, the famous tourist agents, have a forty-four days' tour from England, which includes all the principal places of interest in Egypt and up the Nile, also all expenses of travelling and hotels, as well as the sea voyage out and back, for forty-five guineas. It will be as well for the newcomer to the country at once to consult Messrs. Cook regarding the sights he wishes to see and the excursions he desires to make. For nearly forty years past, they have been the agents for the Egyptian Government for passenger traffic on the Nile; and at any of their offices full information can be readily obtained respecting the best way to employ the time, long or short, available and the expenses that will be incurred. For a fixed sum they will undertake the whole charge of the tourist, ensuring his comfort without trouble to himself; and their travelling representatives will conduct him by the most expeditious means to any of the historic spots he may desire to visit. Families and large parties are similarly provided for. The firm has a recognised status in Egypt, and the motto for tourists in that country is: "When in doubt or difficulty, consult Cook and Son." Railway and steamer tickets can be obtained at their offices in Alexandria, Port Said, and Cairo, or from their travelling representatives, also the Government Permits necessary for visiting the antiquities. Guide books to the country will also be found useful in outlining an itinerary. Generally speaking, an average

expenditure of about £1 per day should well cover all the ordinary traveller's expenses of the tourist in Egypt, not including hotel expenses.

The longer the period available for a tour of Egypt the better. By a carefully planned distribution of time it is possible to see the country rapidly, including the sights of Cairo and a trip up the Nile to Assouan, viewing the ancient ruins contiguous on the journey up or down within fifteen days. Another and more satisfying itinerary can be drawn up to occupy three weeks. But although these quick tours can, owing to Messrs. Cook & Son's admirable arrangements, be made without inconvenience, Egypt, as a land of leisure, can best be inspected and most fully enjoyed in circumstances from which the element of hurry is entirely absent. You may travel by express steamer up and down the Nile, and ancient rulers of this land, and mighty cities stood where now only mounds of sand indicate the spots where they rose, flourished through centuries, then slowly decayed. The marvellous faculty of fancy, for the nonce conquering time, can conjure up pictures of those days of yore in endless procession. But this is not the fashion of travelling in these strenuous modern days, when time is a remorseless tyrant. Besides, few have the leisure to indulge in such lazy enjoyment. So the time table must be observed.

In the matter of climate, Cairo possesses the advantage over the Riviera as a winter resort that it is never subject to storms and spells of inclement weather such as frequently visit the north coasts of the Mediterranean. Only one or two wet days are to be experienced in the Egyptian capital during the extreme duration of the winter season, from



ROAD TO THE PYRAMIDS OF GIZEH.

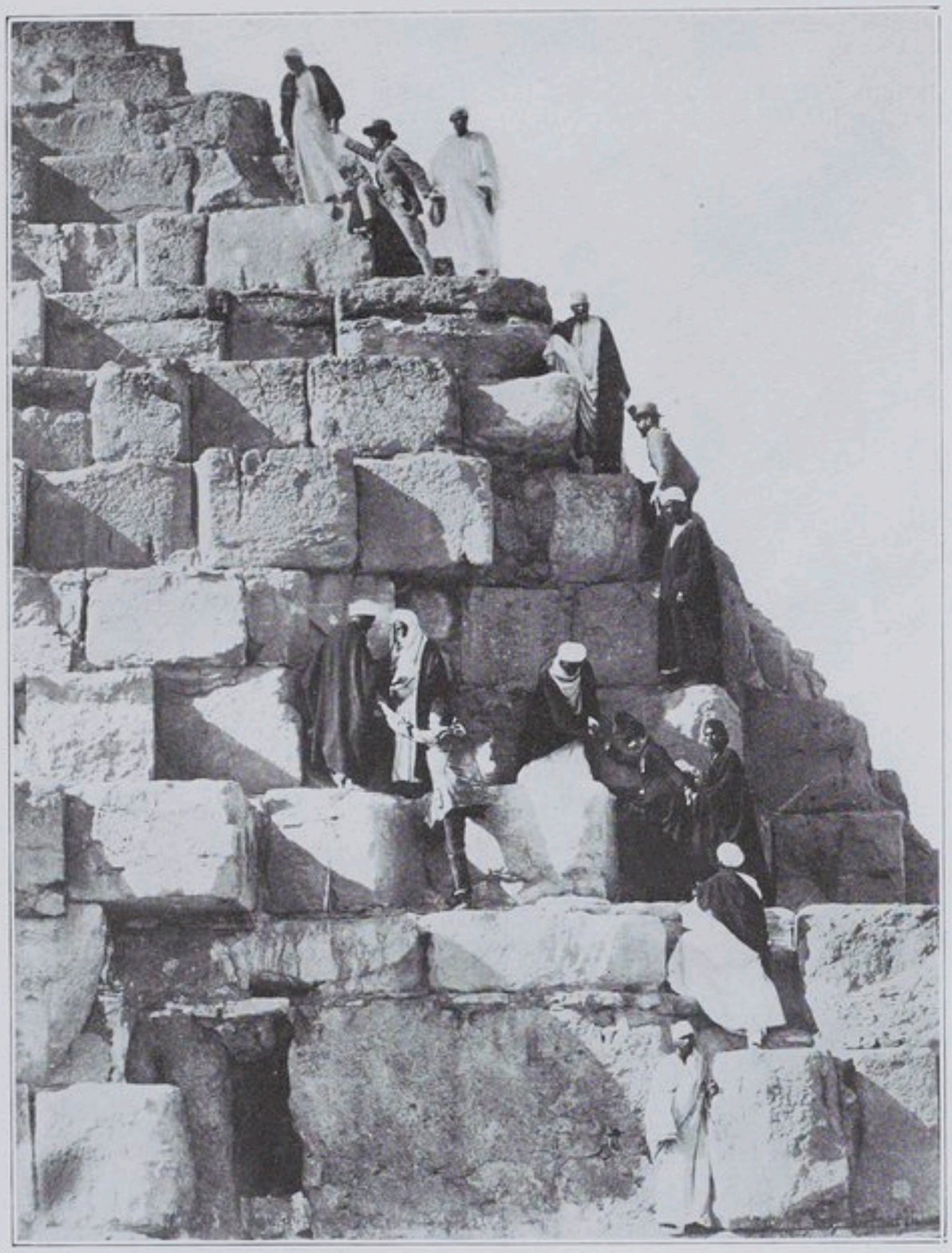
this acquaintance with the historic stream is, of course, better than none. But far more in consonance with the spirit of the environment is a leisurely journey on the great river in one of Messrs. Cook & Son's roomy and luxuriously fitted sailing dahabeahs, which in form are exact copies of the craft of the ancient Egyptians. The ideal tour of Egypt would be made in circumstances that would enable one to fling considerations of time to the winds and let only whim and fancy prompt one's movements, stopping where one pleased, and going on when one pleased, saturating one's being, the while, with the old-time spirit of the surroundings, dreamily speculating on the hoary past, when the great temples, now buried under the débris of thousands of years, were erected by the October to May. During this period the climate is delightfully warm and sunny.

In order to carry out the campaign of sightseeing in and around Cairo in the most satisfactory way, it is advisable for the stranger to engage the exclusive services of an experienced dragoman (guide). These may be found at all the best hotels, the pay varying from six to ten shillings per day. The sightseer will thus be saved from extortion by native vendors and drivers of hired vehicles, and will, besides, be shown all there is to see and taken the quickest way from place to place, without trouble to himself. The cab fares are low, but the driver always expects a few piastres in addition to the legal charge. Carriages to seat from two to four may be hired at higher rates, by the hour or day; and there are garages where motor-cars may be bought or hired or housed. For storing private cars and keeping them clean the charge is about 300 piastres (£3 1s. 7d.) per month. Petrol costs about 54 piastres per case of 40 litres. As a means of conveyance, by no means must mention of the donkey be omitted. The Egyptian donkey is in every way superior to his European brethren, being big, handsome and speedy; and those that are for hire in Cairo are always well looked after and smartly harnessed. The boys who attend them are apt to be importunate, but can be kept in check by a sharp reproof in the vernacular. A short ride in Cairo costs only two piastres, and an hour's hire is only three piastres. The animals can also be engaged for the day at from 10 to 15 piastres inside the town, and 20 piastres outside. A piastre or two, in addition to these charges, is expected by the boy in attendance. Camels are engaged for expeditions into the desert, and a ride on this ungainly but useful quadruped is one of the novel sensations to be enjoyed, or at any rate experienced, by the tourist in Egypt.

MOSQUES AND BAZAARS.

In visiting the mosques, of which there are over three hundred within the city bounds, the tourist will be provided with large slippers to wear over his boots. These sacred buildings are to be found grouped about the Citadel or about the Mousky native thoroughfare. Some of these remains of the Mameluke rule in Egypt in past centuries are examples of the finest Oriental architecture,

notably the vast Sultan Hassan, near the Citadel, which has one minaret not far short of 300 feet in height. This, as well as other of the mosques which were allowed to fall into disrepair, is now being restored. Another beautiful building in this category is the Mehemet Ali, or Alabaster Mosque, within the Citadel. But this is quite a recent structure, having been erected as late as 1857. Looking southwards from the parapet of this building a comprehensive view is obtained of the bright and busy city stretching out below, while in the far distance beyond,



CLIMBING THE GREAT PYRAMID AT GIZEH.

on the further side of the river, may be seen the great Pyramids, standing out gigantic and impassive amid the surrounding desert. The Ibn Touloun Mosque, not far away from the Mehemet Ali, is the oldest mosque in Cairo, dating from the latter end of the ninth century of the Christian era. Perhaps the most interesting of the Mousky group of mosques is the Al Azhar, built towards the close of the tenth century, which is now the leading Mahomedan university of the world. Here the Koran is expounded and all modern subjects ignored. There are altogether some eight thousand students, and the instruction is given gratuitously. The classes may be seen squatting at the feet of the respective teachers, and listening more or less attentively to their expositions, each teacher the while pursuing a steady and monotonous course. Others of the Mousky mosques have notable historic associations and are well worth visiting. The exteriors of these buildings are generally characterised by gracefully tapering minarets, while the interiors of some are richly ornamented with gold lettering and arabesques on walls and ceilings, also with mural and floor mosaics, and adorned with white and coloured marble columns. Under the ciceronage of an alert dragoman it is possible to make a rapid tour of the principal mosques within one busy day.

The bazaars in the native quarter will be found novel and interesting by newcomers to the East. Here are vended all kinds of ornamental articles — jewellery, gorgeous eastern shawls, tapestry and carpets, native cloth, brass and copper work, swords and other weapons—as well as curios, native sweetmeats, sherbet and cigarettes. The inexperienced purchaser of any of the multifarious articles thrust upon his notice in this part is likely to be cheated with spurious coins, unless he shall have previously provided himself with an adequate supply of small change obtained direct from the bank. He should also have a fair idea of the genuineness and true value of the articles he is buying. Many of those represented to be native manufactures and antique curios have been "made in Germany." A fine view of the environs of Cairo is to be obtained from Windmill Hill, at the end of Mousky Street.

Those who desire to visit the old Coptic churches in Cairo will have to look for them in out-of-the-way corners. Neither outside nor inside do they present any noticeable architectural features. Probably the persecutions to which the Copts were subjected in the past drove them to conceal their places of worship as much as possible in the face of the relentless hostility of the Arab conquerors.

Chief of the expeditions to be made in the environs of Cairo is that to the great Pyramids and the Sphinx at Gizeh, which are easily accessible by an excellent tramway service between the city and Mena House. The journey only occupies forty minutes, and the fares are : first class, 3 piastres ; second class, 1½ piastres. The route runs parallel with the left bank of the Nile to Gizeh, and then turns to the right to Mena, the destination. At the hotel near by, refreshments are obtainable. At the point of arrival the donkey boys with their patient charges will come very much into evidence, and dragomans will be found waiting to be engaged as guides. The pyramids here are three in number. The largest of these was built under the direction of Cheops, a ruler of the IVth dynasty, who reigned some four thousand years before the Christian era. This huge structure has a square base some 750 feet in length on each side, covering an area of about 13 acres. The four sides, in the form of equilateral triangles, slope up and meet at the apex, which is 450 feet above the platform. The base consists of solid rock, while the rest of the structure is built of limestone. The other two pyramids are similar in construction, but smaller, the former being 447 feet, and the latter only 203 feet in height. Originally, the solid bases were faced with polished white stone slabs, decorated with carvings and paintings, but this casing has slowly disappeared in the course of the ages, and only a fragment on the second pyramid remains. The interior passages, leading to sepulchral chambers, are, however, still lined with polished granite slabs, fitted together with that accuracy and intention of permanency which distinguished the craftsmanship of the ancient Egyptians. All traces of the great courtyards and approaches that once surrounded these huge monuments or tombs, in design and dimensions unlike any work of man's hand outside Egypt, have totally vanished. And this is not surprising when it is considered that before the date of the Norman invasion of England these vast piles had already been standing for fifty centuries.

Many learned books have been written about the pyramids, and speculation is still rife regarding their original purposes. The Sphinx, standing solitary and inscrutable near by, is more mystical still. This huge figure, unique in its form in all the world, is believed to be the sole representative of a far earlier age than even the dim era which

saw the building of the pyramids and the erection of the temples, the remains of which have been unearthed along the Nile ; for it possesses a beauty of form and line which other Egyptian remains do not show. The face, described in ancient Arab writings as having been supremely beautiful, is now mutilated ; but a deep symbolical meaning is expressed in the impassive features of this colossal image, which, the very embodiment of calm, mysterious gravity, and whose whole aspect speaks of a forgotten past, has looked out over the surrounding desert during an unknown succession of centuries. The level

magnificent city of Memphis, is usually made by rail to Bedreshein Station on the Nile Railway, a short journey of about an hour's duration, through interesting scenery, the first class fare being 16½ piastres and the second class 8½ piastres. At the station donkeys are mounted for a tour of the surroundings, the price of the hire being 10 piastres each per day. Of Memphis, which was founded by Menes, the first king of Egypt of whom anything definite is known, the tombs of notabilities alone remain. Some of them, the principal of which are the tombs of Thi, Mereruka and Phahhotep, are decorated with wonderful reliefs, executed nearly six thousand years ago. The "Step Pyramid" at Sakkara is said to be the oldest building of its kind now standing, having been the tomb of a king of the IIIrd dynasty. It is 200 feet in height ; and there are over a score of other pyramids of varying dimensions. The Serapeum is also to be seen here, the underground burial place of the sacred bulls. The passages, with niches for the sarcophagi, were hewn out of solid rock ; and of the huge stone receptacles, cut from single blocks

of granite and weighing from sixty to seventy tons each, twenty-four still remain. To the French Egyptologist, Mariette, is due the credit of rediscovering (in 1851) these Apis vaults. He has given a graphic description of coming upon one of the sepulchral chambers "precisely in its original condition" as it was walled up thirty-seven centuries ago ; and on opening it, he found the embalmed remains of the sacred bull as well as the actual foot-prints and finger-marks of the workmen who had closed the chamber in that remote age. Mariette's house is conveniently close for satisfying the everyday need of lunch.



TOURISTS AT THE SPHINX.

road between Gizeh and Cairo, one of the best constructed in the country, is bordered by Lebbek trees, and the short journey out and back is made intereresting to the stranger to Egypt by the variety of the crowded traffic, the motor-car being seen speeding by a string of camels, and the bicycle threading its way through a crowd of primitive native carts.

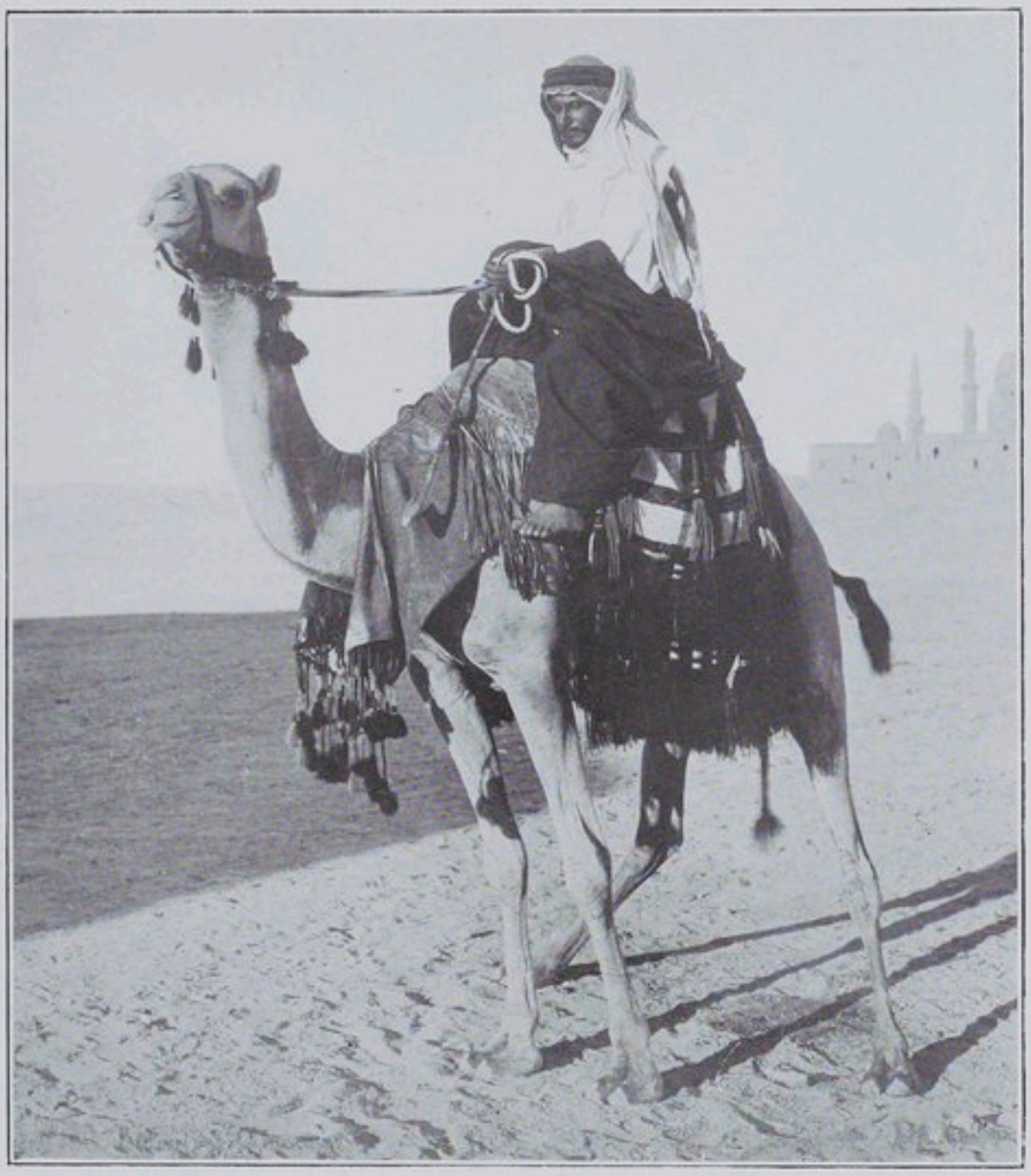
The further expedition from Cairo to the pyramids and remains at Sakkara and the ruins in the vicinity of the once famous and

Nearer the railway station are the twin Colossi of Rameses II, one of which lies on the ground. The other, some forty feet high, still defies time in an erect position. Sakkara can also be reached from Helouan, the health resort on the other side of the Nile, the river being crossed by ferry-boat. If the desert route is preferred, on account of the novelty, the journey to Sakkara from the Mena House, near the Great Pyramid, can be accomplished on donkey-back, or, more comfortably, by sand-cart. Another way of travelling to this

historic spot is by one of Cook & Son's steamers up the Nile. The Government charge for viewing the antiquities at Sakkara is five piastres—roughly, one shilling.

Helouan, a favourite modern health resort on the eastern side of the Nile about 15 miles south of Cairo, is celebrated for its sulphur baths and salubrious air. A railway connects this spot with the capital.

In the opposite direction from Cairo is the northern suburb of Matarieh, reached by a short length of railway running from the Pont Limoun Station (in the city) to Marg; and in this new quarter, which is continually being extended, reside the majority of the European colony of the city, whose modern villas and flats occupy the site of the ancient city of On, better known by its Greek name of Heliopolis. Once the headquarters of the hierarchy of the sun worshippers in Egypt, nothing now remains standing of this old-time city save a solitary obelisk erected by King Usertsen, who held sway here some 2,400 years before the commencement of the Christian era. This structure bears an inscription identifying it with this royal personage and describing him as "King of the South and North" and "beloved, living for ever." The legend runs that the Joseph of the Bible story married the daughter of one of the priests here, named Potiphar. A large sycamore at Matarieh is pointed out as having thrown its shade over the mother of Christ while she rested on her Egyptian journey, and is consequently known as the "Virgin's Tree." The water she drew from the neighbouring well and spilt on the ground is said to have miraculously produced balsam trees, a drop of the holy oil obtained from which was of old supposed to be necessary in the ceremony of Christian baptism. The ostrich farm in the eastern portion of the Matarieh, with enclosures in which are seen numbers of the bird of the desert, will be found interesting; and if the tourist decides to inspect a typical native village, with habitations of dried mud surrounded by palms, he can go the little distance on to Marg, the end of the short railway from the city. To Matarieh the road is suitable for carriages or motor-cars. At Koubbeh, in this direction, is one of the Khedive's palaces, environed by beautiful gardens; and near by is the "Heliopolis Oasis," an ambitious undertaking to convert a tract of the desert towards Suez into a magnificent pleasure resort, with a monster hotel, handsome residential villas, fine shops, good thoroughfares, a church, a sporting park, a mosque, public gardens, and direct electric tram connection with Cairo. From this spot a splendid view is obtained, in the pure atmosphere, of Cairo, with the Pyramids of Gizeh in the distance, and of the richly verdurous Delta country.



A BEDOUIN OF THE DESERT.

A half-hour railway run northwards from Cairo main station will take the tourist to the Barrage, the great stone work across the two Delta branches of the Nile, just below their point of divergence. The purpose of this important engineering work is to hold back the water until it reaches the level for flowing into the large canals, which, starting from this point, course leisurely in various directions northwards through the Delta, providing the indispensable element for cultivation purposes as well as the means of navigation to all parts of this fertile region. The original structure, of Egyptian initiation and begun in 1835, having proved a failure, the work was taken in hand fifty years later by the eminent engineer, Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff, and completed in 1890 in its present permanent form at a cost of nearly half a million. The charmingly laid out and carefully tended gardens on the bank of the river here form a delightful scene, and contain ideal spots for picnics, for which abundant facilities are provided in one of the towers of the Barrage, so that visitors need only bring their own provisions. The air is free from dust, and is cooler than that of Cairo, while trees, shrubs, and bright flowers, with the verdant lawns, form enchanting surroundings, of which the lover of beauty in Nature will never tire. Perhaps the Barrage gardens are most beautiful in the evening, when the varied and delicate tints of the Egyptian sunset are gradually fading into the semi-darkness of the clear Oriental night. The first class return railway fare from Cairo is 8½ piastres, second class return, 5½ piastres; and there are seven trains each way daily. From the Barrage station visitors are conveyed by a trolley-line to any part of the gardens, two Arab boys pushing the vehicle. The trip may also be made by motor-launch on the river, the time occupied on each journey being about two hours, or, more economically, by the excursion steamers run by the Tramway Company.

UP THE NILE.

HAVING exhausted the sights of Cairo and its surroundings—so far as the word "exhausted" can be used in connection with a centre of perennial interest—the tourist in Egypt will turn his attention to the great question of the trip up the Nile and back, through Middle and Upper Egypt to Assouan, some 550 miles from Cairo, or even further south from Assouan, through Shellal to the Soudan border at Wadi Halfa, a total distance from the capital of 785 miles.

Within the scope of this article only the briefest mention is possible of the wondrous succession of interesting ruins and remains of the ancient days in the dim dawn of history which at intervals are to be found along the banks of the great river that is, and always has been, the life-stream—so to call it—of all Egypt. Back from the river, on the eastern side, stretches the Arabian desert to the Red Sea, while on the western side, with the exception of one fertile tract, forming the province of Fayoum, and a few scattered oases far out from the Nile, there is also nothing but the similarly sandy waste of the Libyan desert. Along the course of the river the ancient inhabitants of the country were obliged to build their cities and temples and tombs—and these early Egyptians built so solidly and well, and on such a massive scale, that many of the remains are to be found in a marvellous state of preservation, while the ruins generally give evidence of a majestic vastness of design and masterly craftsmanship foreign to all later architectural art. The

ancient Egyptians lacked the sense of serene and exquisite beauty of form which has made Greek art immortal. These people of a far older civilisation seem, indeed, to have rather despised the loveliness of curved outline; or perhaps they never recognised it. But they possessed to the full the conception of the large and massive; and, even in decay, their works express an arresting majesty and dignity.

The tourist who wishes to view the supremely interesting remains of the distant past which lie scattered along the Nile will first have to consider what time he has at disposal for the expedition, and lay his plans accordingly. He should consult the official guide-books for routes and time-tables. If the allotted time be limited, he will avail himself of the railway, which follows the course of the river all the way to Shellal, crossing it at Nag Hamadi. The travelling the rate of travelling is slower than between Cairo and Luxor, the train stopping at all stations, and the journey occupying 7¼ hours each way. A luncheon car is run on this section, the repast forming an agreeable break in the journey. The interesting centres passed on the way also serve to keep the traveller's attention on the alert and so ward off weariness. He will find much to see from the carriage windows along the whole route between Cairo and Shellal. The fares for this whole journey are: first class, 260 piastres; second class, 130 piastres. From Shellal on to Wadi Halfa the journey is performed by steamer up the Nile.

If no more than fifteen days are allowed for the whole tour of Egypt, the visitor, after spending four or five days at and around Cairo, will not be able to linger at any of the places of interest in Middle and Upper Egypt. He must, however, devote one day to Fayoum, spot of the Fayoum. From Wasta on the main Nile railway, reached from Cairo in an hour and a half, a branch line, about 20 miles long, runs due west to the modern town of Medinet-el-Fayoum, which possesses a comfortable hotel, and from this centre radiate light railways connecting all parts of the province. The fares from Cairo to Fayoum are: first class, 59½ piastres; second class, 30 piastres. Here, as elsewhere on the Nile trip, the useful donkey will be requisitioned for short local tours of inspection.

Abu Kurkas, distant 166 miles from Cairo, is the station for the rock tombs of Beni-Hassan. They date from the XIIth dynasty and are covered with well-preserved paintings of the ordinary life of that time, that, better than all written descriptions, show how the people of those remote days lived and moved and had their being. On the way to these tombs is the cave of Antar, a hero of the



1. A RIVERSIDE VIEW IN UPPER EGYPT. 2. ASSIOUT. 3. VILLAGERS.

will be found comfortable. The running is smooth, and the windows of the carriages are tinted to tone down the glare of the sun. A *train-de-luxe* (first class only), with dining and sleeping cars, runs daily between Cairo and Luxor during the height of the season, leaving each place every evening and arriving at the other about breakfast time. To this train a second-class car, for passengers' servants only, is attached. If the traveller desires to view the country *en route* he will travel by the day train, which leaves either end in the morning and arrives at each termination in the evening. The fares are: first class, 205½ piastres; second class (servants only), 102½ piastres. The charge for dinner is 25 piastres. From Luxor onwards south to Assouan and Shellal, the railway line being of narrower gauge, the province of roses, a large tract of artificially fertilised land on the west side of the Nile, 50 miles south of Cairo, where plenty smiles in the midst of sterility. Here Arsinoe, the city of Sebbek, the Crocodile God, once stood, the sacred saurians having their habitat in those times in Lake Mœris, a large sheet of water fed by the overflow of the Nile. In this neighbourhood are the magnificent remains of the great Labyrinth described by Herodotus; also the Pyramids of Hawara and Lahoun, near the latter being the traces of the habitations of the workmen who built it and its adjacent temple. Sennures, too, in the midst of country blooming with flowers and shrubs and rich with crops, is worth a visit. The Karoun Lake (reached from Abchaway railway station) is another beauty ancient Egyptians; and near by is the grave of the sacred cats of the goddess Pasht, the deity of the locality. Further along the Nile railway, and about 188 miles from Cairo, is Deir-Moes, the station for the famous remains of Tel-el-Amarna, the magnificent city built by King Amenhetep, of the XVIIIth dynasty, when he originated the exclusive worship of the sun in opposition to the polytheistic religion of Thebes. Some exceedingly fine pavements of the king's palace are to be seen here. Intending visitors to these intermediate spots should notify their coming by telegram beforehand to the station master, in order that he may have donkeys ready for the various trips. The donkey hire varies from 10 to 15 piastres per day.

The next stopping-place on the railway is

Assiout, about 230 miles from Cairo, which is the largest Egyptian town south of the capital. There is a refreshment buffet at the station, and if the traveller desires to spend a day or two in this typical native centre, good accommodation can be obtained at the hotel near the station. The town is clean, and there are good roads, many substantial residences and pleasant gardens, while the purity of the air is delightful and the general conditions are pleasingly restful. Continuing the railway journey southwards from Assiout, and above the Barrage at that point, the traveller enters upon country irrigated by basins or drains, formed of earthworks and filled by the overflow of the Nile in the autumnal season. Near Sohag, the capital of the Girgeh Province, the tourist may alight for a visit to the restored Coptic monasteries in the immediate neighbourhood. Girgeh is the next town of importance on the railway, and here the ruins of a temple of Rameses the Great may be seen, as well as the ancient Roman Catholic convent. In the vicinity also is the site of the old Egyptian city of Thinis, with the tombs of its leading inhabitants in the first and second dynasties. The celebrated temple of Seti at Abydos, with its wonderful reliefs and painting and its Tablet of the Kings—an invaluable historic relic giving the chronological record of the rulers of ancient Egypt from Menes, the first Egyptian monarch of whom anything is known, down to Seti, the father of Rameses the Great—is reached by a donkey-ride of seven miles from Balianeh station. Abydos was a city of splendour and renown in the XIth and XIIth dynasties, the name of which has been made familiar to English ears by Byron's poem. Of another temple, built here by Rameses II., only a few dilapidated ruins remain. A little way north is the tomb of the god Osiris.

In the district around Nag Hamadi sugar is grown, which gives this town a modern industrial importance. At this point the railway line crosses the Nile from the western side, followed from Cairo, to the eastern bank, to which it keeps for the rest of the way to Assouan and Shellal. Hereabouts the Nile scenery becomes more rugged and hilly, high cliffs being passed at Debba. The next place of importance is Keneh, 380 miles from Cairo, an important trade centre, where are manufactured the porous jars in common use all over Egypt for carrying water. This oldest among industries is still pursued in the ancient primitive method, which is interesting to watch. The jars spoiled in the manufacture have been largely used in building the houses of the town. From Keneh the tourist starts for Denderah, the distance of five miles being covered on donkey-back in about an hour and at a cost of about 6 piastres. The chief attraction at Denderah is the immense temple of the goddess Hathor, the Greek Aphrodite, supposed to have been founded by Cheops. In this building the influence of Greek art on the older Egyptian style of architecture is plainly evident. The frescoes and other internal decorations, which are all in a state of good preservation, may be studied with interest.

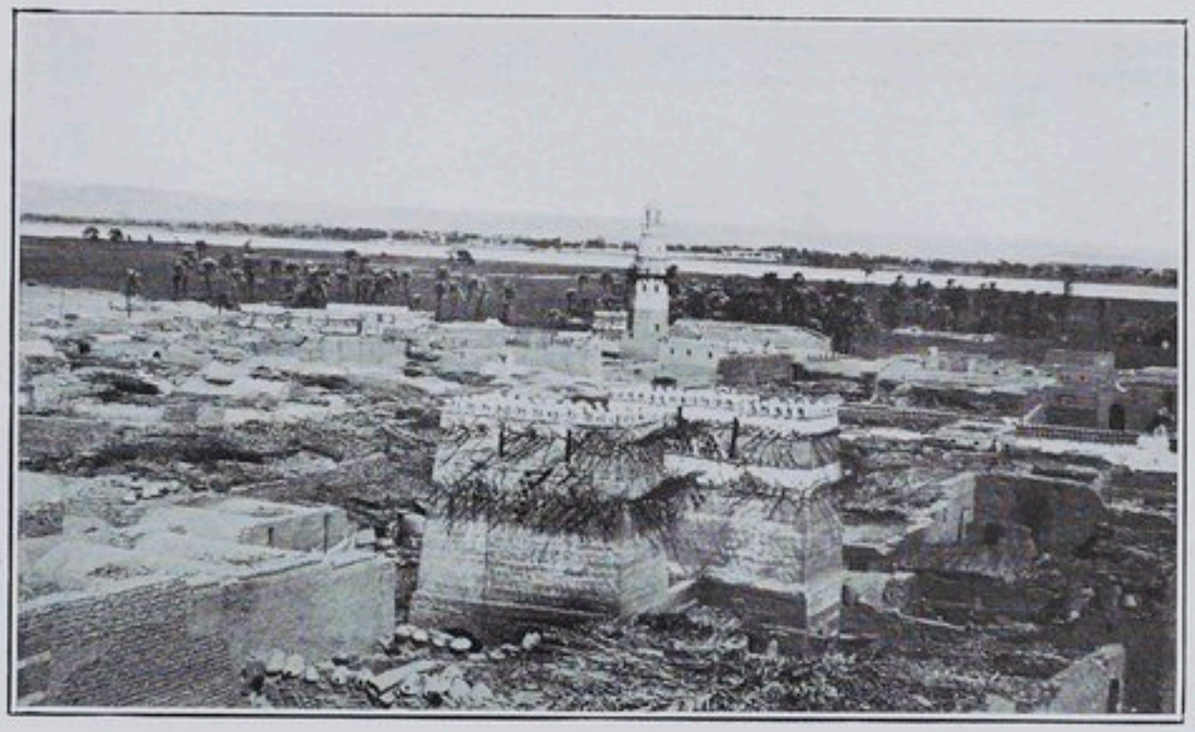
THEBES AND KARNAK.

At a distance of 417 miles from Cairo, Luxor, which occupies the site of the eastern suburb of ancient Thebes, is reached. Baths are provided at the station for the refreshment of travellers, also a buffet. Luxor is an unimportant town or village, but being the stopping place for some of the most celebrated monuments and antiquities of Egypt, is provided with several comfortable hotels, whose porters and omnibuses meet the train. Cabs can also be hired here, and an English church, to which a resident chaplain is attached, has been established. A stay of fully three days is necessary for visiting the chief places of interest around this spot whereon once stood the royal city of Thebes, the seat of the ancient monarchy of Egypt. In the present town is the temple of Luxor, completed in the XIXth dynasty by Rameses II. and dedicated to Amen, his wife, and to his son. A mile and a half distant, at Karnak, is the great temple of Amen. Even a cursory inspection of this wonderful building may well occupy half a day or longer. Its extensive walls and numerous columns are covered with inscriptions, giving almost a complete history of the Theban kings. They chose a durable medium, those early Egyptians, for preserving their records, and so they have come down through the ages intact to the present day. The vast hypostyle hall, which measured 340 by 170 feet, was 60 feet high and contained 122 columns, has been described as "the most imposing structure in the world's history." "No language," says another writer, "can convey an idea of its beauty, and no artist has yet been able to reproduce its form so as to convey to those who have not seen it an idea of its grandeur."

A gigantic pylon, 150 feet high and 350 broad, stands at the entrance of the temple, from the top of which a splendid view is obtained of the surrounding ruins. The building of this great temple was begun by King Usertsen I. about 2,400 years before the birth of Christ; and additions in complete harmony with the original design were made by successive rulers through a period of a thousand years. There are several other smaller temples at Karnak, all of which will repay careful examination; and another object of interest here is the immense arch of Euergetes, rows of sphinxes flanking the road. Arrangement should be made, if possible, to view the remains at Karnak in the moonlight. An ineffaceable impression of their beauty and the history they embody and express will thus be obtained.

The portion remaining of the temple at Kurna, dedicated by Seti I. to Amen, and completed by Rameses II., is within an hour's donkey-ride from Luxor. It has a fine façade, and contains many striking reliefs and interesting inscriptions. Not far from Kurna, and approached through a rocky defile and in the midst of the splendour of desolation, is the Valley of Death, the place of the tombs of the successive kings who ruled in Thebes in the days of its glory. The separate places of interment, some forty in number, were hewn out of the sheer limestone cliff, and the mummified remains of each king were deposited in a massive granite sarcophagus in the inmost chamber of each. Most of the tombs were rifled by marauders in old days, and some of the mummies were consequently removed for safety. But others, carefully concealed in bricked-up inner vaults, were discovered by modern explorers; and that of King Amenhetep II., in tomb No. 35, may still be seen in its place, lying where it was placed, with reverence and royal honours, over 3,000 years ago. Most of the tombs are adorned with reliefs which, having been carved out of the solid limestone, have defied the passing centuries and are as intact as when they were cut. Near this interesting spot Messrs. Cook & Son have established a rest-house, to which lunch can be sent out from the visitor's hotel in Luxor. The tourist will do well to fight shy here, as elsewhere on any of his expeditions in Egypt, of the horde of itinerant vendors of antiquities and beggars of all descriptions. If given the slightest encouragement, they will dog his footsteps and pester him for "backsheesh" or to buy their sham relics. By this time he should have learnt a few of the opprobrious terms in the vernacular which, sharply uttered, will suffice to free him from the predatory importunities of mendicants and pedlars.

The lesser notables of ancient Thebes were buried in tombs, numbers of which are to be found in groups near Kurna. Another object of interest in this neighbourhood is the rock temple of Queen Hatshepset, who flourished about 1500 B.C., and ruled over the country alternately with her nephew, King Thothmes III. As this august lady is represented in the reliefs on the walls in male attire and wearing a beard, it may be assumed that she was of a masculine cast of character. Within a short donkey-ride of Kurna is also the Ramesseum, a temple built by Rameses II. in honour of Amen, the walls



EDFU.

of which are decorated on the inside with warlike scenes. The building generally is in a dilapidated condition, but many of the columns remain, and a portion of the roof of this fine ruin is still in position. Other temples are to be found at Medinet Habu, also some ancient rock tombs at the hill of Kurnet Murrai, west of the Ramesseum—all worth visiting if the tourist have time at disposal. A mile from Kurnet Murrai are the Tombs of the Queens, of which that of Titi is the most notable. Conspicuous on the plain about a mile from the Nile are to be seen the two Colossi of Memnon, which once stood in front of a temple dedicated to Amenhetep III., of which latter building, however, no vestige has survived. Over 50 feet high, they are characteristic Egyptian statues representing the king in a sitting posture. One of the figures was traditionally supposed to have the power of giving forth a musical sound at sunrise. But it has disdained to manifest this power to modern investigators.

From Luxor, the rest of the journey on the Egyptian State railway to Assouan and Shellal is made on the narrow gauge. But the saloon carriages are comfortably fitted and upholstered, and the journey of six and a half hours to the end of the line will not be found tedious. The first stop of importance on this section is at Esneh. The considerable native town of this name on the opposite bank of the river (crossed by ferry) possesses a temple of the Ptolemaic period on the inside walls of which will be found a curious combination of Egyptian inscriptions with Roman ornamentation of a later era. The Romans also built a quay on the river front, which remains to this day. At Esneh is a great modern work which rivals in usefulness any constructed by the early Egyptians. This is the barrage across the Nile, constructed by Sir John Aird (who also built the dam at Assouan) for the Egyptian Government, and opened by the Khedive in February, 1909. It consists of a succession of arches of pure white limestone, obtained from the neighbouring quarries at Maalba, and is 990 feet long from bank to bank. The height above low water is 36 feet, and altogether this fine achievement of modern engineering skill presents an imposing appearance.

The next station on the line is Edfu, the small town of that name being situated on the western bank of the river. Here is another interesting temple of the Ptolemaic period, dedicated to Horus, the god of the locality, and richly decorated within with reliefs and still vivid paintings. It is within a few minutes' walk from the landing-stage, and is in a state of excellent preservation. At Sirrag, the following station, are the ruins of a Roman fort poised on the summit of one of the cliffs that here abut on the river. Shortly afterwards the train emerges upon a plain which Sir Ernest Cassel has, by means of irrigation, reclaimed from the wilderness and converted into a fertile tract. At Daraw the traveller will be reminded that he is approaching the Soudan, for here the camel caravans start for Berber. From this station the short excursion is made to the ruins of the temple of Sebek and Horus at Kom Ombo, donkeys being utilised to convey the tourist to and from this spot. The remains form a fine representation of the Roman period.

ASSOUAN AND BEYOND.

Arrived at Assouan, the traveller finds himself in a centre of considerable archæological interest, as well as in the southernmost town of importance in Upper Egypt. Possessing a perfect climate during the winter season, it is a pleasant place of temporary residence. There are several excellent hotels and good shops, besides the ever-interesting native bazaars. The town, which has a population of some ten thousand inhabitants, stands high on the river bank, and is surrounded by groves of palms and acacias. The Nile scenery in this vicinity changes its placid character to one of picturesque ruggedness, the mighty river winding its way among high abrupt cliffs and huge boulders of rock, while scattered palms, singly or in groups, stand gracefully motionless against the background of desert. The air is warm and dry; but the heat is never oppressive in winter, and the town is clean and free from dust. The streets, with shops displaying native wares of all sorts and along which representatives of many races in their various native attire



1. ELEPHANTINE ISLAND AND THE ROMAN BATHS. 2. SHELLAL 3. ASSOUAN.

pass continuously, afford interesting promenades. At the English church regular services are held by the resident chaplain during the winter. A visit to the Bishareen camp, a short distance outside the town, will show the nomads of the wilderness living in tents in the desert fashion.

At Syene, immediately to the south of Assouan, are the quarries of red granite, the source of the supply of the material for all the most lasting monuments of Egypt. The great blocks were here hewn out and polished and then conveyed on immense rafts to their various destinations down the long river. The labour thus entailed must have been enormous, considering the primitive nature of the tools employed by the workmen of those ancient days, and it is very easy to understand why such long periods were occupied in building the vast temples and other structures the remains of which constitute the wonders of the land.

Taking the train on from Assouan, the tourist proceeds to Shellal, six miles further south, which is the terminus of the Egyptian State railway in this direction. Here, just above the First Cataract of the Nile, is the great Dam, a vast modern engineering undertaking which has done more to ensure prosperity to Egypt than all the efforts of the ancient inhabitants in the way of utilising the fertilising waters of the great stream. It was constructed by Sir John Aird, and completed in 1902. The massive impounding wall across the river is a mile and a half long and 130 feet high, and is built of the ever-durable Assouan red granite. Thus a vast reservoir is formed on the upper reach, extending back for over 100 miles and with a storage capacity of more than 1,000,000,000 gallons, from which, by means of sluice gates at the Dam, the water is allowed to flow so as to maintain a sufficient supply in the river for irrigating the country on its long life-giving course northwards to the Mediterranean. On the island of Philæ, above the Dam, are the principal ancient remains in this vicinity, consisting of a number of temples. For this excursion boats are always in readiness at Shellal. Philæ is an enchanting islet that well deserves its title of the "Pearl of Egypt"; and the temples, all dating from the time of the Ptolemies, are wonderful examples of the constructive art, that dedicated to Isis being one of the finest specimens extant of the architecture of that period. The island is submerged during the first half of each year, when the water is high, and the temples can then only be explored by boat. Other ruined temples are to be seen on Elephantine Island, opposite Shellal, on which picturesque spot a number of mummies of sacred rams have been discovered in recent years. The ancient Nilometer in the river here, which has been restored to use after centuries of neglect, is an interesting relic of old times. On the west bank of the Nile are the rock tombs of the notables of the ancient town of Elephantine, approached by a wonderful stone staircase, hewn out of the hillside. In the locality there is also an old Coptic convent, dedicated to St. Simeon.

If the tour is to be continued from the terminus of the railway line at Shellal to the boundary of Egypt, the journey will be made up the Nile to the Second (the Great) Cataract at Wadi Halfa by Messrs. Cook & Son's admirable bi-weekly service of steamers, or the Hamburg and Anglo-American Line, or the Soudan Government's steamers. By Cook's boats, which are specially adapted for tourist traffic, every facility is given for viewing the sights *en route*, the trip up stream occupying four days, including the stoppages for excursions to the several places of interest along this stretch of the river. A number of temples and other ruins will be visited in succession; and the scenery of the river will be found to possess elements of wild grandeur as the stream winds through deep gorges in the granite hills. From the Roman fort which crowns a height overlooking the river at Kasr Ibrim, a magnificent view is obtained of the surrounding country, which is particularly impressive when steeped in the colouring of the setting sun. At Abu Simel is one of the finest ancient monuments in Egypt—the grand temple of Rameses the Great, hewn out of the solid rock, and all glorious within with paintings and sculpture, the latter including several colossal statues of the celebrated ruler of whom so many monumental reminders are to be found throughout the country. The riverine scenery at Abu Simel is striking; and hence on southwards the tourist passes through a region of majestic desolation until a final bend of the stream brings into view the palm groves of Halfa. The steamer generally reaches the end of its journey here about midday, in time for those who are bound for the Soudan to catch the afternoon train for Khartoum.

The long railway journey between Cairo and Assouan can be varied most pleasantly on either the up or the down journey by changing from the train into a river steamer at one of the principal points *en route*; or the whole expedition up the Nile may be performed by water. Messrs. Cook & Son devote special attention to this traffic, maintaining a fleet of both express and ordinary steamers, as well as of steam and sailing dahabeahs to meet the varied requirements of all classes of passengers. In fact, this celebrated firm of tourist agents may be said to have made the Nile a highway of enjoyment, on which the visitor may be conveyed with speed and yet not miss the principal sights on and near the banks, or proceed as leisurely as he may wish. By dahabeah, of course, is the most luxurious method of travelling on the river, ensuring privacy and perfect independence. An experienced and trustworthy captain is in command of each boat, and the *cuisine* and domestic arrangements in general are in the hands of a competent dragoman. Fresh provisions in plenty are to be obtained from the fellaheen along the river, and every effort is made to secure the comfort and pleasure of passengers. The steamers afford a more rapid form of conveyance, and, by this means of transport the whole of the most interesting sights of the Nile are brought within compass with a minimum of trouble to the traveller and at a moderate cost. Messrs. Cook's tourist steamers ply weekly between Cairo and Assouan, also between Assiout and Assouan, while the service between Shellal and Wadi Halfa is bi-weekly The itinerary of the expedition by river from Cairo to Assouan and back, giving ample time for seeing, either on the way up or down, all the places of interest, covers a period of three weeks, while the express steamers perform the double journey in nineteen days. From Assiout to Assouan and back occupies two weeks, and from Assouan to Wadi Halfa and back, one week. Inquiries as to charges and times of sailings from the different points should be made at Messrs. Cook and Son's Cairo offices, situated near Shepheard's hotel, which is a kind of intelligence department for all Egypt. The requisite information can be obtained also at the firm's head office, Ludgate Circus, London, where all arrangements can be made in advance. Messrs. Cook & Son should also be consulted if an expedition to the Sinai Peninsula is contemplated.

A feature of Egypt, which, however, is out of the compass of an ordinary tour, is the chain of successive oases which stretches southwards through the country at a distance of one hundred to two hundred miles from the Nile and westward from the river. But if the tourist desires to experience something of desert life, he should visit at least one of these spots. The Great Oasis of Khargeh is connected with the Luxor-Assouan section of the Nile Railway at Khargeh Junction (near Nag-Hamadi) by a recently constructed light line, 194 miles in length and running south-west to this fertile spot in the desert. A visit to any of the six other principal oases entails a journey of several days on camel-back. In the neighbourhood of these settlements are to be seen most interesting relics of a forgotten past. The Oasis of Baharieh can be reached in four days from Fayoum. The old monasteries in the Natroun Valley, not far from Cairo, are worth a visit, if time permit.

THE SOUDAN.

VISITORS who include the Soudan in a tour of Egypt and the Near East proceed south by the Soudan Government Railway from Halfa (Wadi Halfa) to Khartoum, or they may travel by the Red Sea route from Suez—which port is connected by rail with Cairo by the Port Said line *viâ* Ismailia, on the Canal—to Port Soudan, on the western shore about halfway down the Red Sea, and thence by the Soudan Government railway to Khartoum *viâ* Atbara Junction. The itinerary of the Soudan expedition should be definitely mapped out before starting, and the railway time tables should be carefully studied, as the trains do not run at the same times every day. The railway fares from Halfa to Khartoum are:—First class, £E5¾ (the Egyptian pound is equivalent to about £1 0s. 6d. in British money), or, with sleeping car, £E6¾; second class, £E4·025; return fares at double rates. Meals are supplied on the sleeping car trains for 70 piastres a day, consisting of breakfast (10 piastres), lunch (24 piastres), afternoon tea (6 piastres) and dinner (30 piastres). Passengers by the other trains have to provide their own food. The express from Halfa, leaving at 3.0 p.m. on three days a week, accomplishes the distance of 575 miles to Khartoum in 26½ hours. By the Nile railway route, the through journey from Cairo to Khartoum (1,356 miles) can be made in four days, the first class fare, not including sleeping car or meals, being £13 15s. 9d. By the Red Sea route the journey takes a day longer, but the fare is £1 less.

Should the latter route be chosen, the tourist will travel from Cairo to Suez by rail, and from Suez down the Red Sea by the Khedivial mail line of steamers, leaving that port every Wednesday evening and arriving at Port Soudan on Friday evening. From Port Soudan the boat express train, to which dining and sleeping cars are attached, conveys him to Khartoum (495 miles) in 24 hours. The railway fares for this journey are just under £E5 first class (sleeping car charge an additional £E1), and £E3½ second class; while the tariff for meals is the same as that for the Halfa to Khartoum journey given above. Sleeping car berths should be booked in advance by telegram to the Traffic Manager of Soudan Railways, addressed, "Rukab, Halfa Camp," or by application at Messrs. Cook & Son's office, Cairo. Baths, which will be found refreshing after the long journey

through the desert, can be obtained at Abu Hamed and Atbara Junction. On the Soudan railways, light hand-baggage only may be taken into the passenger cars. All bulkier luggage must be conveyed in the baggage van, and will be charged for according to weight and distance, the charge including insurance as well as all handling fees. The trains, especially built for desert traffic, will be found comfortable and well equipped in every respect, the windows of the cars being fitted with dust-shields and with tinted glass to relieve the sun-glare. Electric light is installed in the carriages, as well as a most efficient ventilating apparatus specially designed to maintain a constant current of cool air. Letters can be written and posted on the train, and telegrams sent and received at the principal stations on the line.

On the run from Halfa to Khartoum, the stations on the first part of the journey are over a hundred miles apart, and little but desert scenery is visible from the carriage windows. The Nile is parted with at Halfa, where it commences a long detour south-westwards, and is not rejoined until Abu Hamed, 230 miles on the journey, is reached. The railway follows the route of Lord Kitchener's famous march to Khartoum, of which such a graphic account is given in "With Kitchener to Khartoum," by the brilliant war correspondent, George Steevens, who subsequently met his death in Ladysmith during the siege of the latter town by the Boers. With that rousing book in his hand, the traveller in the train will have good company, and will be able to mark the various stages in the progress of the British expedition which destroyed the dervish power and thus paved the way for the introduction of civilisation into this remote desert region.

From Abu Hamed on to Khartoum, the railway runs generally parallel with the course of the Nile, on the eastern side of the river, the Fifth Cataract being at this point. From Abu Hamed there is also a branch line to Kareima. The next stopping-place of note is Berber (360 miles from Halfa), which was a base on Lord Kitchener's line of communication, and is frequently mentioned in Steevens's book. Twenty-four miles further on the journey the Atbara river is crossed by an iron bridge. At Atbara Junction the line, 300 miles long, connecting with Port Soudan, comes in from the east. The battle of Atbara, so graphically described by Steevens, was fought near here. Between Atbara and Shendy (470 miles from Halfa) are the Pyramids of Merowe, the tombs of ancient rulers of this region, mentioned by Strabo. The remaining distance of 190 miles from Atbara Junction to Khartoum occupies about eight and a half hours by the express, and the destination is reached at half-past five in the evening. From North Khartoum, the railway terminus, passengers are conveyed by steam ferry to the town proper, where good accommodation can be obtained at the Grand Hotel. At the time of writing (February, 1909) a railway and road bridge over the Blue Nile at Khartoum, which is being constructed under contract by a British engineering company, is approaching completion.

Omdurman, three miles from Khartoum, where Lord Kitchener's final victory over the dervishes was won, has hitherto been the principal trade centre of the Soudan ; but now Khartoum, the capital and seat of Government, is also becoming the commercial headquarters of the country. Khartoum—the name signifies "elephant's trunk," in reference to the point of land jutting out between the White and Blue Niles, whose waters join at this point—is a rapidly growing town, with a population rising to 10,000, and situated on the alluvial soil of the eastern bank of the river. It has been rebuilt since the destruction of the old town by the dervish forces in 1885, after General Gordon's memorable defence, and now bears a modern aspect. Under British rule, in fact, the whole country has been tranquillised and is being industrially developed. Khartoum contains several noticeable buildings—the palace of the Governor (Sir Reginald Wingate, Sirdar of Egypt), the various offices of the Administration, the premises of three banks, the residences of the leading officials, the Grand Hotel, the Club, and the Market Place. The portion of the Egyptian Army stationed here is lodged in barracks stationed at intervals along the line of the old entrenchments, while outside these lines are the grass-roofed mud brick houses of the Soudanese. Higher up the river are the Gordon College and the barracks of the British garrison. The new town laid out since the British Occupation presents a pleasing appearance, having wide avenues bordered with shady trees and flanked by buildings erected in conformity with the official plan. At the west end, public gardens have been established, also a small zoo. As Khartoum stands 1,250 feet above the level of the Mediterranean, the climate is enjoyable during the winter months, the days being warm and sunny and the nights cool. Under the strictly enforced regulations for the maintenance of cleanliness, fever is not allowed to become prevalent in the town. The Governor's palace is an imposing pile overlooking the river and having a fine garden ; and it presents a striking contrast to the dismantled palace of the Mahdi, the remains of which may be inspected with interest. The ubiquitous Cook and Son have an office at the Grand Hotel, where excursions to various spots in the neighbourhood—including the battlefield of Omdurman, the remains of the Mahdi's tomb, and the Khalifa's house exactly as he left it to go to defeat and death—may be arranged, and where shooting expeditions with a further range can be planned and fitted out. Government permission has to be obtained for the latter class of expedition.

The same request to visitors to restrain from the indiscriminate distribution of "backsheesh" to the natives as is made by the Egyptian Government, is also urged by the Soudan Administration. All servants travelling with visitors must have proper licences, which are obtainable from the Soudan agency in Cairo, or at the Government office in Khartoum.

Before, or immediately on arrival at Khartoum, tourists should acquaint themselves with the various Government regulations that will surround their movements in the Soudan. Some of these regulations may appear rather stringent ; but all are framed in the visitors' own interests. First of all, visitors are required to inscribe their names, nationalities, home addresses, and future movements (giving addresses) either in the hotel book or at the Governor's office. Should they propose to travel off the railway line in any direction, they must notify their presence to the head of the province, or administrative district, in which they find themselves, thus enabling the Government to answer any inquiries received as to their whereabouts. Ladies are advised never to travel alone in the Soudan.

For excursions to places along the river, mosquito curtains are indispensable, and these, as well as all camp equipments, cannot be obtained outside Omdurman and Khartoum. Donkeys, to be hired for about 5 piastres a day, form the usual means of transport in and around the towns, but camels are necessary for long expeditions. The average cost of camel hire, including attendant and forage, is 15 piastres for a riding animal, and 10 piastres for a baggage animal. Notice should be given to the local authorities as long as possible beforehand of camels required, so that suitable animals may be obtained from the grazing grounds, which are generally some days' march away from the towns. It is advisable for those who intend to travel long distances on camel-back to buy their own saddles. Horses and mules are not easily obtainable. The inclusive pay of a guide providing his own rations, camel and forage is about 12 piastres a day, or, without camel, 7 piastres a day. Servants to accompany parties going south from Khartoum can be obtained at that place, or may be brought from Halfa, where a registry of suitable attendants is kept. The pay of servants in the Soudan varies from £E2½ to £E5 per month, according to the class, that is, whether ordinary body-servant, groom (sais) or cook. The currency of the Soudan is the same as that of Egypt ; but in the less civilised parts transactions with the natives take the form of barter, beads, brass ornaments and bright-coloured cloths being favourite means of exchange. Articles for barter may be purchased in the large towns.

Trips up the White and Blue Nile may be taken from Khartoum on the steamers of the Soudan Development Company, which have good passenger accommodation, or on sailing barges that can be fitted out roughly as houseboats. For a boat of the latter description of nine tons burden, the hire charge (without fittings) would be about £E5 per month, including pay and rations of crew. Steamers run weekly between Khartoum and places up both the Blue and the White Niles, and monthly between Khartoum and Gondokoro, 1,082 miles south, up the course of the latter river. The telegraph line has been carried to Gondokoro.

The Soudan abounds with big game—elephants, rhinoceroses, buffaloes, lions, antelopes, &c. But those who embark on shooting expeditions in this country must strictly observe the Government regulations as to the introduction and carriage of firearms and ammunition into Egypt or the Soudan, as to the licences to be obtained and where obtainable, and as to the animals and birds that may or may not be killed or captured. All the requisite information under these heads, in addition to other useful particulars, is contained in the little official book, "Notes for Travellers and Sportsmen," to be obtained at the office of the Soudan agent in Cairo and other principal centres, price, 10 piastres, or 2*s*.

Another small official compendium of information indispensable for tourists in the country is the "Soudan Almanack," published annually, price 1*s*., and obtainable through any bookseller in Great Britain, as well as at most places in Egypt and the Soudan. Besides a variety of useful data, the contents include valuable directions for the prevention of fever, and the general preservation of health when travelling in the Soudan, also for rendering first-aid in cases of attacks of disease, of drowning, broken limbs, sunstroke, snake-bites, and other accidents that may befall travellers. A number of larger and more exhaustive publications dealing with the Soudan may be purchased at the Intelligence Department, War Office, Cairo.

CURRENCY.

Nickel Coins	...	1 millième.
	...	2 millièmes.
	...	5 ,,
	...	1 Piastre.
Silver Coins	...	1 Piastre = 10 millièmes
	...	2 Piastres.
	...	5 ,,
	...	10 ,,
	...	20 ,,
Gold Coins	...	£1 Sterling = 97½ P.T.
	...	Napoleon = 77·15 ,,
	...	Turkish lira = 87·75 ,,
	...	£ Egyptian 1 = 100 ,, = 1,000 millièmes.

CONVERSION TABLES.

The following tables have been calculated at P.T. 97·5 to the £1 sterling, but the Bank rate of exchange varies slightly from time to time. The number of piastres and millièmes in any sum up to 11*d.* is shown in the first table by the figure appearing immediately beneath the amount in question, while the number of piastres and millièmes in any sum up to 20s. appears in the perpendicular column next to the column of shillings. To ascertain how many piastres and millièmes there are in any given sum composed of both shillings and pence consult the figures where the line showing the specified number of shillings meets the columns of pence. Thus, for example, 19*s.* 8*d.* will be found to be P.T. 95 8 m. The second table relates to pounds sterling, and is arranged on precisely the same principle.

I.—Shillings and Pence into Piastres and Millièmes.

		1d.	2d.	3d.	4d.	5d.	6d.	7d.	8d.	9d.	10d.	11d.
	P.T.	·4	·8	1·2	1·6	2·0	2·4	2·8	3·2	3·6	4·0	4·4
1/-	4·8	5·2	5·6	6·0	6·5	6·9	7·3	7·7	8·1	8·5	8·9	9·3
2/-	9·7	10·1	10·5	10·9	11·3	11·7	12·1	12·5	13·0	13·4	13·8	14·2
3/-	14·6	15·0	15·4	15·8	16·2	16·6	17·0	17·4	17·8	18·2	18·6	19·0
4/-	19·5	19·9	20·3	20·7	21·1	21·5	21·9	22·3	22·7	23·1	23·5	23·9
5/-	24·3	24·7	25·1	25·5	26·0	26·4	26·8	27·2	27·6	28·0	28·4	28·8
6/-	29·2	29·6	30·0	30·4	30·8	31·2	31·6	32·0	32·5	32·9	33·3	33·7
7/-	34·1	34·5	34·9	35·3	35·7	36·1	36·5	36·9	37·3	37·7	38·1	38·5
8/-	39·0	39·4	39·8	40·2	40·6	41·0	41·4	41·8	42·2	42·6	43·0	43·4
9/-	43·8	44·2	44·6	45·0	45·5	45·9	46·3	46·7	47·1	47·5	47·9	48·3
10/-	48·7	49·1	49·5	49·9	50·3	50·7	51·1	51·5	52·0	52·4	52·8	53·2
11/-	53·6	54·0	54·4	54·8	55·2	55·6	56·0	56·4	56·8	57·2	57·6	58·0
12/-	58·5	58·9	59·3	59·7	60·1	60·5	60·9	61·3	61·7	62·1	62·5	62·9
13/-	63·3	63·7	64·1	64·5	65·0	65·4	65·8	66·2	66·6	67·0	67·4	67·8
14/-	68·2	68·6	69·0	69·4	69·8	70·2	70·6	71·0	71·5	71·9	72·3	72·7
15/-	73·1	73·5	73·9	74·3	74·7	75·1	75·5	75·9	76·3	76·7	77·1	77·5
16/-	78·0	78·4	78·8	79·2	79·6	80·0	80·4	80·8	81·2	81·6	82·0	82·4
17/-	82·8	83·2	83·6	84·0	84·5	84·9	85·3	85·7	86·1	86·5	86·9	87·3
18/-	87·7	88·1	88·5	88·9	89·3	89·7	90·1	90·5	91·0	91·4	91·8	92·2
19/-	92·6	93·0	93·4	93·8	94·2	94·6	95·0	95·4	95·8	96·2	96·6	97·0
20/-	97·5											

II.—Pounds Sterling Into Piastres.

Tens.		Units.									
			£1	£2	£3	£4	£5	£6	£7	£8	£9
		—	97½	195	292½	390	487½	585	682½	780	877½
£ 10	...	975	1072½	1170	1267½	1365	1462½	1560	1657½	1755	1852½
£ 20	...	1950	2047½	2145	2242½	2340	2437½	2535	2632½	2730	2827½
£ 30	...	2925	3022½	3120	3217½	3315	3412½	3510	3607½	3705	3802½
£ 40	...	3900	3997½	4095	4192½	4290	4387½	4485	4582½	4680	4777½
£ 50	...	4875	4972½	5070	5167½	5265	5362½	5460	5557½	5655	5752½
£ 60	...	5850	5947½	6045	6142½	6240	6337½	6435	6532½	6630	6727½
£ 70	...	6825	6922½	7020	7117½	7215	7312½	7410	7507½	7605	7702½
£ 80	...	7800	7897½	7995	8092½	8190	8287½	8385	8482½	8580	8677½
£ 90	...	8775	8872½	8970	9067½	9165	9262½	9360	9457½	9555	9652½
£ 100	...	9750	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

ARABIC WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Pic (or diraa) "baladi" (= 24 kirats) = 22·83 ins. = ·585 metres (for ordinary measure).

Pic "mehmari" = 29·53 ins. = ·75 metre (architectural, &c.).

Hindassa and pic Stambuli = (practically) 2 ft. 2 ins. = ·66 metre.

Kassaba = 11 ft. 7·76 ins. = 3·55 metres.

Saâh (hour) = anything between 2½ and 4 miles.

Square pic "mehmari" = 6·43 sq. ft. = ·562 sq. metre.

Square kassaba = 15·07 sq. yds. = 12·60 sq. metres.

Sahm = 8·72 sq. yds. = 7·30 sq. metres.

Kirat = 209·35 sq. yds. = 175 sq. metres.

Feddan = 1·038 acre = 4,200 sq. metres = 70·88 yds. square.

Dirhem = 16 kirats = 48·15 grs. (Troy) = 1·76 drs. = ·11 oz. = 3·12 grammes.

Mithkal [for precious metals and stones] = 1½ dirhems = 24 kirats = 72·22 grs. (Troy) = 4·68 grammes.

Ukia = 12 dirhems = 1·32 ozs. = 37·44 grammes.

Rotl = 12 ukia = 144 dirhems = ·99 lb. = 450 grammes.

Abyssinian rotl = 10 mokha = 120 dirhems = ·68 lb.

Okah [or oke] = 400 dirhems = 2·77 rotls = 2·75 lb. = 1·25 kilogramme.

Hamlah = 66 okes = 165·08 lb. = 75 kilogrammes.

Kantar = 100 rotls = 36 okes = 99·05 lb. = 44·93 kilogrammes.

Alexandrian kantar = 112 okes = 308·15 lb. = 140 kilogrammes.

Haml or heml [camel load] = 200 okes = 550·27 lb. [Egypt] = 250 kilogrammes (300 lb. for Western or Bedouin camels).

Tonolata (French tonne) = 800 okes = 2204·62 lb. = 1,000 kilogrammes = 10 quintaux.

Tonolata Inglisi [English ton] = 814 okes = 1016·05 kilogrammes = about 7½ ardebs (of wheat).

Guerba (liquid measure) = 14·67 galls. = ·66 cubic metre = 50 c.m. cubed.

Ruba (of dates) = about 10 lb. 30 rubas = camel load.

DISTANCES FROM CAIRO.

ENVIRONS OF THE CITY.

Tombs of Caliphs	... ...	1½ miles.
Old Cairo	... ...	2½ ,,
Shoubra Palace	... ...	4½ ,,
Koubbeh Palace	... ...	4¾ ,,
Moses' Spring	... ...	5 ,,
Ostrich Farm, Matarieh	...	6½ ,,
Heliopolis	... ...	6¾ ,,
Great Petrified Forest	...	8 ,,
Gizeh Pyramids	... ...	8½ ,,
Delta Barrage	... ...	12½ ,,
Bedreshein	... ...	14½ ,,
Sakkara Pyramids	... ...	14½ ,,
Helouan	... ...	15 ,,
Little Petrified Forest	...	16 ,,

ON THE NILE.

North (as the crow flies).

Benha	... ...	30 miles.
Zifteh	... ...	46 ,,
Kafr el Zayat	... ...	59 ,,
Mansourah	... ...	72 ,,
Rahmanieh	... ...	80 ,,
Damanhour	... ...	82 ,,
Rosetta	... ...	109 ,,
Damietta	... ...	112½ ,,
Alexandria	... ...	117 ,,
Do. (by rail)	... ...	131 ,,

South (along the river).

Beni Souef	... ...	80 miles.
Minieh	... ...	160 ,,
Assiout	... ...	229 ,,
Keneh	... ...	385 ,,
Assouan	... ...	554 ,,
Korosko	... ...	676 ,,
Wadi Halfa	... ...	776 ,,
Sarras	... ...	806 ,,
Dongola	... ...	1,035 ,,
Berber	... ...	1,450 ,,
Shendy	... ...	1,543 ,,
Khartoum	... ...	1,665 ,,
Wadelai	(as the crow flies)	2,138 ,,
Victoria Nyanza	,,	2,420 ,,

CAB FARES.

CAIRO.

By Distance.—If hired and discharged within the City Circle, *i.e.* 4 kilometres (about 2½ miles) radius from Opera Square :—

For one kilometre or part	...	3 P.T.
For each extra kilometre or part		2 ,,

If hired within and discharged without the City Circle an additional 2 piastres will be charged for every kilometre or part of a kilometre outside the circle.

For each wait of 15 minutes ... 2 P.T.

BY TIME.—The driver must be notified beforehand of the intention to hire the conveyance by time. The Arabic for "by time" is "BIL-SAA," and "by distance" "TOWSEELA."

For one hour or less, by day or night	8 P.T.
Above one hour: For every 15 minutes or less	2 „
For 12 hours, by day or night	60 „

EXTRA PAYMENTS. — For each package carried outside, 1 P.T. If more than three persons carried, each extra person, 2 P.T.

SPECIAL FARES.—For conveyance to the undermentioned places of interest a special tariff has been authorised as follows :—

	Single. P.T.	Waiting. Hours.	Return. P.T.
Polo Ground	5	1	15
Gezireh Hotel	5	1	15
Grand Stand (Race Days)	10	3	30
Gizeh Zoological Gardens	10	2	20
Pyramids	40	3	60
Foum el Khalig	8	1	15
Old Cairo...	10	1	18
Abbassieh Barracks ...	8	1	15
Koubbeh les Bains ...	12	1	20
Heliopolis	25	2	40
Citadel	8	1	15
Tombs of Caliphs ...	10	3	30
Rod el Farag	8	2	20
Shoubra Palace	10	½	15

ALEXANDRIA.

TOWN TARIFF.—The limits of the town are: Gabbary Gate, Champs Elysées, Waterworks, Hadra Hills, and the sea :—

	1-horse cab. Mill.	2-horse cab. Mill.
A drive not exceeding 10 minutes ...	20	30
„ „ 20 „ ...	25	40
„ „ 30 „ ...	30	50

Beyond 30 minutes, 20 mill. for every ¼ of an hour or fraction of ¼ of an hour for a 2-horse cab, and 15 mill. for a 1-horse cab.

From 11 p.m. to 6 a.m. the above fares are increased by 5 mill. for a 1-horse cab and 10 mill. for a 2-horse cab for every ½ hour or fraction thereof. An extra charge of 10 mill. is made for cabs taken inside the railway station (Beb el Guedid).

SPECIAL TARIFF.—From the interior to the exterior of the town and vice-versâ :—

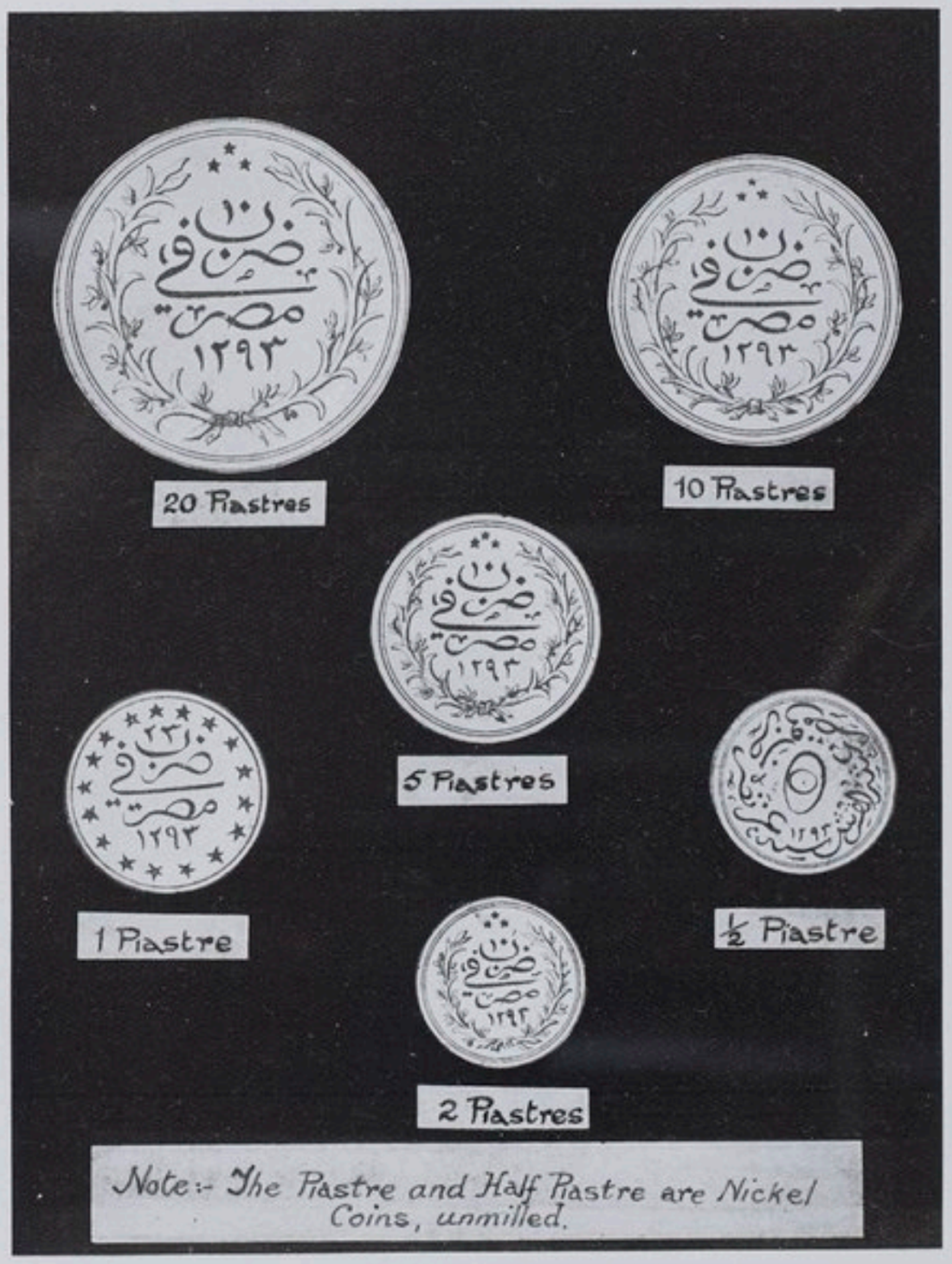
Drive to Hadra, No. 3 Palace, Lombroso, Ibrahimieh Casino	50	80
Return journey, with ½ hour's wait	80	120
Drive to Ibrahimieh, Sidi Gaber, Wardian, Abattoir	70	100
Return journey, with 1 hour's wait	100	150
Drive to Bulkeley (Station), Antoniadis, Nouzha Gardens	80	120
Return journey, with 1 hour's wait	140	200
Drive to Fleming, Souk, Bacos ...	100	140
Return journey, with 1 hour's wait	150	220
Drive to San Stefano, Hôtel Beau Rivage, Ramleh (Government railway) Hagar Nawatieh, Mex ...	120	160
San Stefano excluded	140	180
Return journey, with 1½ hours' wait	200	300
For every wait of ½ hour beyond the prescribed time	25	40

By night the above fares are increased in the same way as for the town tariff.

RAMLEH AND SIDI GABER.—The town tariff applies to Ramleh district when cabs are taken and dismissed within the perimeter of the said district (*i.e.* between Abou-Nawatir, Hôtel Beau Rivage, Gabrial Station) and also to Ibrahimieh district included between Hadra Hills, Ramleh Road, Cleopatra Baths and the sea.

From Sidi Gaber Station to Bacos, Souk, Rosetta Road and Greek Church (Zizinia) on Siouf Road ...	60	80

Beyond that limit, *i.e.* from Sidi Gaber to San Stefano, Beau Rivage, &c. 80 100



EGYPTIAN COINAGE.

BOAT HIRE.

PORT OF ALEXANDRIA.

During bad weather the following fares are increased by one half, or doubled, both by day and by night, according to the force of the weather. When the fare is doubled, the conveyance of passengers is optional on the part of the boatmen. For preventing disputes the fare by night should be paid on the Marina Landing Pier in the presence of a coastguard's representative before getting into the boats.

From November 1 to March 31, between 7 a.m. and 7 p.m. From April 1 to October 31, between 5 a.m. and 9 p.m.

	Day Service. P.T.	Night Service. P.T.
From the landing places (Marina or Quays) to any ship in the Careening Basin or at the Arsenal Wharf, or vice-versâ :—		
For one or two passengers ...	2	3
For each additional passenger ...	1	1½
From the landing places (Marina or Quays) to any ship in the Inner Harbour (Careening Basin and ships at Arsenal Wharf excepted) or to Ras-el-Tin Lighthouse or vice-versâ:—		
For one or two passengers ...	3	4½
For each additional passenger (up to four passengers)	1½	2
If more than four passengers, each	1	1½
From the landing places (Marina or Quays) to any ship or place on shore in the Outer Harbour as far as Beheireh Beacon and end of Breakwater or vice-versâ :—		
For one or two passengers... ...	5	8
For each passenger (up to four passengers)	2	2½
If more than four passengers, each	1	1½







SHEPHEARD'S HOTEL.

1. The Hotel.
2. Chas. Baehler, Managing Director.
3. The Grand Hall.

From the Landing Places (Marina or Quays) to any ship outside the Passes or "Fort Adjami" or vice-versâ :—	Day Service. P.T.	Night Service. P.T.
For one or two passengers ...	10	15
For each additional passenger (up to four passengers)	4	6
If more than four passengers, each	3	4½
By the hour, with two men :—		
For the first hour	8	10
For every consecutive hour ...	6	8
By the hour, with four men :—		
For the first hour	9	12
For every consecutive hour ...	6	8
Each trunk or portmanteau ...	1	1
Each small package not carried in the hand	½	½

SHEPHEARD'S HOTEL, CAIRO.

MANY rivals have sprung up in Cairo within recent years, but Shepheard's Hotel still holds its place as one of the leading establishments of its kind, not alone by reason of its historic associations, but also because successive managements have marched step by step with the progress of modern ideals of what a hotel should be.

The founder was a Mr. Shepheard, of Cathorpe, England, who came to Cairo in 1841. The hostelry which bore his name was very large for those days, but before a decade had elapsed he found it necessary to provide increased accommodation, and in 1850 he succeeded, by the aid of Sir Charles Murray, the then British Consul General, and with the patronage of the Viceroy, Abbas Pasha, in renting a large Government building, which stood on the site occupied by the Shepheard's Hotel of the present day. This building, erected towards the close of the eighteenth century, served as Buonaparte's headquarters on the occasion of his Egyptian campaign, and after his withdrawal it was utilised successively as a school of languages, as the residence of Princess Kiamil, and as a religious institution or *wakf*.

Mr. Shepheard carried on business for ten years in the new premises, and retired after transferring the business to Mr. Ph. Zech. Alive to future possibilities, Mr. Zech began in 1891 the construction of the present magnificent hotel. The old building was entirely demolished, and in the space of a little over five months the new Shepheard's rose in its place. In 1896 the premises were acquired by the Egyptian Hotels, Ltd., a company formed for the purpose of amalgamating Shepheard's Hotel and the Gezireh Palace Hotel.

The name "Shepheard's" is world-known as a synonym for substantial comfort. Round a spacious hall are distributed the reading, drawing, and music rooms; the dining room, decorated in the Renaissance style, has seating accommodation for upwards of five hundred guests; while on the upper floors there are suites of apartments of every description, besides a large number of single and double bedrooms, of which over eighty have private bathrooms attached. The hotel contains also a restaurant, a grill room, a bar, billiard rooms, and smoking rooms. A fine terrace overlooks the busy Chareh el Kamel, while to the rear of the building lies a palm garden, with tennis courts, in which the visitor may seek rest when the noises of the thoroughfare have substituted weariness for interest in the sights of the street. The general arrangements leave nothing to be desired. The *cuisine* is excellent; an English grill room, and a restaurant where meals *à la carte* are served just as in any first class restaurant in Paris, provides an alternative bill of fare to that of the ordinary *table d'hôte*. Electricity, generated on the premises, is put to all its many modern uses; and a steam laundry solves what is often a difficult problem for visitors.

The Gezireh Palace Hotel, splendidly situated on Gezireh Island, was originally built by Khedive Ismael Pasha, and it was here that he entertained the royal personages who met at the opening of the Suez Canal—the Empress Eugénie, the Empress of Austria, the Russian Grand Dukes, and the Prince of Wales. The most pleasing feature of the hotel are the pleasure grounds, beautifully laid out, and containing a casino, with ball room, billiard room, and restaurant. An excellent service of coaches and motor-cars places the hotel in communication with Shepheard's, and a private telephone is also provided.

AL HAYAT HOTEL, HELOUAN.

To the east of Helouan, and occupying an elevated site on the Mokattam Hills some 260 feet above the Nile, stands the Al Hayat Hotel in solitary grandeur. The main building was opened in 1903, and the hotel soon became so popular that it was necessary to add a new two-storeyed wing in 1907, accommodation now being available for 250 guests. Nearly all the bedrooms, salons, terraces and verandahs have a southern aspect, and command superb views of Helouan, the Nile Valley, and the Libyan Desert from Gizeh to Fayoum, as well as the Arabian Desert. Visitors are thus enabled to enjoy the combined advantages of bracing desert air, sunshine, and picturesque scenery. No fewer than seventeen pyramids may be counted from the western terrace, which is also an excellent place from which to view the gorgeous Egyptian sunsets. The broad southern terrace which overlooks the gardens and tennis courts is one of the most popular resorts for afternoon tea in the neighbourhood during the season.

The luxuriously appointed, self-contained suites of apartments, and the number of bedrooms with private verandahs, or loggias, constitute an attractive feature of this palatial establishment, which is also exceptionally well equipped with public rooms. The vestibule and hall, approached from the western terrace, are furnished with easy chairs, settees, escritoires, and card tables, and are used as general sitting rooms. To the right of these is the music salon, richly decorated in the Pompeiian style, the prevailing tones in the colour scheme being blue and red. The corresponding apartment to the left of the hall is furnished as a library and reading room. Beyond the music salon lies a smoking divan. A spacious lounge, which serves also as a smoking room, looks out upon the southern terrace, and behind it is the billiard room, containing an excellent English table. The dining room, a lofty apartment surrounded by a gallery supported on pillars, is chastely decorated in cream and pale blue tints. Although it contains seating accommodation for some two hundred persons, a scheme for enlarging it is under contemplation. In the new block are a ladies' drawing room, elegantly upholstered, with tiled floor and a dado in decorated blue tiles, a restaurant, and a bar. Mention must also be made of the *galeries de repos*—sunny spots where rest and quiet may be enjoyed—and of the sheltered promenade, which lies in the south-west angle of the grounds. The grounds themselves are laid out in a delightful series of small terraces, rockeries, flower-beds, and ornamental walks. There are also tennis courts, upon which tournaments are held regularly, a croquet ground, and a shooting range. During the season a variety of entertainments is given, including programmes by military bands and orchestras, classical concerts, balls, and small dances. In short, everything possible is done to make the stay of the visitor enjoyable.

The visitors' lists year by year have numbered many distinguished persons, among whom may be mentioned Herr von Brauer, a well-known German minister; Professor Lænander, of Sweden; Count Goluchowsky, brother of the Austrian ex-Minister for Foreign Affairs; Ghazi Mukhtar Pasha, a Turkish Senator; General von Einen, the Austrian Minister for War; Princess Hanau, General Orloff, Admiral von Senden-Bibran, and Fräulein von Bülow.

The general equipment of the Al Hayat includes the most elaborate culinary arrangements, an Austrian bakery, a special pumping and filtering plant by means of which water is obtained from the Nile, a refrigerator, an electric lighting plant, hydraulic lifts, a laundry, livery stables, and a motor garage, in connection with which it may be mentioned that the company have a 32 h.p. motor 'bus which meets all trains. The whole of the building is heated by steam, and the sanitary arrangements throughout are of the most approved English design.

The Al Hayat Company was formed in 1903 and has since been registered under the local Companies' Acts. It has a fully paid-up capital of £E80,000, and the business is managed by a board of directors which includes Baron John Knoop (chairman), Baron Ludwig Knoop, Major von Arnem, E. Mallisin, and R. Springer (managing director).

The company also owns the Zander Institute and the San Giovanni Café Restaurant. The former, which is situated opposite the main entrance to the hotel, is under the personal management of a Marienbad physician, and is equipped with all the necessary appliances for electro-therapeutics, mechanical massage, hot air baths, cold water treatment, and treatment by Röntgen rays.

The restaurant is situated on the Nile, some fifteen minutes' drive from Helouan, and is surrounded by picturesque gardens and grounds. It is a charming picnic resort, and attracts large numbers of visitors.

MR. SPRINGER, to whom the success of the whole enterprise is so largely due, is a native of Constantinople, and was educated at the German School there and at the Cairo School of Arts. In 1892 he became secretary to the Grand Hotel at Helouan, which was then owned by Messrs. Suarès & Co., and in 1898 he was appointed general manager of the Mungovitz hotels, namely the Grand Hotel, the Hôtel des Bains, and the Baths Hotel. He resigned in 1903 in order to open up the Al Hayat Hotel. Every year Mr. Springer makes a practice of visiting Europe during the summer months in order to keep himself well acquainted with all the latest developments of hotel management.

SEMIRAMIS HOTEL, CAIRO.

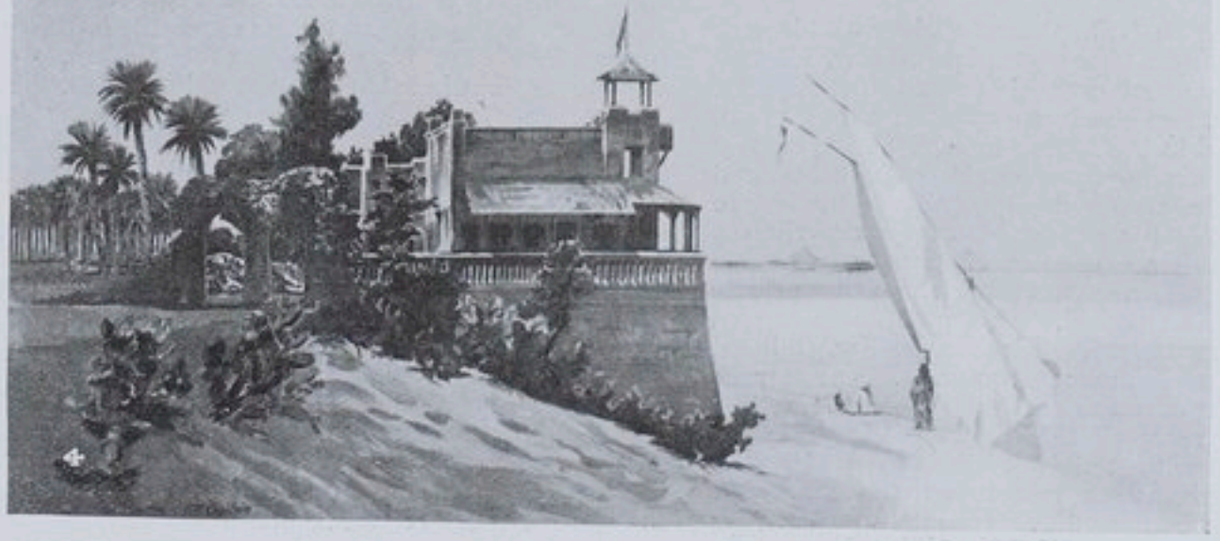
OCCUPYING an unrivalled position near the British Embassy on the east bank of the Nile, and commanding charming views of the river and the Pyramids of Gizeh and Sakkara in the distance, stands the Semiramis Hotel, one of the favourite resorts of the cream of Cairo's winter society. Among many distinguished people who have patronised this famous place of entertainment since it was opened in 1907 may be mentioned











THE AL HAYAT HOTEL—HELOUAN.

1. The Terrace
2. The Hotel.
3. Tennis Courts.
4. San Giovanni Restaurant.











THE AL HAYAT HOTEL—HELOUAN.

1. Dining Room. 2. Bedroom. 3. The Lounge. 4. The Hall. 5. Private Sitting Room

H.H. the Khedive, who has been a frequent visitor and attended a banquet given by Don Carlos, Duke of Madrid, during a sojourn at the hotel that extended over several months; H.R.H. Prince Frederick Henry of Prussia, who made a long stay prior to starting on his trip into the interior of Africa; H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught; Sir John Harrington, British Minister in Abyssinia; H.H. Princess Dhuleep Singh; Mr. J. Gould and his family; Mr. and Mrs. Hall Caine; and H.E. Lau Tsing-Tsiang, the Chinese Plenipotentiary to the Peace Conference.

The Semiramis contains a number of luxuriously furnished suites of apartments, with private entrance, sitting room, bedrooms, and bath and toilet rooms. Besides these, there are some two hundred bedrooms, most of which have bath and toilet rooms attached. The hotel is warmed throughout by means of steam radiators, and is constructed of fire-proof materials.

The public rooms on the ground floor include a ladies' drawing room, music salon, lofty dining hall, reading and writing rooms, bar and billiard room, restaurant, and a spacious ball room. The last-named, decorated and upholstered in the finest Empire style, is unsurpassed in Cairo. Dances are given every Wednesday evening during the season, the music being supplied by the well-known orchestra which performs at the hotel every afternoon and evening. The marble vestibule of the hotel is acknowledged to be one of the sights of modern Cairo, while the roof-garden—an imitation of the "hanging gardens" of Babylon, wherein the Assyrian Queen Semiramis was wont to take her pleasures—forms one of the most delightful attractions of the hotel. Tea under the shade of the palms in this charming retreat, with the glorious panorama of Nile, pyramids, and desert bathed in a myriad tints by the sinking sun, has become quite an institution, and leaves a lasting impression upon the mind of the visitor. The gardens are easily reached by means of three electric lifts.

The Semiramis is perhaps the finest of all the well-known Bucher-Durrer Hotels, which are renowned alike for the comfort and elegance of their appointments and the excellence of their *cuisine*. The other hotels under the same proprietorship are the Grand Hôtel de Quirinal at Rome; the Grand Hôtel de la Méditerránee at Pegli, near Genoa; the Palace at Milan; the Grand and Palace at Lugano; the Palace at Lucerne; the Palace, Grand, and Parc at Burgenstock; and the Stanserhorn, near Lucerne.

NATIONAL HOTEL, CAIRO.

THE National Hotel, situated in the fashionable Ismailia quarter of the town, affords excellent accommodation both to visitors and to permanent residents of Cairo, for, unlike some of the more pretentious establishments, it is open all the year round. The public rooms are furnished with comfort as the chief aim in view, and comprise a roomy lounge, a drawing room, a smoking divan, and a large, well-lighted dining room. An orchestra plays three times a week. There is accommodation for 150 guests, suites of apartments being available for family parties. During the summer months exceptionally advantageous rates are offered. Many residents have tried their own housekeeping, and have afterwards found it not only more convenient, but also more economical to take up their quarters permanently at the National. A relaxation of the rule in regard to evening dress is also a welcome concession to those who find acquiescence in conventionality irksome. The billiard room and bar attached to the hotel are accessible to non-residents by means of a separate entrance from the street.

Mr. P. E. Hergel, the courteous and popular proprietor of the National Hotel, which he acquired in 1908, after one year's management, has had wide experience in hotel management both in Egypt and on the Continent. Born in Colmar, Alsace, in 1880, and educated at Colmar and Strassburg, he was for four years attached to the Grand Hôtel Muveran at Villars-sur-Ollon (Switzerland), and to the Grand Hotel at Vevey. He was next appointed manager of the Hôtel des Roches Noires at Trouville (France), and in the following season he was entrusted with the opening of the Grand Hotel at Deauville, one of the most aristocratic hotels of France. There he has spent the summer season during the past three years. During four winter seasons prior to his association with the National Hotel, Mr. Hergel acted as manager of the Tewfik Palace Hotel at Helouan, near Cairo.

NEW KHEDIVIAL HOTEL, CAIRO.

THE New Khedivial Hotel, which occupies a prominent position in the centre of the town, is a popular family resort where accommodation for upwards of a hundred guests is provided at a moderate tariff. The building was erected in 1904, and contains every modern convenience. Arabesque and other Oriental styles of decoration have been appropriately adopted in the treatment of the interior, and white marble has been freely used in the construction of the staircases, galleries, and balconies. The dining, drawing, and smoking rooms and the lounge are tastefully and comfortably furnished, and the bedrooms, the majority of which face south, are large and airy. The upper floors are reached by means of an automatic lift, and the building is lighted throughout with electricity. The culinary arrangements of the hotel are in capable hands, Mr. J. Vocles, the courteous proprietor and manager, fully recognising the importance of maintaining a good table. A telephone has been installed in the hall for the convenience of guests, and at the entrance to the building there is an official post-box. The hotel is open all the year round, and an efficient outdoor staff of interpreters and dragomans is maintained for the purpose of meeting passengers at Alexandria and Port Said, and attending the arrival and departure of trains at the Central Station, Cairo.

BRISTOL HOTEL, CAIRO.

THERE are numbers of people to whom the rigid observance of formalities is irksome, and to them the Bristol Hotel, with its homely comforts and quiet elegance, will appeal most strongly. Overlooking the Ezbekieh Gardens, and situated close to the Opera House, the banks, the post and telegraph offices, and the various tourist agencies, the hotel has the advantages of a central position, and from its spacious verandah visitors may watch the ever-moving stream of life in one of the busiest parts of the town. There are about one hundred bedrooms, nearly all of which have a southern aspect, with balconies open to the sunshine all day long; and the public rooms, which include a ladies' parlour and a winter garden, in addition to the usual salons, have quite recently been refurnished and renovated. When it is added that the managing proprietor, Chev. C. Aquilina, was for many years in the service of Thomas Cook & Son it will be readily understood that the *cuisine* and the innumerable details which go to make up the sum total of good hotel management, receive every possible attention.

WINDSOR HOTEL, ALEXANDRIA.

THE Windsor Ho'el at Alexandria has much to commend it, for not only is the building centrally situated and replete with every modern convenience, but the management, also, leaves nothing to be desired. The hotel occupies a site on the New Quays, overlooking the sea, in the best and most healthy part of the town, and has accommodation for 140 guests. The dining room, lounge, drawing rooms, and reading room are comfortably furnished; and in the summer months a large and airy verandah is built out from the front of the hotel to serve as an alternative dining room, a band playing there daily. The *clientèle* consists chiefly of families who are regular visitors, Government officials, commercial travellers, and Egyptians of the better class.

From the date of its opening in 1902 the hotel has become increasingly popular, with the result that early in 1907 it was acquired by an English company under the style of the Windsor Hotels (Egypt), Ltd., which was formed with a subscribed capital of £120,000 for the purpose of carrying on hotel business in Egypt and the Soudan. A plot of land on the East Harbour Quays, not far from the present premises, was obtained on advantageous terms from the Municipality, and upon this it was proposed to erect a new hotel containing at least 200 bedrooms, together with restaurant, grill room, American bar, café, entertainment halls, &c. Owing to certain legal difficulties, however, the English company was obliged to go into liquidation; but an Egyptian société anonyme was formed to carry on the project, which will shortly be proceeded with.

Mr. Aug. van Millingen, the founder, manager, and one of the directors of the hotel, is a grandson of the late Dr. Julius van Millingen, physician to Lord Byron. Born in Constantinople, and educated at Glasgow, he spent the early part of a commercial career in Canada and the United States. He returned to Constantinople in 1894 as the representative of various American houses, and three years later came to Egypt. He remained in Cairo until 1901, and then moved to Alexandria, where he decided to establish the Windsor Hotel. Mr. Millingen is an Officier d'Osmanieh and a Chevalier du Méjidieh, these honours having been conferred on him by H.I.M. the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul Hamid.

NEW KHEDIVIAL HOTEL, ALEXANDRIA.

THE building which is now the New Khedivial Hotel at Alexandria was erected some thirty years ago as a private château, and at that time was entirely isolated from all other habitations. When it was converted to its present use, about ten years ago, considerable additions were made to the structure, but fortunately the fine marble staircase and magnificent ball room were allowed to remain unchanged. There are now 140 bedrooms, 40 of which have private bathrooms attached, and the appointments throughout, especially in the suites of apartments, are elegant. The public rooms include card, reading, music, and billiard rooms, a smoking lounge, and a small winter garden, while a popular feature which has recently been introduced is a Vienna restaurant with a separate entrance from the street. There is a small orchestra in attendance. The dining room is capable of seating 300 guests, but in the summer months many people prefer to take their meals *al fresco* in the garden adjoining the hotel. The dances, of which from seven to ten are held during the year, are largely attended by the fashionable residents in the

neighbourhood. The whole building is lighted by electricity; and all modern conveniences, such as automatic lifts and hydraulic sanitary appliances, have been installed.

The managing proprietor is Mr. F. Reinsperger, who took over the hotel in 1908, after having managed the business for about two years. Many of the most attractive innovations owe their introduction to him. For ten years prior to his connection with the New Khedivial Hotel, he was employed at Shepheard's Hotel in Cairo.

L'IMMEUBLE où est actuellement le New Khedivial Hotel à Alexandrie fut construit il y a une trentaine d'années à l'usage de château privé, et était alors entièrement isolé de toutes autres habitations. Lorsqu'il fut converti en hôtel, il y a environ dix ans, des agrandissements considérables furent effectués dans la bâtisse, mais heureusement le bel escalier en marbre et la magnifique salle de danse furent conservés intacts. L'hôtel comprend actuellement 140 chambres à coucher, dont 40 sont pourvues d'une chambre de bain particulière, et l'ameublement général est très élégant, surtout celui des pièces formant des appartements séparés. Les voyageurs disposent de salles de jeu, de lecture, de billard; d'un fumoir et d'un petit jardin d'hiver. L'hôtel possède en outre, inauguré récemment, un restaurant Viennois, avec un petit orchestre permanent, ayant une entrée séparée sur la rue. La salle à manger peut contenir 300 convives, mais durant les mois d'été, beaucoup de voyageurs préfèrent prendre leurs repas "al fresco" dans le jardin de l'hôtel. La direction offre dans le courant de l'année de sept à dix bals qui sont très fréquentés par les élégants mondains de la ville. L'immeuble entier est éclairé à l'électricité; et l'on y trouve tout le confort moderne, ascenseur automatique, installations hydrauliques sanitaires, etc.

Le propriétaire directeur est M. F. Reinsperger, quit prit l'hôtel pour son propre compte en 1908, après avoir dirigé les affaires pendant deux ans environ. Plusieurs parmi les innovations les plus intéressantes sont dues à son initiative. Avant d'entrer au New Khedivial Hotel, il fut employé pendant dix ans au Shepheard's Hotel du Caire.

NEW VICTORIA HOTEL, RAMLEH.

SITUATED in the finest part of Ramleh, in close proximity to the sea, the fashionable promenade, and the Mustapha Pasha Barracks, the New Victoria Hotel offers exceptional advantages both to visitors and residents. All the apartments are provided with verandahs and electric light. The hotel at present has accommodation for about a hundred guests; but plans are already drawn for the extension of the building by which a hundred rooms will be added. The dining room, which can seat about 350 persons, is tastefully decorated, and the other public rooms are quite in keeping with it as regards comfort and elegance. In the summer months a pleasant change is made by transferring the dining tables to the marble-paved terrace, one of the finest of its kind in Egypt. Another advantage offered by the hotel is that a number of private bathing huts in connection with the establishment have been erected on the beach. To the business man the ready accessibility of the hotel will appeal. Visitors from Cairo may alight at Sidi Gaber Station, whence the hotel is reached in a few minutes either by carriage or by a "Palais" train, whilst the ordinary train service between the suburb and the centre of the town is both frequent and rapid.

Mr. Ch. Raisig, manager of the New Victoria, personally superintends the culinary and general arrangements, bringing to bear upon the task an experience of several years in the management of hotels in Egypt.

The proprietor of the hotel is Mr. G. Calliadis, a son of Spirido Calliadis, a merchant, who was born at Constantinople in 1868, and was educated in engineering at Smyrna. In 1885 he came to Alexandria, and was with the firm of S. Garofolo, bankers, until 1901, being latterly *fondé de pouvoir* and a partner in the business. He then established himself as an engineer and contractor, and has since erected several buildings in the vicinity, including the American church, a mosque for the Alexandria Municipality, and the New Victoria Hotel.

SITUÉ dans la plus charmante partie de Ramleh, très près de la mer, de la promenade en vogue et des Casernes de Mustapha Pacha, l'Hôtel New Victoria offre des avantages exceptionnels pour les étrangers et les résidents. Tous les appartements sont pourvus de vérandah et de la lumière electrique. L'hôtel peut reçevoir maintenant environ cent personnes, mais on vient de dessiner des plans pour agrandir le bâtiment auquel on ajoutera une centaine de chambres. La salle à manger, qui pouvait contenir 350 personnes, est décorée avec goût, et les autres salles sont aussi confortables et élégantes. Pendant les mois d'été, un changement agréable est fait en transférant les tables à dîner sur la terrasse de marbre, le meilleur en Egypte. Un autre avantage offert par l'hôtel est un grand nombre de cabines privées élevées sur la plage. Pour les hommes d'affaires l'hôtel présente des facilités. Les visiteurs du Caire descendent à la station de Sidi Gaber, l'hôtel est à quelques minutes, en voiture ou en train de la station "Palais," tandis que les services du tramway qui met en communication la campagne et le centre de la ville sont fréquents et rapides.

M. Ch. Raisig, directeur du New Victoria, a une expérience de plusieurs années dans la direction des hôtels en Egypte.

Le propriétaire de l'hôtel, M. G. Calliadis, fils de Spirido Calliadis, marchand, fut né à Constantinople en 1868, et a fait ses études d'ingénieur à Smyrne. En 1885 il arriva à Alexandrie et a été dans la maison de commerce de S. Garofolo, banquiers, jusqu'à 1901, et a été plus tard fondé de pouvoirs et associé dans les affaires. Il s'établit alors comme ingénieur et entrepreneur et a depuis élevé plusieurs bâtiments dans le voisinage, l'Eglise Américaine, une mosquée pour la Municipalité d'Alexandrie et l'Hôtel New Victoria.

BEAU RIVAGE HOTEL, ALEXANDRIA.

PLEASANTLY situated on Cap des Tempêtes, overlooking the beach of "The Egyptian Riviera," as Ramleh has often been called, and not far from the new château of the Khedive's mother, stands a handsome edifice, once the palace of a Turkish princess, then for many years the home of Baron J. L. de Menasce, and now the Beau Rivage Hotel. Many Government, military, professional, and business people stationed in the seaport, as well as numbers of visitors from Cairo, make their residence at Ramleh during the trying summer months, and to these the Beau Rivage Hotel makes a strong appeal, especially as it may be reached from Alexandria by means of a ten minutes' tram-car service, in less than half an hour. Its rooms are large and airy, its wide terrace makes a pleasant dining-room, and its extensive garden forms an ideal retreat; while from the beach sea-bathing may be enjoyed without fear of



EGYPTIAN HOTELS—PROPRIETORS AND MANAGERS.

1. M. RUNKEWITZ, Beau Rivage Hotel, Alexandria. 2. G. RUNKEWITZ, Beau Rivage Hotel, Alexandria.
3. F. REINSPERGER, New Khedivial Hotel, Alexandria. 4. C. AQUILINA, Bristol Hotel, Cairo.
5. A. VAN MILLINGEN, Windsor Hotel, Alexandria. 6. J. H. VOCLES, New Khedivial Hotel, Cairo.
7. GEORGES CALLIADIS, New Victoria Hotel, Alexandria. 8. A. SCHMIDT, Alexandria.
9. SIMONINI BROS., Continental Hotel, Port Said.





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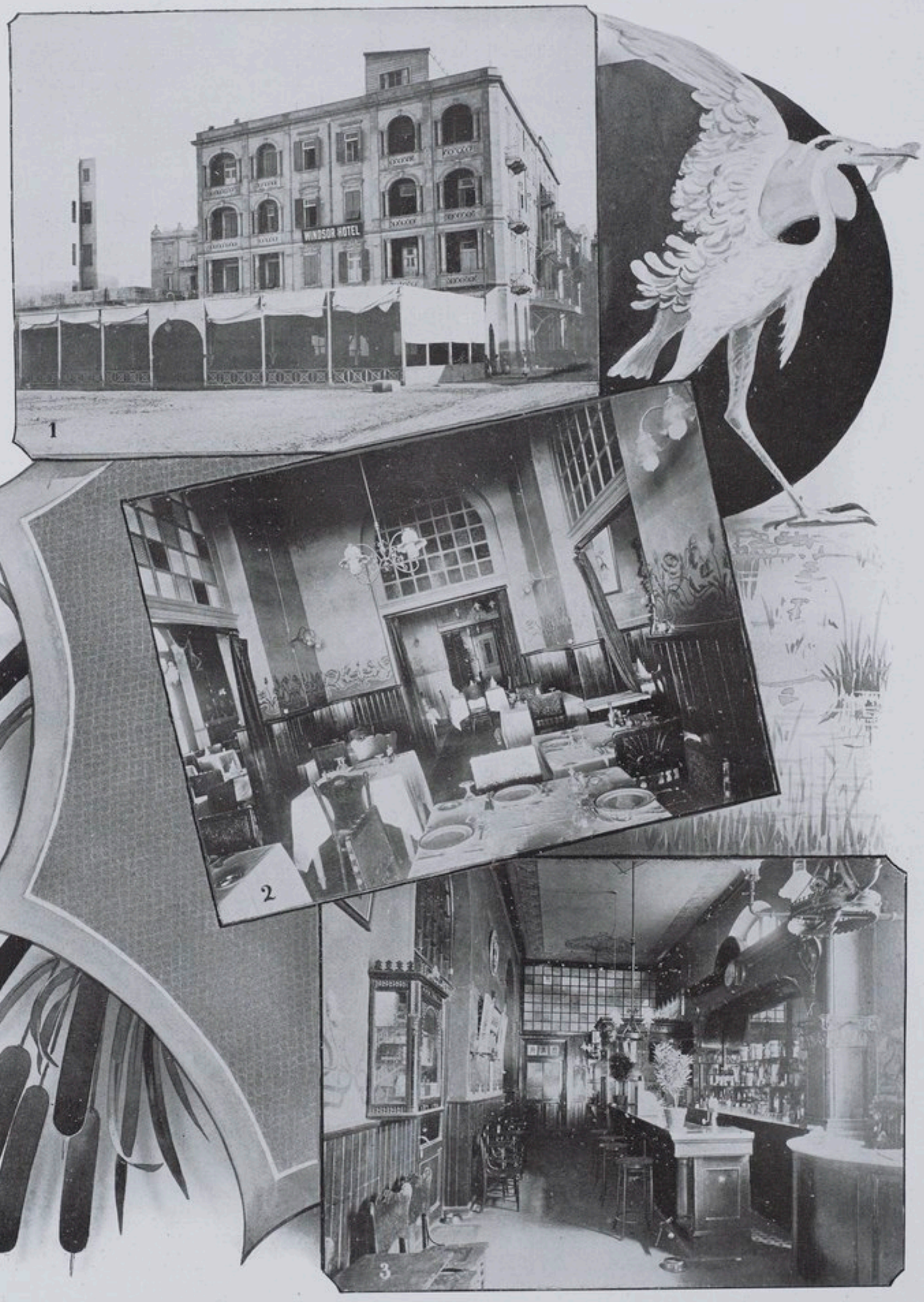
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4

SEMIRAMIS HOTEL.

1. The Hotel. 2. A Bedroom. 3. Drawing Room. 4. Vestibule.



WINDSOR HOTEL COMPANY, LTD

1. The Hotel. 2. Dining Room. 3. The Bar.

danger. Good stabling and garage for motors must also be included among the advantages offered by the hotel. During the summer months military and other bands are frequently engaged, and small dances are arranged, which contribute in no small degree to the popularity of the establishment. Many people avail themselves of the special facilities offered by the management for giving private receptions, tea parties, and similar entertainments. Messrs. G. and M. Runkewitz, the proprietors and managers, are to be congratulated on the successful manner in which they gauge public requirements.

AGRÉABLEMENT situé au Cap des Tempêtes, avec une vue magnifique sur la plage de Ramleh, cette "Riviera égyptienne," dans le voisinage du nouveau Palais de la Khédivah Mère, se dresse un grâcieux édifice, autrefois Palais d'une Princesse turque, puis habitation du Baron J. L. de Menasce, actuellement Hôtel Beau Rivage. Beaucoup de fonctionnaires du Gouvernement, d'officiers de l'armée d'occupation, et de commerçants habitant à Alexandrie, ainsi qu'un grand nombre de résidents du Caire, font de Ramleh leur séjour préféré pendant les chaleurs pénibles des mois d'été. L'attirance singulière qu'exerce sur eux l'Hôtel Beau Rivage, provient de la facilité avec laquelle le tramway électrique, partant toutes les dix minutes, et qui fait le trajet en moins d'une demie-heure, permet aux habitants de se rendre à Alexandrie. Ses chambres sont grandes et confortables ; son immense terrasse est convertie en une salle à manger agréable, son parc est une retraite idéale, en même temps que sur la plage voisine la mer offre des endroits charmants et sans aucun danger pour les bains. Il y a lieu d'ajouter aux avantages de l'hôtel les écuries et le garage pour automobiles. Pendant les mois d'été, des musiques militaires se font fréquemment entendre dans les jardins ; de "small dances" sont données, qui contribuent pour une large part à la renommée de l'établissement. Beaucoup de personnes mettent à profit les facilités offertes par l'installation de l'hôtel, pour donner des réceptions privées, des "five o'clock teas" intimes, et des dîners. Messieurs G. et M. Runkewitz, les propriétaires directeurs, doivent être félicités pour la façon heureuse dont ils ont su comprendre et satisfaire aux désiderata du public.

CARLTON HOTEL, RAMLEH.

A SECTION of the travelling community, fatigued with voyaging and sightseeing, prefers rest in quiet and comfortable surroundings to the life and gaiety of modern palatial hotels. It is for this section especially that the Carlton Hotel at Bulkeley caters. Lying on the road to San Stefano, in the heart of Ramleh, the "Ostend of Egypt," it may easily be reached from Alexandria either by rail or tramway, the Sidi Gaber railway station being only a few minutes' walk away, while a branch of the tramway system, with a five-minutes' service, runs close to the entrance. The building contains some forty bedrooms in addition to dining, drawing, and smoking rooms, and is fitted throughout with electric light. From the spacious verandahs may be seen the blue expanse of the Mediterranean, and the historic battlefield on which the gallant Sir Ralph Abercromby fell after breaking Buonaparte's power in Egypt and shattering his dreams of the conquest of India. An asphalt court is available for tennis during the season, and in the winter this is converted into a cosy sitting room. The beach forms an ideal playground for children, besides affording facilities for safe bathing, for which purpose comfortable cabins have been erected near the water's edge. But despite all these advantages the secret of the success which has attended the management is the excellence of its catering. The proprietor of the establishment, Mr. E. Aquilina, learned the importance of maintaining a good table during a long connection, extending over a quarter of a century, with the firm of Thos. Cook & Son, Ltd., and his ability in this direction is attested by the numbers of Government officials, army officers, and leading residents of Cairo and Alexandria who establish themselves at the Carlton Hotel at all seasons of the year.

BRASSERIE GERMANIA, ALEXANDRIA.

THE Brasserie Germania, situated in the Rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, was established in December, 1907, and became so popular among members of the German colony and English business men that some six months later it was found necessary to enlarge the premises to three times the original size. The management import all kinds of German luxuries, and beer in the wood direct from Pilsen and Spaten Brau from Munich. Some idea of the size to which the business has grown may be gathered from the fact that cold storage for 50 hectolitres is now in course of construction. Picnics, luncheons, and dinners are catered for, and a speciality is made of theatre suppers, the Brasserie being always open until 3 a.m. The founders, Messrs. Arthur Schmidt and Max Reinhardt, have both had considerable experience. The former, a native of Weimar, Thierungen, was for three and a half years at the Khedivial Hotel, Alexandria, and prior to that was employed by the Cairo Hotels Company. Mr. Reinhardt, who was born at Zeitz, before coming to Egypt was employed at the Paris Exhibition and in England. He was one of the directors of the Wagon Lits Hotels Company, Ltd.

LA Brasserie Germania, située dans la rue de l'Ancienne Bourse, fut fondée en décembre, 1907, et devint bientôt si populaire parmi les membres de la colonie allemande et les gens d'affaires anglais que, quelques six mois après son ouverture, la nécessité se fit sentir d'agrandir les locaux de trois fois leur dimension primitive. La direction importe toutes sortes de primeurs allemandes, et de la bière en barils provenant directement de Pilsen et Spaten Brau de Munich. Pour donner une idée de l'étendue toujours croissante des affaires qu'il nous suffise de dire qu'une glacière, pouvant contenir cinquante hectolitres est en voie de construction. La brasserie fournit des "picnics," des lunchs et des dîners, et elle s'est fait une spécialité de soupers après théâtre, les locaux étant toujours ouverts jusqu'à trois heures du matin. Les propriétaires, Messieurs Arthur Schmidt et Max Reinhardt, ont tous deux une grande expérience des affaires. Le premier, natif de Weimar, Thierungen, fut pendant trois ans et demi attaché à l'Hôtel Khédivial d'Alexandrie, et était auparavant employé à la Cairo Hotels Company. M. Reinhardt, qui est né à Zeitz, avant de venir en Egypt, fut employé à l'Exposition de Paris et en Angleterre. Ce fut un des directeurs de la Wagon Lits Hotels Company, Limited.

UPPER EGYPT HOTELS.

FOR the accommodation of the ever-increasing number of tourists who are attracted to Upper Egypt in the winter season by its dry and sunny climate, and its wealth of antiquities, a group of hotels have been provided at Luxor and Assouan calculated to satisfy the demands of the most confirmed Sybarite. They comprise the Winter Palace, Luxor, and Karnak Hotels at Luxor ; and the Cataract, Savoy, and Grand Hotels at Assouan.

The parent of these is the Luxor Hotel, which lies ensconced in a delightful old garden, brilliant with blossoms, and shaded with palms and other trees. The hotel was established in 1877, and has sheltered under its roof many royalties and notabilities. Its interior is decorated in the Egyptian style. From time to time various additions have been made to the original premises—indeed, the hotel may almost be said to have been rebuilt—until now it is capable of accommodating 140 guests. Despite these extensions, however, it was eventually found necessary to construct an annexe some little distance further along the river bank, and this, by reason of its proximity to the famous Temple of Karnak, is known as the Karnak Hotel. It is a compact and convenient house, affording accommodation for fifty or sixty people, and appeals to those in search of rest and quiet. From its charming garden excellent views may be obtained of the Nile and the Theban hills.

The increasing popularity of Upper Egypt, and the growing love of luxury, led to the opening, in January, 1907, of a hotel with the appropriate name of the Winter Palace. Contiguous to the Luxor Hotel, it occupies a magnificent site of some 12 acres in extent on the Nile bank. From the broad and handsome terrace which runs along the entire front of the building an unrivalled panoramic view is commanded of the river, dotted with dahabeahs and tourist boats, and of the brown Theban hills lying in the background. A smaller terrace at the back of the hotel looks out across a fertile plain to the Arabian hills, and gives access to the extensive grounds of the hotel, which are laid out in flower beds, croquet lawns, tennis courts, and kitchen gardens. The hotel has been built in accordance with the latest ideas of comfort and hygienics. The halls are wide and airy, and the public rooms are spacious and lofty. Provision has been made for 200 guests, and, in addition to twelve suites of apartments, there are single and double rooms with baths attached. For the convenience of those occupying rooms on the upper floors there is an electric elevator. The public rooms comprise a handsome, square, well-lighted dining hall, decorated in white and crimson ; an artistically furnished public hall, with parquet floor, in which dances are frequently held ; and drawing, music, reading, writing, and smoking rooms. There is also a billiard room, with bar, containing three tables—two English and one French. The vestibule, comfortably furnished with settees and lounges, is of noble dimensions, extending from the front to the back of the building. Nothing that is likely to contribute to the comfort and enjoyment of the guests is left undone by the management. Small dances are arranged from time to time, and gymkhanas are held weekly, at which horse, camel, donkey, buffalo, and other races take place. Every afternoon and evening music is discoursed by an excellent little orchestra.

The Cataract and the Savoy Hotels at Assouan are very similar in character to the Winter Palace Hotel at Luxor. The first-named place of entertainment overlooks the Nile at a point where the mighty river, penned in between rocks on either side, presents a scene of romantic picturesqueness. That no expense has been spared in the

equipment of the hotel may be gathered from the fact that in 1902 a magnificent new dining hall in the Arabic style, capable of seating 300 guests, was erected at a cost of £10,000. The Savoy Hotel, which can be seen from the terrace, is situated on the opposite side of the river, at one end of Elephantine Island. It is surrounded by a lovely garden, shaded with trees and bright with a profusion of flowers, amongst which roses hold pride of place. It was opened in 1899, at the same time as the Cataract Hotel. Another floor was added in 1902, by means of which the accommodation was increased from 110 to 180 guests. Of its many excellent internal features perhaps the most striking is the dining hall on the ground floor. Approached by a double flight of stairs, which encircle a bank of foliage and flowers, this apartment is decorated in pure white, while the floor is covered with a choice Smyrna carpet of a delicate pink tint. Owing to its isolated position, the hotel is particularly suited to those who enjoy quiet and seclusion. Communication with Assouan is maintained by means of a service of launches and sailing boats belonging to the hotel.

The Grand Hotel, on the opposite mainland, is a new structure expressly designed for tourists who are paying a fleeting visit to Assouan and desire to dispense with the formalities of the more pretentious hotels. It is thoroughly up to date and affords accommodation for 110 visitors.

It may be mentioned that the majority of the vegetables consumed at the hotels are grown in the kitchen garden attached to the Luxor Winter Palace Hotel; that the bread served is made in the Company's own bakeries; that the water supply is obtained from artesian wells and carefully filtered; and that the electric lighting is generated by the Company's own plant.

The six hotels belong to the Upper Egypt Hotels Company, who practically enjoy a monopoly of the hotel accommodation in Luxor and Assouan. That they do not take undue advantage of their position is proved by the fact that the tariff at their leading hotel ranges from P.T. 100 a day, with a reduction of 20 per cent. until January. When it is borne in mind that the season lasts only about three months, and that the hotels are closed for the rest of the year, the wonder is how such splendid establishments, in which everything from the cellar to the *cuisine* is of the best, can be maintained upon such terms.

Mr. C. Schaetzle, the general manager, was appointed to that position on the retirement of Mr. F. Pagnon in 1908. Previous to that he was for several years manager of Shepheard's Hotel, Cairo.

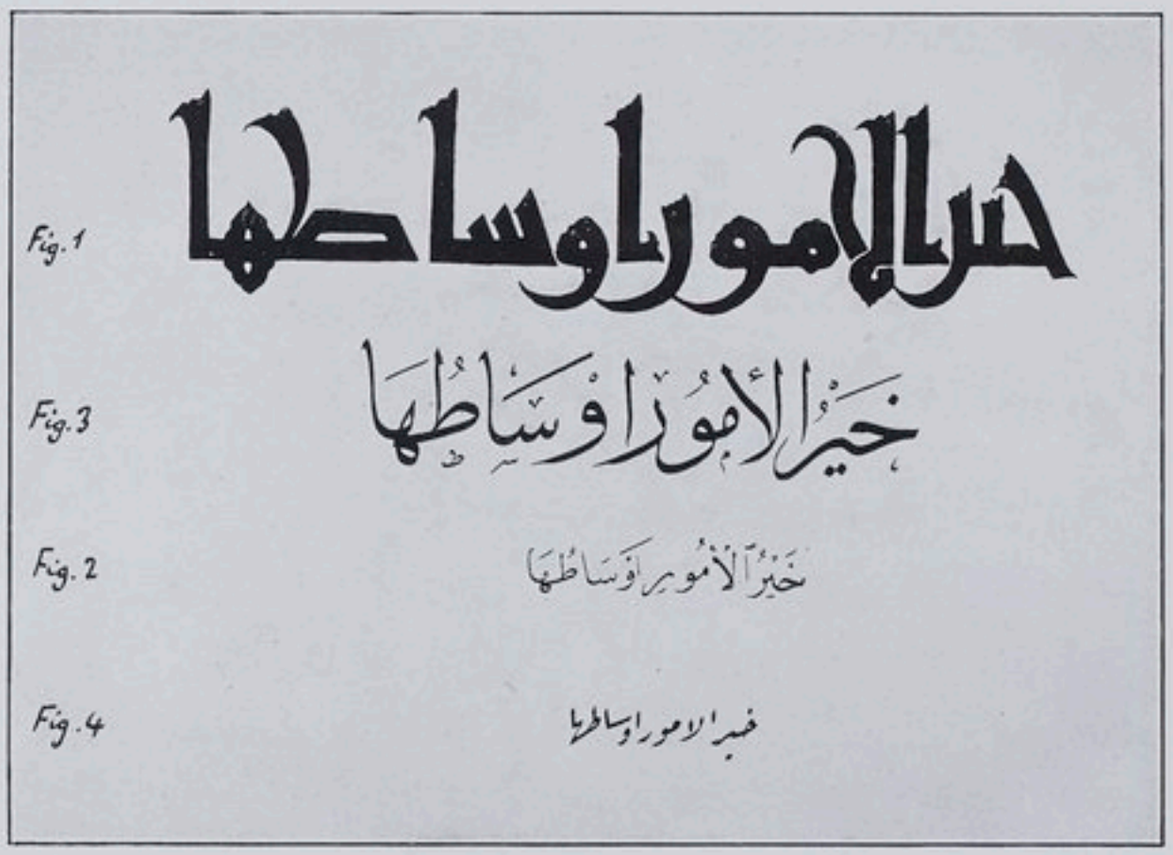
THE LANGUAGE OF EGYPT.

BY GEORGE ROBB, M.R.A.S., Egyptian Education Department, Cairo.

ANY ONE unacquainted with the language spoken by the people of Egypt is more than likely to consider that "The Language of Egypt" and "The Egyptian Language" are synonymous expressions, but when it is remembered that the word "Egyptian" is only another form of "Coptic," and that the Copts no longer speak the language of their ancestors, the distinction between the two phrases becomes apparent. In reality, the language of Egypt has for more than twelve centuries been Arabic; Arabic is the language of every Egyptian, whether he be Moslem or Copt, for the term "Copt" only serves to distinguish the Christian minority of the population from the Moslem majority, and not to indicate any linguistic difference between the two divisions of the present Egyptian race.

As, however, Egypt is a very cosmopolitan country, including as it does, in its total population, numerous representatives of Greece, Italy, Austria, France, England, Germany, Switzerland, Belgium, and Turkey, to say nothing of the widely-spread colonies of Syrians and Jews, whose mother tongue is Arabic likewise, it is scarcely to be surprised at that several European languages are largely spoken in the chief towns—Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said especially. In these towns French, Italian, and English are spoken by the members of the European colonies and by the best-educated Egyptians, inasmuch as the commerce of Egypt demands that an equipment of four or five languages, one of which must necessarily be Arabic, is an absolute essential to whoever seeks commercial success. The size of a town in Egypt does not always mean that its population is bound to be polyglot, for a large town like Tantah has little that is European in its life, and therefore Arabic is practically the sole medium of linguistic communication between its inhabitants. But in Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said the case is quite different, for in the two former towns the international nature of Egypt's population is most pronounced, and Port Said, as a place of call for ships of all nations, occupies a unique position linguistically.

Since the time of the great Mehemet Ali, the founder of the Khedivial Dynasty, French has been the *open sesame* in Egypt, for with the opening up of the country under the *ægis* of the French, the French language gradually became the second in importance throughout the country. It was, and is still, the language of the Mixed Tribunals which are the Courts where alone jurisdiction holds between Europeans and natives, and between the individuals of the various European nationalities; it is the language of diplomats, of the generality of shopkeepers, of international gatherings, and of the theatre and music-hall. Running it very close now is the English language, which has most naturally forged ahead during the period of the British Occupation, and more especially so since the signing of the Anglo-French Convention a few years ago. The older Egyptians that can boast of a foreign language practically all speak French, which they do most fluently, whilst the rising generation, that has been educated under the British régime, have English as their second tongue. Italian counts for much in Alexandrian trade and in the Law Courts, and it is one of the three official languages allowed in the Mixed Tribunals, the other two being French and English. A key to the position held by the various languages spoken in Egypt is afforded by a glance at the *Official Journal*, which is published in three languages—Arabic, French, and English, and the same conclusion is arrived at by a consideration of the leading newspapers published in the country. What may be described as the Levantine population of Egypt is decidedly the most polyglot, for an educated Levantine rarely speaks less than five languages—Arabic, French, Italian, Greek, and English being the usual combination. These he speaks fluently, although he seldom writes them correctly, for Arabic is such a difficult language to acquire for purposes of reading and writing that few Europeans read it, and still fewer attempt to write it.



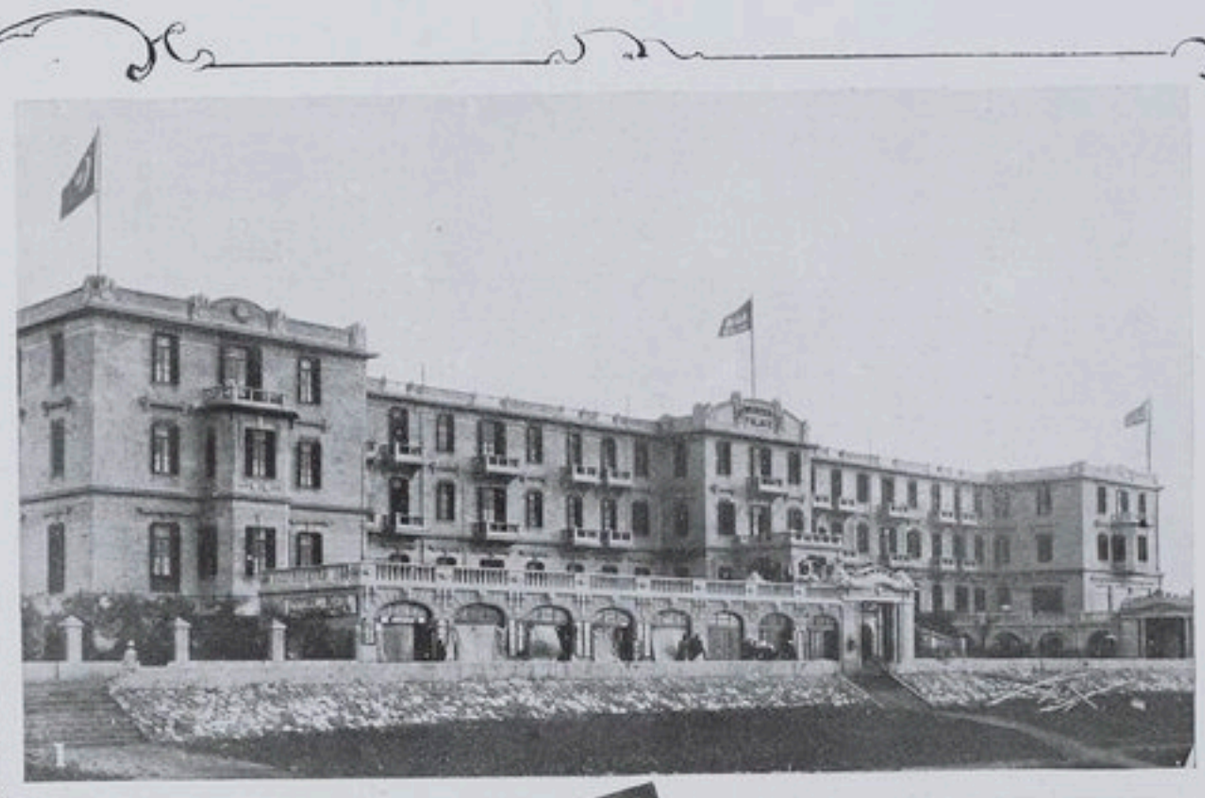
SAMPLES OF ARABIC CALIGRAPHY.

THE ARABIC LANGUAGE.

The Arabic language was originally the language of the Arabs, that is, of the people inhabiting the Arabian Peninsula. Ethnologically, the Arabs belong to the Semitic race, and the Semites are those peoples that trace their origin back to Shem, the son of Noah. The Semitic group includes the Babylonians, Assyrians, Hebrews, Phœnicians, Aramæans,

NEW VICTORIA HOTEL, RAMLEH.

1. New Victoria Hotel. 2. The Drawing Room. 3. The Dining Room. 4. On the Terrace.







THE UPPER EGYPT HOTELS COMPANY.

1. Front View of the Luxor Winter Palace Hotel. 2. The Dining Room, Cataract Hotel, Assouan. 3. Dining Room, Savoy Hotel, Assouan.

Abyssinians, Sabæns, and Arabs. In the chronological order of the extant literature of these peoples, Babylonian and Assyrian literature comes first, for it goes as far back as the period 3000–500 B.C., whilst Arabic literature comes last, dating only from 500 A.D. Arabic is thus the youngest of the Semitic languages, and yet it is generally allowed to be more like the original archetype, the *Ursemitisch*, than any of its sister-tongues. This adherence to type is due to the fact that the Arabs, owing to their geographical position, were not subject to foreign influences, and that owing to the extreme monotony of their desert life, they had little occasion to break the uniformity of their tongue.

With Islam began the spread of Arabic, for from about the year 700 A.D. Moslem conquests extended the Arabic language and culture over an area greater than that of all the other Semitic empires together. "During the early Middle Ages classical Arabic was spoken and written by all cultured Moslems, of whatever nationality they might be, from the Indus to the Atlantic; it was the language of the Court and the Church, of Law and Commerce, of Diplomacy, and of Literature and Science." It is a language marvellously rich in synonyms, its vocabulary comprising, on the authority of Burton, twelve times more words than the English language; it is synthetical to such an extent that one might imagine it developed as the result of untiring scientific effort; it is most highly inflected, lending itself therefore to extreme accuracy of expression; and what makes it unique, in comparison with other languages, is the shortness of its words, few words containing as many as seven letters. Of course, this brevity is partly due to the fact that the consonants and long vowels only are written; the short vowels are indicated when necessary by simple signs above or below the consonants.

The sacred Koran is the oldest Arabic book, its scattered parts having been collected about the year 633 A.D. The famous Pre-Islamic poems were preserved for hundreds of years by oral tradition, and committed to writing by Moslem scholars during the 'Abbaside period, between the years 750 and 900 A.D. When the Mongol invasion of the thirteenth century swept away the 'Abbaside caliphate, classical Arabic ceased to be the common tongue of Mahomedans; in Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and other Arabic-speaking countries, it was gradually supplanted by a vulgar colloquial idiom.

THE ARABIC OF EGYPT.

The Arabs who conquered Egypt in the early part of the seventh century were few in number compared with the then Coptic population, but as the Copts rapidly became Moslems, and intermarried with the Arabs and with succeeding conquering nations, their language (Coptic) gradually fell into desuetude. Traces of it, however, remain in the genius of the Egyptian dialect of the Arabic language, and in many of the words which are commonly, but falsely, regarded as Arabic. Thus,

طَمَسَ to bury, يَمّ the sea,

لِبَان a rope, بَرْسِيم clover,

بِدَشّ a cooked bean, لِيلِي joy,

are examples of Coptic words that are of common use in Egypt, especially amongst the peasantry, who likewise make use of numerous admittedly Coptic words relating to farming. The Coptic calendar is used by the Egyptian farmer for the simple reason that it, like the European calendar, is based on the earth's revolution round the sun, which gives fixity to the seasons, and not on the moon's rotation round the earth, which gives a lunar year of only 354 days, and thus causes the various agricultural seasons to occur at any part of the solar year in a period of thirty-three years.

Colloquial Arabic differs from classical Arabic in many of its idioms and constructions, in its dropping of the inflections, in its employment of foreign words, and in its almost absolute disregard of grammar. Thus it is that a European Arabic scholar who comes to Egypt fails to make himself understood of the common people, even when his pronunciation of the Arabic sounds is passably good, and yet, notwithstanding all this, there is no less reason to believe that the extension of education in the country will ultimately raise the standard of speech than that the *patois* of the people of Provence and Bretagne in France will in the course of fifty or sixty years give place to French.

In Egypt there are three kinds of Arabic in use—*the Arabic of the common people*, who have little or no education, who scarcely speak a sentence correctly, or use a classical word, and who, when they write, write as they speak; *the Arabic of the educated classes*, who vary in their style of writing according as they are trained in the Government schools and colleges, or in the famous Moslem University, the Azhar, the composition and style of the former class being generally superior to that of the latter, inasmuch as the Azhar students are but little practised in writing, although their knowledge of grammar is superior to that of the collegians; and *the Arabic of the newspapers*, which closely approximates to the classical style, from which it differs only in certain constructions and in the number of foreign words which modern progress forces upon the writers. What strikes a European critic most, in the matter of colloquial Arabic, is that it is employed even between scholars in ordinary conversation, for a learned sheikh talks to his children in the language of the peasant—a sad lapse from the days of Harun el Rashid, when scavengers spoke the classical Arabic of Harun himself and his learned courtiers!

But there is a growing desire on the part of the educated Egyptians of to-day to raise the standard of colloquial Arabic. During the past six years numerous literary societies have been formed with the object of extending classical Arabic, and we have it, on the authority of Professor Margoliouth, that "even now the language is undergoing a renaissance," and that "there is every likelihood of it again becoming a great literary vehicle." Until about ten years ago the number of pupils in Government Secondary Schools was less than a thousand, now it is about two thousand; all subjects were taught in English or French with the sole exception of the Arabic language itself, whereas now Arabic is being more and more employed as the medium of instruction in all subjects other than the European languages *qua* languages. Then scarcely a schoolboy read any Arabic newspaper, but now it is rare to find one who does not read two or three native newspapers. Seeing that the Arabic of the leading newspapers is of a high standard, the effect cannot but prove excellent from the point of view of the extension of Arabic. No educated Egyptian finds any serious difficulty in speaking or writing the classical language, and there are abundant signs that the movement begun in recent times for the restoration of the Arabic language to its proper place of dignity will surely grow until its influence is felt throughout the whole population.

PRESENT-DAY PROBLEM.

Is the Arabic language capable of serving as the medium of instruction in the various subjects of a modern curriculum? This is the question of the day in Egypt. A French philologist, M. Noël, lecturing recently in Tunis on the subject of "Is Arabic a living language?" sought to prove that Arabic is as dead as Latin, but he stands almost alone in his contention. Others say that, since the Arabic language does not contain the equivalents of the technical terms of modern science, it is impossible to teach science through its medium. But what about the mother tongues of such critics? Do they possess the equivalents of the terms that have had to be coined from Latin and Greek roots to meet the exigencies of science? Surely not, and yet the new terms find a lodging-place in the languages of the most up-to-date nations, and gradually become incorporated with the already existing vocabulary. Exactly the same process can be and is being carried out in modern Arabic works of science, where the European terms are Arabised and become a part of the modern Arabic dictionary. As for the fundamental ideas and terminology of science, Arabic has a prolific vocabulary, and, if required, learned Arabic-speaking people could use Arabic roots to represent most modern discoveries, although the wiser course is for the European words to be accepted as the common terminology of scientific workers throughout the world. As soon as there is a sufficiently strong body of well-educated Egyptians who have covered the higher fields of science in Europe, as the Egyptian Educational Missions in England and France are enabling them to do, they will make light of the language difficulty. To-day the difficulty is the absence of such a body of cultured Egyptians; there are not enough of them to render the work of education entirely in Arabic possible.

Following up Spitta Bey's system of transliterating vulgar Arabic for European readers, by using Roman characters in place of Arabic ones, some European scholars have put forward the theory that there is no hope for the education of the Egyptian masses unless and until the spoken language becomes the literary language and the alphabet becomes Europeanised. Those who have laboured at such Europeanised books know how trying such a system is, and cannot but wonder that any one should dream of representing an alphabet of twenty-eight consonants by another containing only twenty-one. Such methods of facilitating study are childish, for never is the study of an alphabet a real obstacle to the study of a language. And considering that the educated youths of Egypt, who form but about 8 per cent. of the total population, spring mostly from the masses, it cannot surely be argued that the peasant is incapable of learning the Arabic language. However much Europeans may wish to dictate to Egyptians on such a subject, it must be admitted

that educated Egyptians are absolutely united in the opinion that the masses must be led up to the Arabic language, not that the Arabic language should be dethroned to have colloquial Arabic put in its place.

ARABIC WRITING.

If ever there were a system of writing that merited the appellation of *caligraphy*, surely Arabic is such au one! The earliest style is the *Cufic* (Fig. 1), owing to the fact that it originated in Cufa; it is that which is seen in the inscriptions on the walls of mosques and on some ancient monuments. The second in chronological order is the *Naskh* (Fig. 2), which came into use in the twelfth century; it is copied from the Cufic. The third in order is the *Sulus*, or more properly *Thuluth* (Fig. 3), which marks one of the effects of the Turkish occupation, and dates from the beginning of the sixteenth century; its name indicates that the writing is done with a pen whose thickness is *one-third* that of the pen with which Cufic writing was done on the walls of mosques. The last style is the *Ruqa'a*, commonly called *Riqa'a* in Egypt (Fig. 4), and, as the word implies, it is the style of writing adopted in writing letters. The number of curves is reduced to a minimum, and no vowel-points are inserted. It is in this handwriting that all the official correspondence is done in the various departments and administrations of the Egyptian Government.

The sentence written in Arabic is "Kheir el-amûr owsâtûhâ," meaning "the middle course is the best."

SHORT GLOSSARY OF COLLOQUIAL ARABIC.

Besides the letters of the English alphabet, the following symbols and sounds should be known:—

h, the ordinary English *h* as in "*h*ay."
ḥ, the strong pectoral *h* sound as in the Scotch pronunciation of "w*h*at."
kh, the sound of *ch* in the Scotch word "lo*ch*."
ṣ, a deep *s* as in "*s*od."
a', the Arabic ع (ain), a strong guttural which must be heard to be properly understood.
gh, the Arabic غ (ghain), the sound of the Parisian *r* grassouillé, almost *ghr* in English.
ḍ, a deep *d* as in "thu*d*."
The long sound of ا (*alef*) is marked â, as in "fâr."
The sound of English *a* in "pāne" is marked ā
The sound of English *a* in "fat" is simply a.
" " " " *ee* is represented by ī.
" " " " *i* in "pin" is simply i.
" diphthong *ow*, as in "cow" is simply ow.
" sound of *u* in "put" is marked û.
" " " *u* " "tune" is marked ū.

(1) Common Expressions—

Come here	Ta'âla hena
Go there	Rûḥ henâk
Run	Igri
Walk (go) gently	Imshi bishwish
Come in	Ûdkhûl
Wait a little	Ûṣbūr shwayya
Are you ready?	Enta ḥâḍir?
Yes, I am ready	Na'am, ana ḥaḍir
Let us go	Nûrawwiḥ, *or* yalla bina
Go with him	Rûḥ ma'oh
Go to my house	Rûḥ li beiti
Where did he go?	Râḥ fein?
He went to the station	Râḥ el maḥatta
Who is this?	Mīn di?
He is the dragoman	Hûwa et-targûmân
I am coming	Ana agi
He is coming	Hûwa yegi
We are coming	Aḥna negi
I am going	Ana arûḥ
He is going	Hûwa yerûḥ
We are going	Ahna nerûḥ
He is not here	Hûwa mush hena
What is his name?	Ismûh ā?
His name is Muhammad	Ismûh Muḥammad
Where have you been?	Kûnt fein?
I was in the hotel	Kûnt f'il-locanda
Be quick!	Ista'gil!
Never mind	Ma'alish
If you please	Min faḍlak
Thank you	Kattar kheirak
You are welcome	Ahlan wa sahlan
Look out!	Ḥâsib!
Take care!	Iḥtaris!
Wait for me!	Inṭazarni!
I want you to-morrow	Ana 'owzak bûkra
For what?	'Ala shân ā?
For a visit to the Pyramids	'Ala shân zîârat el-ahrâm
You are right	Lak el-ḥaqq
You are wrong	'Aleik el-ḥaqq
You are mistaken	Enta ghalṭân
What have you done?	'Amalt ā?
I have done nothing	Mâ 'amaltush ḥâga

(2) At the station.

Have you bought the tickets?	Hal ishtareit et-tazâkir?
Yes, here they are	Iyûa, ahā
How much does each cost?	Bikâm kull wâhida?
Eighty piastres tariff	Tamanīn irsh ṣagh
When does the train start?	Emta yūsâfir el qatr?
It will start at ten o'clock	Râyih yūsâfir es-sâ'a 'ashera
What is the fare to Alexandria?	Kâm el-ûgra l'il-Iskanderiya?
First class, eighty piastres tariff	Owwil darga bi tamanīn irsh ṣagh
How many hours is it to Alexandria?	Kâm sâ'a min hena ila'l Iskanderiya?
Three hours and a half	Talâta sâ'ât wa nûs

(3) Shopping.

Good morning	Nahârak sa'īd
How are you?	Izzayak?
Very well, thank you	Tâyyib keteer, kattar kheirak
(But the proper reply is be to God)	El-ḥamdlilla, praise
I want to buy silk	Biddi ishtari ḥarīr
Have you any good silk?	'Andak ḥarīr kwâis?
Of course!	Ma'alûm (or ûmmâl)!
Show me some	Warīnī shwâyya
How much is it per metre?	Bikâm el-metr?
Ten piastres tariff	'Ashera ṣagh
How do you sell it?	Bikâm bitabī'ûh?
At ten francs the metre	Bi ashera frank el-metr
I don't like this	Ana mâ ûḥibbûsh di
Show me another piece	Warīnī ḥitta tânia
I like this better	Ûḥibb di aḥsan
Give me three metres of it	Iddīnī talâta amtar minûh
How much is this?	Bikâm di?
A hundred piastres	Mīyat irsh
No, that is very dear	La, di ghâli owwi
All right! I have a cheaper article	Ṭayyib, 'andi arkhas minûh

(4) The Numbers.

One	Wâhid
Two	Etnein
Three	Talâta
Four	'Arba'a
Five	Khamsa
Six	Sitta
Seven	Saba'a
Eight	Tamânya
Nine	Tisa'a
Ten	'Ashera
Eleven	Hada'sher
Twelve	Etna'sher
Thirteen	Talata'sher
Fourteen	'Arba'ata'sher
Fifteen	Khamasta'sher
Sixteen	Sitta'sher
Seventeen	Saba'ta'sher
Eighteen	Tamanta'sher
Nineteen	Tisa'ta'sher
Twenty	'Ishrīn
Twenty-one	Wâhid wa 'ishrīn
Twenty-five	Khamsa wa 'ishrīn
Thirty	Talatīn
Forty	'Arba'īn
Fifty	Khamsīn
Sixty	Sittīn
Seventy	Saba'īn
Eighty	Tamanīn
Ninety	Tisa'īn
A hundred	Mīya
Two hundred	Mitein
Three hundred	Tûltamīya
Four hundred	Rûba'mīya
A thousand	Alf
Two thousand	Alfein
Three thousand	Talatat ûlûf
A million	Milyōn
Two thousand three hundred and seventy-six	Alfein wa tûltamīya wa sitta wa saba'īn

(5) Sight-seeing.

We want to go to the Pyramids to-day	Aḥna 'owzīn nerûḥ el-ahrâm en-nahârda
All right, let us take the 9 o'clock tram	Ṭâyyib, nalhaq et-tramwây illi yūsâfir es-sâ'a tisa'a
How long shall we be in the tram?	Aḥna kâm waqt fi't-tramwây?
Forty minutes (⅔ hour)	Tiltâi sâ'a
Are there donkeys there?	Fī ḥamīr henâk?
Yes, many	Iyûa, fī ketīr
We want to ride on donkeys at once	'Owzīn nirkib el-ḥamīr dilwatti (hâlan)
And are there camels too?	Wa fī gimâl kamân?
Why, certainly!	Ûmmâl!
We want to visit the Sphinx, too	'Owzīn nazûr kamân abul'l-hōl
We want to visit a mosque to-day	'Owzīn nazûr wâhid gâmi'a en-nahârda
All right, let us drive to the Sultan Hasan Mosque	Tâyyib, nirkib 'arabīya wa nerûḥ gami'a Sultân Hasan
Where is it?	Fein hûwa?
It is in Muhammad Ali Street	Hûwa fī shâri'a Muhammad 'Ali
Is it far from here?	Hal hûwa ba'īd min hena?
No, only twenty minutes (⅓ hour) in a carriage	La, baṣ tilta sâ'a b'il 'arabīya
Let us return now; we are tired	Nirga'a dilwatti, eḥna ta'abân

KHARGEH OASIS.

Known to the Greeks as "The Islands of the Blessed," the oases of western Egypt, separated from the rest of Egypt by the Libyan Desert, have been visited during the past hundred years by many distinguished travellers, to whom the expedition, if not perilous, had some of the elements of adventure when carried out by camel caravans involving several days' travel in the desert.

Nowadays, with the gradual introduction of civilised methods of locomotion, it is possible to reach these isolated centres of cultivation with a minimum of inconvenience and discomfort. It is possible for the tourist to travel from Cairo to Khargeh, the larger of the oases, in eighteen hours. This oasis is 170 miles west of the Nile at Khargeh Junction, on the main line of the State railways. Dakhleh is 70 miles distant from Khargeh. Four days distant from Dakhleh by camel, in a north-westerly direction, is Farafra, known to the ancient Egyptians as "The Land of Cattle," and four days further north is "the Little Oasis of Ptolemy," Bahariyeh. Amongst the ancient Egyptians Khargeh was vaguely described as a valley lying to the west of the Nile where wandered the spirits of the dead; but evidence is not lacking that, though so far removed from the populous Valley of the Nile, Khargeh was a district of importance in the year 1500 B.C. To-day the population of Khargeh and Dakhleh combined is about 15,000, of Farafra 500, and of Baharieh 6,000; but there is ample evidence that when Egypt was under Persian, Greek and Roman domination the Oases of Khargeh and Dakhleh were densely populated, and the number of inhabitants has been estimated at 8,000,000, with all the available land under cultivation. They lived on the products of their fields, and had flocks of goats and sheep and herds of cattle. Dates were grown and exported on camels to the Nile.

Due, no doubt, to Coptic refugees and Nestorian ascetics who followed Bishop Nestorius when he was banished to the oasis in A.D. 434, certain Christian ceremonies have blended with those of Islam. Hence we find that Bairam is not the great religious ceremony of the people of Khargeh. They observe it, certainly, but only by visiting the mosques in the morning. Their great festival is Palm Sunday, when they cut a branch from the olive tree, or from an apparently poisonous milk-weed, to the workings of which they attach the most curious importance, and hang it above their doors to ensure health, prosperity, and fertility to the family hearth. They also go through a form of baptism, and in certain villages in the Oasis of Dakhleh stones are placed at the head of the graves similar to those in the Christian necropolis. The necropolis on the hill top near the Temple of Hibis is the result of the labours of those early Christians, whose fair-haired, blue-eyed descendants stand out to-day in marked contrast to the prevailing types of native humanity. These mausolea are constructed out of mud brick, but are remarkable, nevertheless, for their architectural features, as are the tombs cut from the solid rock of the neighbouring hills. Mural paintings reflect the artistic conceptions of ancient Egypt. Remains of the great caravan route of a hundred and twenty miles across the desert may still be traced. Bones of both man and beast strew its desolate track, gruesome relics of comparatively recent times, when chained slaves were brought into Egypt from Equatorial Africa. Potsherds of Roman origin may be picked up here and there, and occasionally a worked flint-head provides evidence that palæolithic man once trod these weary wastes.

The archæological remains in which Khargeh abounds constitute one of its principal attractions to the traveller. To the student of Egyptology Khargeh overshadows all the other western oases. The ruin of the beautiful Temple of Hibis, built during the reigns of Darius I. and Darius II., is the only example in Egypt of architecture under the Persian dynasty. It is covered with hieroglyphics and inscriptions, upon which the red and blue pigment still shows. Beside it is the sandstone Temple of Nadura, a monument to Roman supremacy. It dates from the reign of Cæsar Antoninus (A.D. 138–161). Other architectural objects of interest are the Roman fortresses and watch-towers; cellular structures, possibly columbaria, of uncertain age; and the ancient wells and waterworks indicative of Roman occupation. The officials of the Metropolitan Museum of Art are now excavating at Khargeh for other antiquities, and have met with some highly interesting finds relating to that period. Mention might also be made of the temples south of Khargeh, at Kasr el Zayan, Kasr el Ghueda, and the Temple of Dush, which is the largest in the oases.

Tourists to whom antiquities in themselves do not appeal will find the village of Khargeh worthy of a visit. It is peculiar in its construction. From time immemorial it has been subject to the raids of dervish and barbarian, as well as the onslaughts of the dreaded sandstorm. For the purpose of self-preservation the inhabitants have built the village on the plan of a rabbit warren, and the visitor passes through a labyrinth of what at first sight appear to be underground passages and streets as dark as night. It is impossible to find one's way without the help of a guide. These dark lanes are in reality formed by placing large palm logs across from wall to wall and laying over them the floor of the houses above. The inhabitants are short of stature, and the visitor must take heed of his way if he wishes to escape contact with the roof of the subway. It was the custom of the ancient inhabitants to lure an attacking force into the blind alleys of this labyrinth, in which were dug pitfalls filled with spikes and spears, and then to fall upon their enemies and despatch them. The well supplying the water is situated in the middle of the village. The water carriers are blind, but are able to find their way about as well as their more fortunate fellow-mortals in full possession of their senses.

The oases are healthy, and the climate, during the winter months, from November to April, most agreeable. Even in the summer the high temperature is bearable on account of the dryness of the atmosphere. There is practically no rainfall.

With regard to the physical conditions which conduce to the fertility of the oases, the generally accepted view is that there are two subterranean currents of water in the desert. The upper or surface water flows at a depth of from four to six feet. In certain spots it breaks through the soil of its own accord, and pours out from depressions a few yards in diameter surrounded by palm trees. These localities are what are spoken of as oases. Our word "oasis," derived from the "nahit" of the Egyptian, was a specific name describing Khargeh and not a generic one applied to oases in general. In parts, the water is found by digging at a depth of a few yards, and of these surface wells there are over one hundred in Khargeh. Some of these were sunk by the Persians five hundred years before Christ, whilst others date from the Roman occupation in the first and second centuries of the Christian era. The lower current of water was found by deep well borings. Where does the water come from? Some say it is due to infiltration from the Nile to the east, but in view of the impermeable nature of the strata that separates the subsoil of the Nile Valley from the Libyan Desert it is more probable that the infiltration comes from the south, hundreds of miles away in the direction of Khartoum, and spreads out into inclined water surfaces wherever the soil is permeable, northwards towards Fayoum, the last of the oases of the Libyan Desert. The two currents are accounted for in the following way: At some point, the current leaving the Nile is divided horizontally into two by a stratum of impermeable stone. One filters downwards, the other horizontally northwards, eventually breaking through the surface in a soil depression and producing the oases to which we have been referring.

Owing to the difficulties of its position, Khargeh has lain for many generations almost forgotten and entirely neglected. Ancient wells and waterways gradually silted up, and the decreasing population could scarcely cultivate sufficient for its needs. Things have improved during the last fifty years, and now, with the advantage of railway communication, there is every reason to believe that the Oasis of Khargeh will once more become an important district with the inflow of the industrious Nile fellaheen. No fewer than forty-four wells have been sunk already, making 200 in all upon which taxes are paid. There are some 60,000 to 70,000 date palm-trees, the tax on which is 15 millièmes per fruit-bearing tree per year.

Peaceful of disposition, the people give no trouble to the authorities. The percentage of crime is low, and mostly confined to petty offences. The law is administered on similar lines to that of Egypt, by mamoors or magistrates, the communal administration of each village having for its head an omdeh or village mayor.

In 1904, the Corporation of Western Egypt, Limited, was founded with a capital of £500,000 to acquire concessions granted by the Egyptian Government. These concessions include the construction of a railway from the Nile Valley to the Khargeh Oases; the right during thirty years to take up and irrigate nearly 1,000 square miles in the Oases of Khargeh, Dakhleh, Farafra and Baharieh, with the object of bringing the land under cultivation and selling it, the Government giving full ownership to the purchasers; and to prospect for minerals and precious stones. The railway was opened for traffic in January, 1908. Wells have been sunk, irrigation is being promoted, and the crops already grown include cotton, wheat, barley, beans, bersim, lucerne, dhurra, rice, sugar-cane, fruit and vegetables. The soil is rich in phosphates, requiring but a dressing of nitrate of soda to enable it to give a maximum yield. It is, indeed, all that can be desired for agricultural purposes, being of alternate bands of clay and sand. Live stock has been purchased and placed on the land. Many applications for land have been received by the Corporation, and judging from the successful results already obtained it is reasonable to assume that the Corporation's work will revive the old prosperity of the western oases.

FAYOUM.

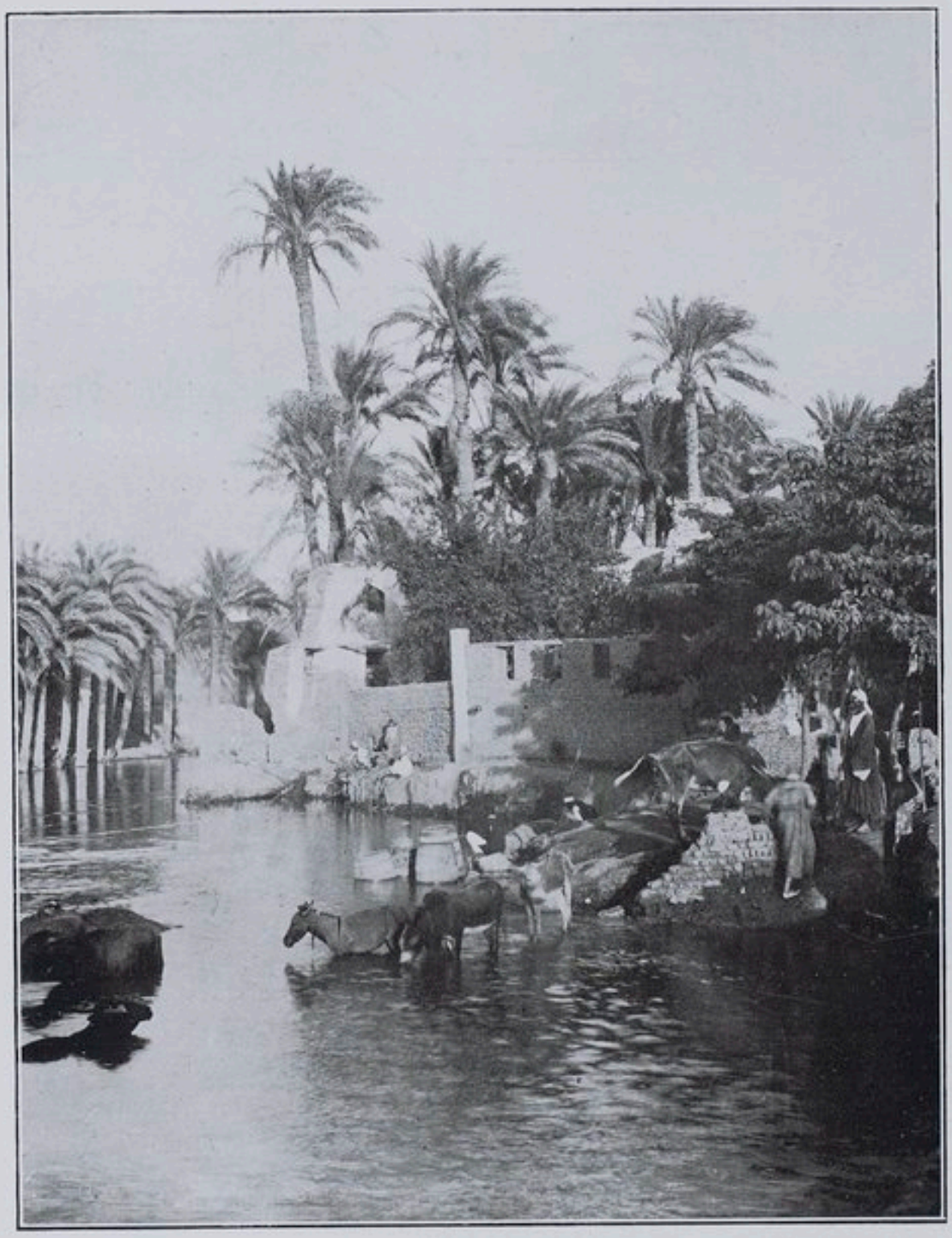
It seems an effort of a lively imagination to write or speak of a "Land of Roses" in the Libyan Desert. Nevertheless, the oasis Province of Fayoum, lying fifty miles to the south of Cairo, is one of the most fertile districts watered by the Nile, and well deserves its description as an emerald isle of fertility in the arid sand of the desert. Its area of 850 square miles is below sea-level. Part of this area has the appearance of having been excavated in order to create a basin or lake and thereby form a reservoir for the irrigation of the surrounding country, the water supply being obtained from the Libyan Mountains by means of the Bahr Yussuf branch of the Nile. How this artificial depression was made is hidden in obscurity. Belief is that the work was carried out in the reign of Amenemhat III., and the name of the channel is supposed to indicate that the Joseph of Bible history, who rose to the high office of Grand Vizier in Egypt, was responsible for its inception.

Pliny describes Lake Fayoum as being 250 miles in circumference and 50 feet deep, but modern authorities have the temerity to doubt the accuracy of the ancient historian. Whatever may have been the dimensions of Lake Moeris some thousands of years ago, it is known to us to-day as the emasculated pool of Birket el Fayoum. Its waters are 150 feet below sea-level. Fayoum flourished under the Ptolemies, and the ruins of several cities brought to life as the result of present-day research serve to show the devastating effect upon ancient Egypt of the Arab conquest.

Fayoum may be reached by the Fayoum Light Railways from Wasta, in Upper Egypt, or the tourist who wishes to taste the joys of dêsert travel may hire camels for the four or five days' journey, carrying very little impedimenta and sleeping out in the desert. The route traverses the platform cemetery of Egyptian dynasties, passing the pyramids at Gizeh, Abu Sir, Dashur, and Medum. Professor Flinders Petrie made archæological discoveries in this neighbourhood in 1890, including the old Roman road leading direct to the north, with milestones buried in the sand. Here is the Pillar of Hawara, and the famous labyrinth, considered by some authorities as surpassing in interest the Great Pyramid of Gizeh. In one tomb has been found a drawing, at least 5,000 years old, of a large fish taken from Lake Moeris. Paintings of rare value, portraits thousands of years old, have been disinterred, as well as hundreds of papyri copies of Greek classics.

The ancient works are being utilised by the Irrigation Department to develop the agricultural possibilities of Fayoum, and the principal town, Medinet el Fayoum, is already showing signs of revival. Whether it will rival its ancient glory has yet to be revealed, but there is reason to hope that opportunities for expanding cultivation will create local industries, while the facilities for rapid transit and the disposal of produce will add to the prosperity of the inhabitants.

Tourists who wish to deviate from the beaten track will find ample reward for a visit to Fayoum, where there is a comfortable hotel.



THE OASES OF THE LIBYAN DESERT.

CONCLUDING NOTE.

IT is now our pleasing duty, in closing our compilation, to express our cordial thanks to all who have rendered us assistance, and who have facilitated the progress of our work by their kindly co-operation and advice. Thanks to the patronage so readily granted by His Highness the Khedive, Abbas Hilmy II., opportunities were accorded to us by the heads of departments to collect essential material with reference to the executive arrangements at Cairo and Alexandria, while the patronage of the British Minister, Sir Eldon Gorst, K.C.B., also helped to smooth the way for the acquisition of departmental information to enable us to make our book a useful record of present-day conditions in Egypt. Amongst the officials and others who either furnished information from which important articles were written, or who revised these articles after they were compiled, we may mention A. L. Webb, C.M.G., Adviser to the Minister of Public Works; W. P. G. 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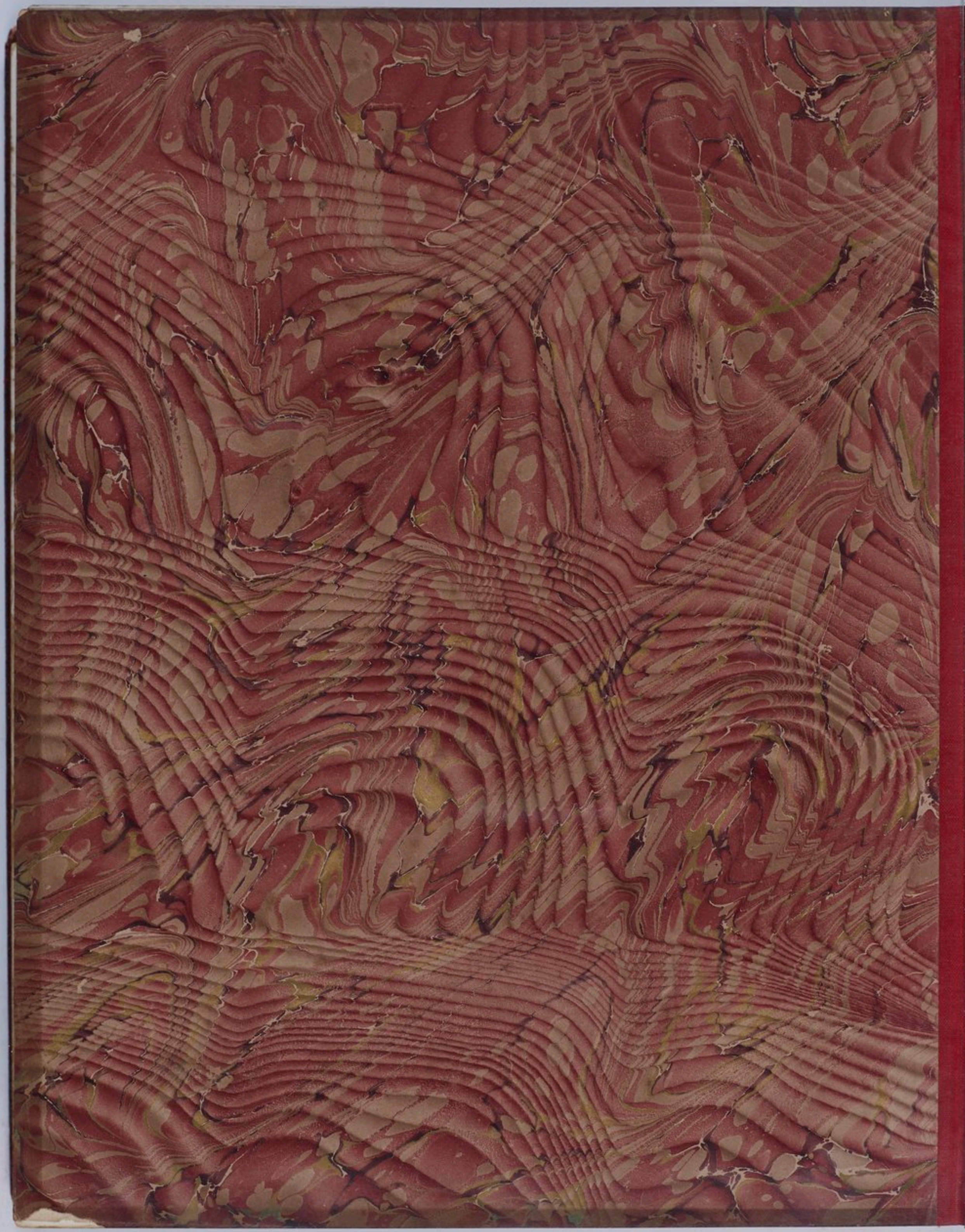
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